UNIVERSITAT DE BARCELONA

Language Learning Motivation: The Palestinian Context

Attitudes, Motivation, and Orientations

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Dedication

This accomplishment is dedicated to my father, Yaser Musleh, whom I see in myself and continues to live in my heart…..

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This dissertation records most of my journey towards obtaining a doctoral degree over the past four and a half years, during which I have been greatly motivated and encouraged to explore my personal potentials. I have learned a great deal and now see the world with a more profound understanding of learning and how the mind works.

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Abstract

Given that motivation is held to be a major affective variable influencing SLA, the present study examines L2 motivation among Palestinian students from the age of 12 to 18 years old. Considering the present situation in Palestine, the motives that drive learners to study a foreign language will certainly be affected by the context (culture and values) in which the learning takes place.

The present study involves the investigation of motivation towards learning English as a foreign language, in four different districts in the West Bank. The first research question in this thesis is an inquiry into language learning motivation and its underlying components among Palestinian learners of English in the context of Palestine. In the second research question, the investigation also looked into how these underlying constructs relate to each other and to achievement. The third research question was an inquiry into how six 'individual and context variables' impacted the motivational constructs identified. Data collection combined a structured questionnaire measuring learner attitudes towards English as well as L2 orientations and a set of semi-structured questions, which provided qualitative data. In this study the questionnaire used was adapted from Cid, Grañena and Tragant (2002), an instrument developed in the context of Catalonia with further modification based on an earlier pilot study (Musleh, 2006) conducted in Palestine.

First, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was done in order to see how items cluster together. Results revealed four constructs underlying motivation in learning English among Palestinian school children, two attitudinal factos (*Motivation and Enjoyment* and *Awareness for Need*) and two reasons for learning the English language (*Instrumentality* and *Interaction with L2 people/culture*). Then, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was

run in order to confirm the constructs identified using EFA and lead to the development of a full structural model based on relationships in models specified by Tragant, Victori, and Thompson (2009) and Csizer and Dörnyei (2005). Finally, the specified model revealed of the SEM analysis (structural equation modeling) a good fit with strong positive relations between *Instrumentality →Interaction with L2 people/culture*, *Instrumentality→Motivation and Enjoyment*, *Motivation* and *Achievement*, *Awareness for Need →Achievement*, and *Awareness for Need →Instrumentality*.

After the SEM analysis, multivariate and univariate analyses of variance (MANOVA and ANOVA) were used to show the impact of variables such as student 'grade level', and 'academic level' of the mother and father, 'district', 'type of school', and 'gender' on the motivational constructs proposed. Results revealed four significant differences: between 'grade level' x 'gender' and the father's x the mother's 'academic levels' with *Interaction with L2 people culture*, between 'district' and *Motivation and enjoyment*, and 'type of school' x father's 'academic level' and *Instrumentality*. This conforms to research findings in the field of language learning motivation which has shown that individual and demographic differences have an impact on attitudes towards learning an L2.

The findings are further reinforced by qualitative data, thus providing a richer representation of motivation for learning English and its components in the Palestinian context. In comparing this study to the study carried out by Tragant (2006) and Tragant, Victori, and Thompson (2009) results demonstrate that motivation and attitudes in learning the English language differs among students from Palestine and from Catalonia, due to the different roles the language plays in each context. Thus, confirming the

proposition that context and culture greatly impact language learning attitudes and reasons for learning the English language.

Resumen

Dado que la motivación es una variable afectiva que influencia la adquisición de una segunda lengua, este estudio analiza la motivación entre estudiantes palestinos (12-18 años). Si tenemos en consideración la situación actual en Palestina, los motivos que llevan a los estudiantes a estudiar una lengua extranjera seguro que se ven afectados por el contexto (cultura y valores) de aprendizaje.

El estudio se centra en la investigación de la motivación hacia el inglés como lengua extranjera en cuatro distritos del West Bank. La primera pregunta de investigación de esta tesis doctoral se centra en el estudio de los componentes de la motivación en estudiantes palestinos de inglés en el contexto de Palestina. En la segunda pregunta de investigación se analizan cómo estos componentes se relacionan entre sí y con un componente lingüístico. En la tercera pregunta de investigación se estudia el efecto de seis variables individuales y de contexto en los componentes motivacionales identificados. En la recogida de datos se utilizó un cuestionario estructurado para medir las actitudes y orientaciones del estudiante de inglés, complementado con una serie de preguntas semiestructuradas, las cuales proporcionan datos cualitativos. El cuestionario se adaptó de Cid, Grañena y Tragant (2002), desarrollado en el contexto de Cataluña, con algunas modificaciones basadas en un estudio piloto (Musleh, 2006), realizado en Palestina.

En primer lugar, se sealizó un análisis factorial exploratorio para examinar la distribución de los ítems en factores. Los resultados mostraron cuatro constructos en el contexto de aprendizaje del inglés en las escuelas palestinas, dos factores actitudinales (*Motivación y placer* y *Consciencia de necesidad*) y dos motivos para el aprendizaje del inglés (*Orientación instrumental* y *Orientación interactiva*). En segundo lugar, se realizó un análisis factorial confirmatoria para reafirmar los factores identificados y desarrollar un modelo estructural basado en los modelos especificados en Tragant, Victori, y Thompson (2009) y Csizer y Dörnyei (2005). Finalmente se especificó un modelo y se obtuvieron medidas adecuadas en el análisis de ecuación estructural realizado. El modelo muestra relaciones positivas entre la orientación instrumental y la interactiva, la orientación instrumental y motivación y placer, y motivación y placer y el componente lingüístico.

Posteriormente al análisis de ecuación estructural, se realizó un análisis de varianza multivariado y univariado (MANOVA y ANOVA) para estudiar el impacto de las variables 'curso', 'nivel académico' de la madre y el padre, 'distrito', 'tipo de escuela', y 'género' en los factores motivacionales del modelo propuesto. Los resultados mostraron cuatros diferencias significativas: entre 'curso' x 'género' y el 'nivel académico' del padre x la madre con la Ontientación interactiva, entre 'distrito' y Motivación y placer, y entre 'tipo de escuela' x 'nivel académico' del padre y Orientación intrumental. Estos resultados confirman que las diferencias individuales y demográficas son variables influyentes en las actitudes hacia el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua. Los resultados obtenidos del análisis cualitativo complementan los resultados cuantitativos aportando una representación más rica de algunos aspectos sobre la motivación en el aprendizaje del inglés en Palestina. Al comparar este estudio con los resultados obtenidos en Tragant (2006) y Tragant et al. (2009) se demuestra que la motivación y las actitudes

en el aprendizaje del inglés tienen características distintivas en Palestina y Cataluña, debido al papel diferenciado que esta lengua juega en ambos contextos. Así pues, se confirma la proposición según la cual el contexto y los aspectos culturales juegan un papel importantísimo en las actitudes y las orientaciones hacia el aprendizaje del inglés.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

People think of motivation as a driving force that, in many cases in both academic and non-academic settings, might lead to success. In psychology, Murry (1964) defined motivation as an "internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person's behavior. It is not observed directly, but inferred from his behavior or simply assumed to exist in order to explain his behavior" (p. 7). Pintrich and Schunk (1996) defined motivation as "the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained" (p. 4). Brown (1994) defined motivation as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action" (p.152).

In the field of second/foreign language learning, Gardner (1985) defined motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (p. 10). In this definition, Gardner identified three elements that have to work together in order to have positive motivation. He further explained his definition: Effort alone will not bring motivation. People may do something just because they were asked to, or to please others, and not

because they are motivated. Desire to do something, alone, may also not influence motivation. Human beings are full of different types of desires. However, just because people have desires and dreams does not mean that these desires will be fulfilled. Similarly, attitudes toward something may not get one to his/her goals unless that person works diligently to achieve them. Thus, for Gardner, a motivated student is one who wants to achieve a particular goal, is willing to work hard to achieve the goal, and would be satisfied in the process of achieving the goal (Gardner & Smythe, 1981).

Al-Shammary (1984) argued that motivation is a state of need that produces a strong desire that leads and directs the learners' capabilities to learn more in order to fulfill the need. He explained:

> It is hypothesized that motivation directly stems out of the need of the student to learn a language, and the stronger the need to learn, the more likely we will have stronger motivation. This or these needs changes according to the socio-cultural environment of the learner, to the learner's age, gender, his past experience, and first language verses target language prestige and cultural differences (p. 39).

Studying motivation's effects on students' achievements involves examining students' individual differences and various attitudinal and motivational characteristics. Gardner (1985, 1988) argued that, when investigating a homogenous group of students' attitudes and motivation towards studying such subjects as mathematics, history, or geography, the cultural variable is not an issue. All of these subjects involve the students' own culture. Studying another language, on the other hand, involves studying the culture of the target language because language learning is not just learning sounds and linguistic codes of the language. Those linguistic features are part of the target language culture and representative of the community's worldview. Thus, a good language-learning program

stresses the importance of including the cultural aspect of the target language as an integral part of the curriculum (Gardner, 1985).

Dornyei (1996) expressed his view of the complexity of investigating motivation to learn a second language that involves psychological and nonpsychological factors. He explained:

> Language is at the same time: (1) a communication coding system that can be taught as a school subject; (2) an integral part of the individual's identity involved in almost all mental activities (just think of sentence like "This doesn't sound like me"); and also (3) the most
>
> important channel of social organization embedded in the culture of the community where it is used (p.72).

From the above, it can be said that second language learning is a multifaceted learning process that not only includes a linguistic aspect, but also psychological, personal, and educational aspects.

Hence, learning an L2 is different from learning other school subjects in many ways. This is because motivation to learn an L2/FL entails many affective variables (components). Researchers still do not agree on its components and the different roles that these components play—individual differences, situational differences, social and cultural factors, and cognition (Renchler, 1992; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998). While a second language can be a "learnable" school subject in that elements such as grammatical rules and lexical items can be taught explicitly, it is also socially and culturally bound. This makes language learning a social event involving the integration of a wide range of elements of the L2 culture (Dörnyei 2003). It is increasingly recognised, for example, that learner attributes and activity are deeply influenced by the socio-cultural environment, such that motivation itself could be considered to be a feature not of the

individual but the interaction of the individual with the environment (Hickey 1997; McGroarty 2001). The importance of culture is reflected in the concept of "situated cognition," in which the setting and the activity that knowledge is developed are an integral part of the learning (Oxford 1996). Gardner also points out the importance of the learning context represented by the social milieu component in his socio-educational model (Gardner 1985)

Considering the special political situation in Palestine, the attitudes students have and the motives that drive learners to study a foreign language will certainly be affected by the social milieu (culture and values) in which the learning takes place. Since the Palestinians are in a transition state, and at a stage of State formation, English is perceived as a "window on the world" (Amara 2003). The learning context is likely to have impact on attitudes towards a language that most Palestinians see as the language of modernity and a means of communication with the rest of the world. In order to achieve this modernity and express the Palestinian identity to the world, English is considered an important vehicle. Studies on L2 motivation in Palestine have been carried out at Bethlehem and An-Najah Universities by Bakir (1996), Barqawi (1995), Khalil and Sanbee (1987), Shakhshir (1996), and Tushyeh(1986). However, there is a need for further studies involving younger learners due to the shifting political and cultural situation and the increasing significance of the role English plays in Palestine. In this study, there will be a closer look at learner motivation among Palestinian students. With hope the results can be used to further enhance teaching techniques, and therefore increase student performance and attitudes towards learning English and learning in general.

Since Gardner and Lambert's (1959) pioneering social psychological approach to the study of L2 learning motivation, over five decades of research have demonstrated the importance of context in L2 learning motivation. Nevertheless, because of the emphasis in its conceptualization on the macro aspects of the social context, it is now widely accepted that the research carried out within Gardner's social psychological paradigm provides highly pertinent insights into the relations between students' general attitudes toward L2 learning and L2 achievement. As such, it is important to investigate and determine the factors that impact language learning and proficiency in the target language and their structure which are two major objectives in this investigation

In this study, the investigation takes place in the Palestinian context. It is expected that the social milieu has significant influence on the attitudes Palestinian learners of English will have toward L2 learning and thus L2 achievement. Identifying some of these influential factors such as gender, age, district (location), type of school, and parents' academic level and finding out how they interact with motivational factors can help us better understand the nature of FL motivation in the Palestinian context. Given that there is hardly any empirical research in this area in Palestine, the investigation of influential factors is also part of this study.

1.1 Layout of the Thesis

In this introductory chapter, I presented the broad rationale behind this study. This is followed by the literature review, which is split across two chapters (chapters 2 and 3). In Chapter 2, I provide an overview of motivation theories and constructs taken from the fields of psychology and educational psychology, selected because they refer to factors that can influence students' academic motivational orientations and beliefs, which in turn

may affect achievement and learning. Chapter 3 consists of a review of some major theories of L2 learning motivation that are useful for understanding secondary school students' motivation to learn English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

The study is the focus of the second half of the thesis. Chapter 4 sets out the research design, introduces the methods that were used, and gives a broad outline of the data analysis procedures. Chapter 5 presents and discusses the results pertaining to the Palestinian cohort of students; while Chapter 6 discusses the motivational constructs identified in the Palestinian context. Furthermore there will be a discussion of the similarities and differences in the models pertaining to the Palestinian students in the present study and that concerning the Catalonian students in Tragant's research (2009). Chapter 7 concludes the thesis by summarizing the results, discussing the theoretical contributions of the study, suggesting pedagogical implications, noting the limitations, and suggesting potential avenues for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

MOTIVATION IN PSYCHOLOGY

In this chapter, I first give a general overview of how the field of motivation research has evolved with a shift in preference, in conceptual frameworks, in approaches, and in the relationship between theory and practice; then, I present a number of motivational theories and constructs, moving from those that deal with fairly stable, personality-related factors, to those that are more influenced by the socialization process and educational experiences. Due to the scope of the topic at hand, the theories and constructs discussed here necessarily represent a personal, hence subjective selection. However, they were chosen because they are related to L2 motivation theories mentioned in the next chapter. It is important to be familiar with developments in the field of motivation in psychology so as to understand language learning motivational theories and how they were constructed. In the case of the study presented in this thesis, knowledge of these motivational theories, frameworks, and approaches is not only important but an essential factor according to which findings are interpreted and compared to.

2.1 Development and expansion in the study of motivation

The scientific study of motivation in educational psychology was initiated approximately in 1930. Since then, it has developed into a sophisticated field of enquiry, particularly since the defeat of behaviorism by cognitivism in general psychology. . This development has been indicated by a change in inclination, in theoretical frameworks, in methods, and in the relationship between theory and, resulting in what Dörnyei (2001c) described as a field "in an exciting state of flux" (p. 18).

Early theories of motivation, beginning in the 1930s, largely regarded individuals as responsive and pushed into action by inner drives, or physical and culturally acquired needs resulting from some kind of deprivation. The view of individuals as pawns was reinforced when behaviorist theory increased its grip on psychology, and individuals' motivated behaviors came to be seen as reactions to external pressures in the form of external "reinforcers", which pulled individuals into action. Consequently, the term "behavior control" (through reinforcement, non-reinforcement, or punishment), eventually became more frequent than "motivation" (Greeno, Collins, & Resnick, 1996).

Nevertheless, some psychologists, who had been trained in the behaviorist tradition started to recognize that the effects of reinforcement were mediated by individuals' cognitions. These cognitions included the value that individuals placed on the reinforcer, their expectation that the reinforcer would be delivered upon successful completion of the task, their beliefs about their competence to accomplish the task successfully, and their assessment of whether engaging in the action to receive the reinforcer was worth the effort and sacrifices it entailed (Brophy, 1999b).

The shift from behaviorism to cognitivism eventually became general in scientific research as a whole. Consequently, by the 1970s, behaviorism had largely given way to

the cognitive perspective in educational psychology research. The cognitive perspective emphasizes the importance of mental activity in actively organizing, structuring, and constructing mental representations of knowledge when trying to make sense of, and act on one's environment.

The 1980s and 1990s were marked by further developments related to the rise in importance of the context when studying motivation, when the cognitive perspective came to be complemented by social-cognitive and socio-cultural (or situative) approaches. These approaches represent different epistemological positions. Proponents of the social-cognitive approach believe that motivation does not reside entirely within the individual or entirely within the context. According to this view, students' cognitions regarding academic work (e.g., ability beliefs, outcome expectations when engaging in tasks) are influenced by social-contextual factors, such as the messages that the teacher sends about the difficulty of tasks, the information he or she gives about the importance of learning the material, or the perceived abilities of classmates (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). In contrast, drawing from sociocultural theory, advocates of the situative approach (e.g., Blumenfeld, 1992; Hickey, 1997; McCaslin & Good, 1996; Turner, 2001) regard knowledge and motivation as socially constructed and distributed among participants within a given setting. The situative view of motivation is not uncontroversial. For instance, it can be argued that principles derived from group dynamics can account for motivational processes that the situative approach claims to explain (Dörnyei, January 2004, personal communication).

Although the person-in-context view of motivation has a long history (Lewin, 1935), it has only recently emerged as the dominant perspective in academic motivation research and theory (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). However, there has yet to emerge a

coherent theoretical framework that offers a solid research paradigm (Opt'Eynde, De Corte, & Verschaffel, 2001; Volet, 2001b). The field still faces some major challenges, including how to conceptualize the learner in context, and how to analyze the mutual interactions between the learner and the context (Anderman & Anderman, 2000).

Whereas early theories of motivation strove to be comprehensive by postulating relations between multiple constructs expressed as mathematical algorithms, the 1970s saw the start of a new trend that gained momentum in the 1980s and 1990s. This new trend was to concentrate on the study of specific motivational constructs and build "reductionist models of motivation" (Dörnyei, 2001c, p. 12). However, since the turn of the millennium, the field has been witnessing what seems to be a renewed interest in building conceptual frameworks that are more comprehensive and use multiple perspectives to study motivation, not just in terms of its structure, but also as a dynamic process in natural classroom contexts (e.g., Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001; Middleton & Toluk, 1999; Volet, 2001b).

In addition to the shift in approach, another shift can be observed in the way the field of motivation in educational psychology construes the relationship between theory and practice. It seems that over the last decade or so, there has been an increasing desire among motivation scholars not only to use theory to inform practice, but also to derive theory from practice. This means that more research is now being carried out while engaging in real and practical education-related tasks, such as designing learning environments, curricula, and schemes for the assessment of learning (Hickey & McCaslin, 2001).

2.2 Theories and constructs reflecting personality-related motivational attitudes

This section presents a selection of theories within five constructs referring to within-person factors that can affect an individual's motivation in educational settings, and present trait (i.e., relatively stable) aspects. They vary in the extent to which they are genetically determined and/or a product of an individual's socialization history. The first section (2.2.1) introduces the following theories concerning the need for achievement: 1) Murray's 1983 theory, 2) McClelland's 1953 Achievement Motive theory, and 3) Atikinson's Theory of Achievement Motivation. Competence motivation is introduced in section 2.2.2 presenting the need for competence construct. Section 2.2.3 presents mainly two theories concerning conceptions of the self, the first is the one adopted by Markus and Nurius (1986) and the second is the Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987). Next, in section 2.2.4, action vs. state orientations is presented with Kuhl's theory of action control. In the final part of this section (2.2.5), the concept of Future Time Perspective (FTP) is explained.

2.2.1 Need for achievement

Some early theories of motivation hypothesize that the majority of motivated instances of human behavior could be viewed as attempts to reduce or satisfy physiological and psychological needs. These needs were thought to constitute an internal energy force, to alter in intensity, and to operate either in isolation or in combination with other needs.

Murray's 1938 theory specified many human needs, two of which were relevant to education: the need for achievement and the need to avoid failure. These two concepts

were subsequently taken up by McClelland, who developed them into his 1953 Achievement Motive theory. According to McClelland, the achievement motive consists of hope for success (associated with positive affect), and fear of failure (associated with negative affect). The achievement motive is considered to be a fairly stable and enduring (i.e., trait-like) disposition, which is learned through the process of associating environmental and internal cues with positive or negative affective states. It is assumed that, as associations become stronger, perception of the cues is sufficient to arouse an individual's tendency to act.

In 1957, Atkinson built on McClelland's achievement motive construct in his own theory of achievement motivation, and posited a need for achievement. This need was hypothesized to vary according to individuals, to be learned at a young age, and to be shaped by the rearing practices that prevail in the home environment. Atkinson's theory predicted that in individuals with a high need for achievement (i.e., high in the motive to approach success, and low in the motive to avoid failure), tasks at an intermediate level of difficulty would elicit maximum levels of motivation. In contrast, individuals with a low need for achievement (i.e., low in the motive to approach success, and high in the motive to avoid failure) would be more likely to choose very easy tasks in which they were most likely to succeed, or very difficult ones in which most people would fail. However, these predictions were not always supported empirically. In actual empirical findings it appears that most people regardless of their motives for success and failure choose tasks of intermediate difficulty with a higher tendency for success-oriented individuals to choose intermediate tasks more often than those high in fear of failure (Weiner, 1992).

2.2.2 Need for competence

Competence motivation is viewed as a basic psychological need that helps people adapt to and change their environment. This is a cognitively based conceptualization in that the "need for competence" is mediated, organized, and satisfied through cognitive processes. The focus on these cognitive constructs is grounded on the assumption that individuals' competence beliefs and competence schemas are vital forces in their choice to pursue or avoid competence relevant situations, to persist in the face of challenges and weather critical evaluation, and impact on affect and objective performance (Elliot & Dweck, 2005).

Need-based constructs are still being examined in contemporary motivation research. For instance Elliot, McGregor and Thrash's (2002) need for competence is derived from White's desire for effectence (White, 1959), the latter referring to a desire to investigate, manipulate, and master one's environment in order to experience the pleasure that results from this competent and effective engagement (i.e., interaction). The need for competence is posited as a biologically based, individual difference factor. Because life experiences seem to impact on the quantity and quality of an individual's need for competence, it is considered malleable and capable of variations across the lifespan. Factors that influence the quantity and quality of the need for competence and result in individual differences include the following:

- Special talents (e.g., musical, athletic, artistic), which lead some individuals to experience early and frequent feelings of efficacy and pride in their accomplishments.
- A secure attachment between an individual and his/her caregivers.

• The kind of socialization (e.g., through modeling, encouragement, stimulation) individuals receive from their caregivers in areas relevant to competence.

It is suggested that the need for competence is essential to psychological well-being, and initially manifests itself in the behavior of infants who gain information about their competence directly through the effect their behavior has on the environment (Elliot & Moller, 2003). Elliot, McGregor and Thrash (2002) termed such motivation *task-referential competence motivation*, which they distinguished from *past-referential competence motivation* (in which competence is viewed in terms of an increase in present performance relative to past performance) and *other-referential competence motivation* (in which competence is viewed as outperforming others). The process of cognitive maturation is hypothesized to bring about the acquisition of competence information through temporal and normative standards (Elliot & Moller, 2003).

2.2.3 Conceptions of the self

Taken together, self-conceptions form a collection of images and cognitions about the self. They are thought to give substance to an individual's goals, thereby helping them to "assess their progress, evaluate their instrumental acts, and revise their aspirations" (Cantor, Markus, Niedenthal, & Nurius, 1986, p. 103). Self-conceptions differ in the degree of their elaboration, and in their location in time. Some are very detailed cognitive representations, while others may be less well defined. Some are images of the current self, while others represent past or future selves. It is thought that images of past and future selves are likely to have more effect on motivation than images of the current self. Examples of past selves are the good selves that one likes to remember, and the bad selves that one would rather forget. Future selves are represented by possible selves,

which include the hoped-for selves, the expected selves, and the feared selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Possible selves are hypothetical images that give form, meaning, structure, and direction to an individual's hopes and fears. They are thus critical for inciting and directing purposeful behavior (Terry & Bybee, 2002). Whether they are to be approached (i.e., in the case of hoped-for or expected selves) or avoided (in the case of feared selves), they act as incentives for future behavior. They also help individuals to interpret and evaluate their current behavior.

There is now some empirical evidence that a positive possible self is a stronger source of motivation when it is counterbalanced by a feared self in the same domain (Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004). However, people do not always have positive possible selves because the formative influence of their social environment may restrict their development (Alderman, 1999).

Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) offers a similar perspective to that adopted by Markus and Nurius (1986) outlined above. Higgins (1987) posited the existence of two standpoints on the self (one's own personal standpoint and the standpoint of a significant other) and of three types of self-domains that can be viewed from either of the standpoints. These self-domains are:

- *the actual self* (an individual's representation of the attributes that either he/she or a significant other believes one possesses);
- *the ideal self* (an individual's representation of the attributes that either he/she or a significant other would ideally hope one to possess);

• *the ought self* (an individual's representation of the attributes that either he/she or a significant other believes one should possess, out of a sense of duty or moral obligation).

The ideal and ought selves are referred to as self-guides. It is assumed that individuals are motivated to bridge the gap (i.e., reduce the discrepancy) between their actual self and their personally relevant self-guides until they match. According to Higgins (1987), not all individuals are expected to have such self-guides, and self-discrepancies vary between individuals, those having a small discrepancy between their actual and ideal selves being presumed to be more motivated.

2.2.4 Action vs. state orientation

Action and state orientations were proposed by Kuhl (1992) in his theory of action control. The notions of action and state orientations represent a form of approach-avoidance system of regulation of behavior. Action orientation is, in essence, the capacity to regulate emotions, thoughts, and behaviors to fulfill the intentions that individuals form. State orientation refers to the inability to regulate these emotions, thoughts, and behaviors. That is, these individuals are unable to modify their state-their anxiety, dejection, confusion, and uncertainty, for example (Kuhl, 1981, 1992, 2000). Generally, it is believed that being state-oriented interferes with action. State-oriented individuals are prone to ruminating about potential negative events, procrastinating before starting a task, having trouble concentrating; as a result, they have a more passive, reactive style. State orientation has two forms: a *decision-related state orientation* which is when an individual is inable to self-generate positive affect under stress, and *a failure-related state orientation* in which a person is unable to reduce negative affect after experiencing failure or negative events.

In contrast, action oriented individuals tend to work toward their goals in a directed, active, and self-regulatory fashion. Just like state orientation, action orientation also has two forms: decision-related action orientation, which is defined as an individual's ability to self-generate positive affect in stressful situations, and failure-related action-orientation, which refers to a person's ability to reduce negative affect after failure or negative events.

Action and state orientations are thus dispositions that represent the two poles of a continuous dimension related to a person's effectiveness in translating intentions into actions. State orientation is indicated by a low score on the individual difference measure called action-orientation (Kuhl, 2001). The action orientation scale is a well-validated measure of action-state orientation (Diefendorff, Hall, Lord, & Strean, 2000; Kuhl, 1994).

2.2.5 Future Time Perspective (FTP)

FTP has been defined as "the present anticipation of future goals" (Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante, 2004, p. 122), and more precisely as "the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal-setting processes" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p. 114). It is easy to notice that the degree to which the future matters varies from person to person, and that people differ in their ability to anticipate the future, as well as foresee the future consequences of their present behavior. FTP deals with these issues. The extension of FTP is considered an individual difference that has motivational consequences (Husman & Lens, 1999). For instance, most of the goals set by an individual with a short FTP are likely to be set in the near future. In contrast, most of the goals set by a person with a long (deep) FTP will be set in the distant future (Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante, 2004). According to Husman & Lens (1999) and

Peetsman (2000) individuals with a long FTP have been found to work with more intensity in certain subjects in the classroom, show more persistence in their goal striving , and derive more satisfaction from goal-oriented actions.

Future time perspective (FTP) is a growing area of research in psychology (McInerney, 2004), which also seems to be gaining importance in educational psychology, as evidenced by the fact that a special double issue (March and June 2004) of the *Educational Psychology Review* was dedicated to the effects of time perspective on student motivation. A growing body of research (e.g., Creten, Lens, & Simons, 2001; Husman & Lens, 1999; Lens, Simons, & Dewitte, 2001, 2002; Peetsma, 2000) also attests to this.

2.3 Theories and constructs reflecting motivational attitudes influenced by the socialization process and educational experiences

An emphasis on personality-related motivational influences is useful when it comes to accounting for global motives, and for the energy sources of motivation. However, it neglects the powerful influence of (a) cultural and situational factors, (b) the specific cognitive processes that cause or mediate achievement-related outcomes, and (c) the subjective experiences that accompany goal striving. Global motives emerging from personality-related factors cannot account on their own for the whole range of specific ends pursued by individuals in given situations. The following section will thus introduce those concepts neglected by personality-related motivational factors as well as the relevant models of motivation. In the following sections, there will be a brief explanation of expectancy-value models of motivation (section 2.3.1), attribution theory (2.3.2), self-

efficacy (2.3.3), learned-helplessness (2.3.4), self-worth theory (2.3.5), goal theory (2.3.6), and self-determination theory (2.3.7).

2.3.1 Expectancy-value models of motivation

The cognitive notion of expectancy refers to the degree to which individuals anticipate that their performance in a task will result in success. Value refers to "the relative attractiveness of succeeding or failing at a task" (Wigfield & Tonks, 2002, p. 54) or to "beliefs that individuals hold about the reasons they want to do an achievement task" (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002, p. 408).

The expectancy and value constructs were already present in some early motivation theories such as Tolman's and Lewin's in the 1930s but were reintroduced by Atkinson in his 1957 Theory of Achievement Motivation. Atkinson postulated that behavior was a multiplicative function of three components: need for achievement, probability of success (an expectancy component mostly consisting of a judgment about competence), and incentive value (an affect-based component essentially related to the pride experienced in conjunction to accomplishment, i.e., a judgment about value). However, findings indicated that "probability of success" and "incentive value" seemed to play a larger role in motivation (operationalized as individuals' choice of tasks according to difficulty) than the more stable personality-related achievement motive (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Moreover, the theory failed to explain why some failure-threatened individuals outperformed success-oriented ones in relaxed conditions (Kuhl, 2001).

A contemporary expectancy-value model has since been developed and updated several times by Eccles and her colleagues (e.g., Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). The

expectancy component in the model is defined as an individual's competence-related beliefs with respect to upcoming tasks in the immediate or longer-term future (efficacy expectations), as well as their beliefs about their own ability in the given domain.

According to Wigfield and his colleagues (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Wigfield & Tonks, 2002), the *value* component actually refers to a set of four types of subjective values:

• *attainment value* (i.e., the importance of doing well in a class or the perception that the tasks done in a particular class are central to one's sense of self);

• *intrinsic value*, (i.e., the enjoyment gained from doing an activity, or one's interest in a subject);

• *utility value or usefulness* (i.e., how well a task fits into one's current and future goals);

• *cost* (i.e., the negative aspects of engaging in a task such as performance anxiety, the amount of effort one will need to exert in order to complete the task, and the choices one has to make in order to do this particular task).

In Eccles et al. models (1984, 1998), the expectancy and value components differ from Atkinson's in two respects. First, Atkinson's incentive value was deemed to be 1.0 minus the probability for success, whereas in contemporary expectancy-value theory it is assumed that expectancy and value are positively related to each other, which means that value plays a much more important role than in the Atkinson's model. Second, in Eccles et al. models, both components are linked to a broader range of psychological and socio-cultural factors. These factors are influenced by students' personal beliefs about the characteristics and demands of the task, short- and long-term goals, and students' self-schemas (i.e., their beliefs about what kind of person they are or could become, their

personality, their personal and social identities, and their academic ability). The students'

beliefs and self-schemas are in turn presumed to be influenced by their perceptions of the

attitudes, beliefs and expectations of their socializers (e.g., parents, teachers, peers), by

their affective memories, and by their interpretations of previous achievement-related

experiences (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

A major limitation to expectancy-value models is that they have difficulty

accounting for behavior over time (Kanfer, 1990). While they offer important

contributions regarding the values construct and can explain how individuals embark on

given courses of action, they are less successful in accounting for the ways in which

individuals maintain and sustain action until their intentions are fully realized.

2.3.2 Attribution theory

Attributions are defined as the perceived causes of achievement performance.

Attribution Theory is associated with the work of Weiner (e.g., 1985). It focuses on the

effect of attributions on individuals' expectancies with respect to subsequent achievement

strivings, and on the emotions arising out of the attributions. For these reasons,

Attribution Theory falls into the category of expectancy-value theories. Nevertheless, it is

quite distinctive because of its cognitive approach to emotions, and the prominent place it

gives to them (e.g., see Hareli & Weiner, 2002).

Attribution Theory posits that all causes of achievement outcomes can be

characterized according to three basic properties: locus, controllability, and stability:

• *Locus* refers to the location of a cause. It can be described as internal or external

to the individual. When success is attributed to an internal cause (e.g., ability), the

individual experiences pride and increased self-esteem; these, in turn, become

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motivators in subsequent achievement situations. Conversely, failure ascribed to internal causes results in a decrease in self-esteem. Such emotions are not experienced when success or failure are attributed to external causes.

• *Controllability* indicates whether an individual can do something about the causes of achievement outcomes, and gives rise to a number of emotions (Graham & Weiner, 1996). For instance, people express pity and sympathy toward individuals who are prevented from attaining their goals due to externally uncontrollable factors (e.g., lack of ability, physical handicap); conversely, individuals who fail because of internally uncontrollable causes (e.g., low ability) commonly experience shame, humiliation, or embarrassment. When failure results from externally uncontrollable factors (e.g., noise, bias), individuals experience anger. On the other hand, they feel guilty when failure results from internally controllable causes (e.g., lack of effort, negligence).

• *Stability* pertains to the relative endurance of a cause over time. For instance, ability/aptitude is considered stable, whereas situational effort, knowledge, skills, and luck/chance are regarded as unstable. Success attributed to ability is assumed to lead to expectancies of success in future endeavors. Conversely, failure attributed to low ability is likely to lead to expectancies of failure in subsequent achievement situations. In contrast, failure ascribed to an unstable cause (particularly effort) is believed to lead to increased persistence (Graham & Weiner, 1996).

Attribution Theory has aroused some controversy over who is regarded as being able to control the causes of the attributions. First, there seems to be some overlap

between the stability dimension, and both the trait-state distinction used in personality theory, and the global-specific one proposed by researchers working on learned helplessness. Second, there is some disagreement about whether it is possible to have attributions that are external to the individual, yet still controllable (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). The debate seems to hinge on who is regarded as being able to control the causes of the attributions. If, as argued by Stipek (2002a), the individual is making the attribution, it is not possible to have attributions that are external and controllable. On the other hand, as argued by Weiner (1986, cited in Pintrich & Schunk, 2002), an external and controllable attribution is possible if it is made by people who are perceived as instrumental to failure or success (e.g., a teacher, parents or peers).

Findings from cross-cultural studies (Muramoto, 2003; Ng et al., 1995; Park & Kim, 1999) suggest that individuals across cultures (as well as within) may vary in the way they classify attributions. For example, South Korean adolescents are likely to attribute their successes to the social support they receive from their family, whereas they tend to attribute their failures to either insufficient personal effort, or inadequate ability to self-regulate—both of which they view as personality flaws (Park & Kim, 1999). Fry and Gosh (1980) had similar findings in a study comparing attributions to success and failure among Canadian Caucasian and Asian Indian children. Caucasian subjects took greater personal credit for success and attributed failure to luck, but Asian subjects assumed more personal responsibility for failure and attributed success to luck. In this study the implications of the attributional patterns are discussed in terms of the socialization of Asian children competing for success and self-enhancement with their Caucasian counterparts.

2.3.3 Self-efficacy

The construct of self-efficacy was introduced by Bandura (1977) as part of his social cognitive theory of motivation. Social cognitive theory postulates that achievement is dependent on interactions between an individual's behaviors, personal factors, and the conditions present in the environment (Schunk & Pajares, 2002, p. 16). Self-efficacy beliefs are "personal judgments of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated goals" (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 83).

Self-efficacy is thus an ability construct which is task-specific (Graham & Weiner, 1996) and is assumed to differ from judgments of self-competence, the latter tending to be more stable across time and achievement situations, either in general or in specific domains. However, it is worthwhile noting that self-efficacy beliefs are sometimes assessed at a domain-specific level (Schunk & Pajares, 2002), which suggests some overlap, at least at the level of the measurement of the constructs. There is some empirical evidence suggesting that self-efficacy beliefs may be responsive to changes in the instructional context, which in turn seems to imply that instructional interventions designed to raise self-efficacy might be effective in improving motivation to achieve.

Three factors are hypothesized to affect students' levels of self-efficacy at the outset of a given activity:

- *prior experience* (e.g., of similar tasks or through observations of other people modeling the new task);
- *personal qualities* (e.g., abilities/aptitudes);
- *social support*, that is, the extent to which significant others encourage the students to learn, facilitate their access to educational resources, and teach them self-regulatory strategies such as goal setting, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and

the use of learning strategies. For instance, parents' academic aspirations for their children were found to influence the children's self-efficacy and affect the children's academic achievements (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996).

Once students are engaging with the task, personal factors (e.g., information processing) and situational factors (e.g., teacher's feedback) provide them with cues about their performance and skills. If their own evaluation is positive, their motivation and self-efficacy will be enhanced. Should the evaluation be negative, they may still not necessarily lose motivation or self-efficacy, provided they believe that putting in more effort or using different strategies will lead to better performance (Schunk & Pajares, 2002, p. 25).

There is little doubt that optimistic self-efficacy beliefs are influential: Self-efficacy expectations have been found to be more predictive of actual outcomes than outcome expectations, which are personal beliefs about the consequences of doing well in a task (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2004). However, self-efficacy alone will not lead students to engage in tasks unless students also hold positive outcome expectations and believe that the tasks have value (i.e., that learning is important and/or useful), as represented in contemporary expectancy-value theories. Further, according to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is not important when it comes to practicing very familiar actions.

2.3.4 Learned helplessness

While the construct of self-efficacy is associated to the belief that "I can do it," *learned helplessness* is its counterpart—a belief that "I cannot do it, no matter what." The concept of helplessness was proposed by Seligman (1975), and has since been associated

in the field of educational psychology with the work of Dweck and Leggett (1988). Helplessness is a state that arises when failure is unexpected (non-contingent), and is perceived as resulting from uncontrollable events. If helplessness is generalized from a single non-contingent experience to other experiences in which events were in fact controllable, it becomes *learned*.

Causal attributions are central to the theory of learned helplessness. The more internal, stable, and generalizable across contexts the learners' attributions are, the more vulnerable these learners will be when it comes to experiencing helplessness beliefs and concomitant loss of motivation, spontaneous attributions to low ability, passivity, display of negative affect such as boredom and anxiety, and deterioration of academic performance (Graham & Weiner, 1996).

2.3.5 Self-worth theory

Self-worth theory is associated with the work of Covington (2000) and refers to an individual's positive appraisal of their personal value in terms of how competent they appear to others in achievement situations. It is therefore closely related to the concepts of self-esteem and self-respect (Stipek, 2002a).

Self-worth theory assumes that human beings are naturally driven to establish and maintain a sense of personal worth and belonging in society. In addition, many students, perhaps even most of them, define their own worth in the same way because society measures people's worth according to their ability to achieve. Thus, students who value the demonstration of ability because of its implications in terms of status but have doubts about their own ability are likely to develop a defensive repertoire of tactics designed to avoid failure or even possible implications of failure. The tactics that enable students to

protect themselves from the negative implications of failure (i.e., an external as well as personal judgment of low academic ability) include "self-worth protection," "defensive pessimism," and "self-handicapping" strategies (Covington, 2000).

Students who resort to 'self-worth protection' withdraw effort. They do not try, or make people think they do not try, thereby providing an excuse for failure that is preferable to trying and failing because of low ability. However, such behavior is likely to incur others' disapproval, get the students into trouble, and possibly result in punishment. 'Defensive pessimism' involves lowering one's aspirations or announcing low competence or low aspirations to others before a task in order to lower the teacher's or others' expectations, or not taking studying seriously. 'Self-handicapping' refers to the use of a set of defensive strategies designed to introduce ambiguity in the failure–low ability connection by minimizing the amount of information that is available to others regarding an individual's ability. Students can display a wide range of self-handicapping strategies (Covington, 2000; Stipek, 2002a), which include the following:

- Presenting the image of an attentive student while keeping a low profile and avoiding the teacher's attention, hoping the teacher will call on other students.
- Faking effort (e.g. by asking a question to which they already know the answer).
- Minimizing participation, for instance, by not volunteering.
- Claiming a handicap for not being able to study (e.g., sickness, or family problems).
- Procrastinating and doing work at the last minute.
- Attempting impossibly difficult tasks, which means that most likely anyone else would have failed, too.
- Cheating.

2.3.6 Goal theories

Goal theories assume that humans, when awake, are naturally active, so they are not explaining the initiation of action, only accounting for its direction, intensity, and persistence (Brophy, 1999). In educational psychology, the goal construct has been examined from perspectives that differ mostly in terms of their level of specificity (Kaplan & Maehr, 2001). At the most general level, goals represent life goals, or images of the self in the future (e.g., ideal selves). At the next level, goals correspond to more immediate personal pursuits; this level is represented by the 'goal content approach', which is relevant to all areas of life, including achievement contexts.

The most specific approach to goals, which is applicable to a variety of contexts outside education, is associated with social cognitive theory, and concentrates on goals that are highly task-specific, called 'target goals'. Bandura's conceptualization of goals, which are defined according to their levels of challenge, proximity, and specificity, falls into this category. Such goals direct behavior toward meeting specified standards, but they do not really explain why individuals may be seeking to attain them.

2.3.6.1 Goal orientation theory

An attempt at synthesizing the 'goal content' and 'target goal' approaches outlined above is represented by the achievement goal perspective, or goal orientation theory. Goal orientation research investigates the subjective meaning that students assign to a particular learning situation, using both previous experiences and informational input present in that situation (Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001). It is also concerned with how such subjective meaning may influence the quality of students' actions, thoughts, and feelings as they approach and engage in tasks (Kaplan & Maehr, 2001). This is why goal

orientation has provided a suitable framework to examine the quality of students' task engagement (Stipek, 1996).

'Achievement goals' (also referred to as *goal orientations*) are constructs that were specifically developed to explain achievement motivation. They have no single, clear, explicit definition, which is agreed upon by all researchers (Elliot & Thrash, 2001). For instance, goals can represent the purposes of task engagement (e.g., Kaplan &Maehr, 2002; Midgley et. al., 1998), and/or ways of approaching and assigning meaning to tasks (in which case "goals" actually represent "orientations"). Moreover, they include "an omnibus combination of variables," such as "numerous beliefs, feelings about success, ability, effort, errors, and standards of evaluation" (Elliot & Thrash, 2001, p. 141).

In spite of the vagueness surrounding the conceptual definition of (achievement) goals / goal orientations (e.g., see Bong, 1996), a consensus seems to have been reached in the literature on their cognitive nature. Goals are currently assumed to be internal, cognitive representations of what individuals are trying to do or want to achieve (e.g., Niemivirta, 1998; Pintrich, Conley, & Kempler, 2003), which guide individuals' behavior in a particular direction (Elliott & Thrash, 2001, p. 144). Like other schema-like knowledge structures, goals are sensitive to both contextual and intrapersonal factors (Pintrich, 2000, p. 102), and influence the way individuals perceive a given achievement situation (Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001). Different goals may become preferred in different situations and acquire a trait-like quality, resulting in their being used as a default in the absence of strong environmental cues. Thus, some students may habitually be more focused on approaching (or avoiding) learning for its own sake than others who, for instance, may be more focused on grades. Furthermore, the same student may be more

focused on developing competence in some subjects or in some situations, but may be more focused on grades in others (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

According to Elliot and McGregor (2001), "competence" is at the core of the achievement goal construct. Competence can be differentiated along two fundamental dimensions: "definition," and "valence." Definition refers to the standards or referents that are used to evaluate one's performance. There are three such standards:

- An *absolute* standard, when competence is evaluated according to whether one has mastered or fulfilled the requirements of the task itself. Individuals who define their competence according to an absolute standard strive to develop their skills and abilities, advance their learning, understand material, or complete or master a task.
- An *intrapersonal* standard, when competence is evaluated according to whether one has improved on one's own past attainment, or reached one's maximum potential attainment.
- A *normative* standard, when individuals evaluate their competence according to whether they have performed better, or have attained greater skill or knowledge than others.

The second dimension of competence, valence, determines whether an individual will adopt an approach or avoidance type of achievement behavior. Recall that such a distinction between approach and avoidance was a central aspect of early theories of achievement motivation. If success is considered possible, the achievement situation is processed as positive and desirable; conversely, if failure is feared possible, it is processed as negative and undesirable. Further, some researchers have described

individuals who are primarily motivated to avoid academic work (i.e., who try to get work done with a minimum of effort) as holding a work-avoidance goal (Nicholls, Cobb, Wood, Yackel, & Patashnick, 1990), also termed 'avoidance orientation' (Skaalvik, 1997). Adopting a work-avoidance goal may reflect negative attitudes toward schoolwork, or represent an attempt to avoid failure or cope with the constraints and demands of the learning situation (Meece, Blumenfeld, & Hoyle, 1988).

In the 1980s and early 1990s, achievement goal theorists and researchers tended to distinguish between only two types of achievement goals, namely, mastery goals and performance goals. Early research indicated that mastery goals led to a particularly adaptive pattern of achievement behavior, whereas performance goals were labeled less adaptive, or even maladaptive (for a review, see Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). However, the number of variables included in the single construct of goal made it difficult to isolate which variable(s) was/were linked to the effects found in studies, particularly for the performance goal construct. This dichotomous perspective is now referred to as "normative goal theory" (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2001), or "mastery goal perspective" (Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Linnenbrink, 2005) in view of its strong emphasis on the benefits of mastery goals and the maladaptive consequences of a focus on performance goals.

At present, there is general agreement among scholars about the benefits of pursuing mastery goals and the non-productivity of work-avoidance goals. However, inconclusive empirical results have led to an intense debate regarding the early claims (e.g., Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988) that learning environments should be designed to promote mastery goals and discourage performance goals, and that performance goals engender maladaptive forms of achievement behavior. This debate has

led to the re-examination of the performance goal construct in the light of the approach-avoidance motives and to its bifurcation into a performance-approach goal (i.e., striving to document superior ability), and a performance-avoidance goal (i.e., seeking to conceal relative incompetence). The former is linked to adaptive outcomes, whereas the latter is linked to less adaptive ones (Thrash & Elliott, 2001). Further, in view of the fact that classroom studies suggested that both mastery and performance goals could co-exist, goal theory was further revised and the revision became known as the "multiple goal perspective."

While the distinction between performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals is now accepted by all goal theorists, some scholars remain convinced that any type of performance goal is undesirable (e.g., Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001). Therefore, the debate goes on about the effects of pursuing performance goals (e.g., Elliot & Moller, 2003; Urdan, 2004). Recently, Brophy (2005) called for goal theorists to "move on from performance goals" (p. 167). He suggested potentially productive performance-approach goals be redefined by changing their label, for instance to "outcome goals," and by ridding the construct of its social comparison feature in order to emphasize achievement. In effect, this amounts to focusing on the afore-mentioned intrapersonal standard of the definition dimension of the goal construct, rather than on the normative standard. In terms of learning environments design, Elliot and Moller (2003), propose that educators strongly orient educational environments toward non-normative mastery goals, and allow performance-approach goals "to emerge of their own accord" (p. 351), without directly discouraging them.

2.3.7 Self-determination theory (SDT)

Self-determination theory is essentially a more elaborate update of what is probably the most well known distinction in motivation theory, namely, that between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Individuals are said to approach a task with 'intrinsic motivation' when they engage in it spontaneously, for the satisfaction or enjoyment derived out of doing the task itself. Vallerand and Ratelle (2002) distinguish between "intrinsic motivation to know," "intrinsic motivation to accomplish", and "intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation." In contrast, students are said to engage in a task with *extrinsic motivation* when they desire to gain some incentive (e.g., money, food), or experience attractive consequences that will arise from task completion but are separate from the task itself. The traditional view of extrinsic motivation is represented by the Operant Conditioning Theory, which rests on the assumption that an environmental event directs an individual either toward or away from initiating a behavior by signaling the likelihood that the behavior will (or will not) result in rewarding or punishing consequences. The nature of the consequences determines whether the persistence of the behavior increases or decreases (Reeve, 2005). An alternative and more modern view of extrinsic motivation is embodied in Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which is associated with the work of Deci and Ryan (e.g., 1985, 2002).

Proponents of SDT view extrinsic motivation as a scale representing different degrees of synchronization between an individual's own way, and an externally prescribed way of thinking or behaving. SDT proposes that all individuals tend to move toward situations, and engage in actions that are likely to satisfy three basic psychological needs, which are essential to their functioning and well-being. According to Ryan and

Deci (2002), the degree to which social contexts allow the satisfaction of these needs is believed to give rise to different types and qualities of motivation:

• The *need for competence* pertains to the need to experience opportunities to interact with the social environment, and show one's capacities confidently and effectively;

• The *need for relatedness* implies a need to feel that one belongs with, is cared for, respected by, and connected to significant others (e.g., a teacher, a family) who are spreading goals such as classroom values;

• The *need for autonomy* involves a sense of unpressured willingness to engage in an activity.

Autonomy can be experienced along a continuum. When the initiation and regulation of an individual's behavior is under someone else's control, they act under pressure, and there is no autonomy. This is the case, for instance, when students work in environmental conditions where extrinsic rewards and punishments are salient. However, individuals often act out of a feeling of internal pressure, to avoid feelings of shame or guilt, or to gain approval from self or others; SDT terms this 'introjected' regulation. The next condition, 'identified' regulation, is represented by individuals who perform a valued activity, which they believe is instrumental in reaching a personally important and self-chosen goal. It is therefore somewhat internalized. Finally, 'integrated' regulation is the most autonomous and internalized form of external regulation. It refers to behaviors that are instrumental but congruent with one's sense of self. When extrinsic motivation is combined with integrated regulation, it is positively associated with high quality learning

and personal adjustment, and is similar to intrinsic motivation (Deci, Ryan, & Williams, 1996).

Autonomous forms of motivation have been associated with positive coping in Japanese high school students (Hayamizu, 1997), and in Japanese children (Yamauchi & Tanaka, 1998), replicating earlier findings from the United States by Ryan and Connell (1989). Greater wellbeing was found among Russian and American students who reported experiencing parents and teachers as being more autonomy supportive (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001). However, when autonomy is operationalised as personal choice, results are mixed. Iyengar and Lepper (1999) found that Asian American children showed most intrinsic motivation when trusted authority figures or peers made choices for them, whereas personal choice enhanced motivation more for American children. It would therefore appear that personal choice might not be as essential to collectivist-oriented children as it is to individualistic-oriented ones.

2.4 Summary

This chapter focused on motivation research in the field of educational psychology. The main themes were as follows:

- Developments in the scope of motivation theories, in conceptual frameworks, in research approaches, and in the relationship between theory and practice that have characterized the field since its beginning in the 1930s.

• Theories and constructs referring to within-person factors that can affect an individual's motivation in educational settings and present relatively stable aspects.

• Theories and constructs that tend to be influenced by the socialization process and by educational experiences, and which are therefore habitual or favored but at the same time also somewhat flexible.

The themes and theories were presented in this section in order to serve as grounds for the following chapter on Language Learning Motivation. As we will see later, motivational theories in language learning were built upon those already existing theories in Social and Educational Psychology.

CHAPTER THREE

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION

This chapter will shed light on the relevant theory and research concerning foreign language learning, attitudes and motivation. It opens with a summary of the historical developments and a review of the trends that have taken place since the foundation of the field of second language learning motivation research. This is followed by review of major second or foreign motivation theories and constructs, a number of which are related to the motivation theories and constructs presented in Chapter 2. The review is supported with empirical findings relevant to the design and interpretation of the results of the study presented in this thesis. Due to variation in the interpretation of findings by different authors investigating different milieus, it is important to begin by introducing major contributions to this field thus providing grounds for the explanation and interpretation of findings presented in this thesis.

3.1 A brief historical overview

The field of foreign language learning (L2) motivation research was founded in 1959 by two Canadian social psychologists, Lambert and Gardner. Although they were

not linguists, they became interested in second language learning because of the somewhat unusual Canadian socio-political environment, which is characterized by the coexistence of French- and English-speaking communities. The most universally accepted contribution of their work to the field has been that learning a second language is unlike learning any other subject. This is because it "involves imposing elements of another culture into one's own lifespace" (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 193), and because it is easily influenced (positively or negatively) by a range of social factors, such as prevailing attitudes toward the language, geo-political considerations, and cultural stereotypes (Dörnyei, 2005). In other respects, though, the field, just like its counterpart in general and educational psychology, has undergone a number of shifts during the past 50 years: in scope, in research perspectives, in its relation to practice, and in its relationship with the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research.

The first empirical investigations related to L2 learning motivation took place in Canada, and were aimed at identifying and measuring variables that shared variance in common with measures of English-French bilingualism (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Many such studies resulted in the proposal of Gardner and Smythe's (1975) pioneering socio-educational model of second language acquisition in school contexts, which has been revised several times (e.g., Gardner, 1985a; Gardner, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). It is interesting to note that, according to Gardner, "acquisition" involves "the development of bilingual skill in the language, and that this requires considerable time, effort, and persistence" (Gardner, 2001a, p. 4).

The studies also resulted in the production of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), which was originally developed to assess what appeared to be the major affective factors involved in the learning of French as a second language in Canada (see

Gardner 1985b). The AMTB has certainly contributed to the popularization of motivation research. In just over four decades since its publication, it has been used in many different parts of the world to investigate students' motivation to learn second languages (e.g., Mondada & Doehler, 2004), heritage languages (e.g., Syed, 2001), foreign languages (e.g., Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Shohamy, 2001; Ushioda, 2001), and English as a foreign and international language (e.g., Brown, Robson, & Rosenkjar, 2001; Lamb, 2004).

Through the 1960s, 70s, and 80s, language learning motivation research was dominated by the *social psychological approach* of Gardner and his Canadian associates. This approach sought to integrate social psychology and individual psychology in order to explain differences in motivation to master the language of another community. The social element of the approach was apparent in the "integrative motive," which proposed that learner' attitudes toward the L2 and the L2 community would affect their L2 learning behavior. For instance, the first "Motivation" factor to emerge in a study of Anglophone high-school students studying French as a second language in Montreal was described as "characterized by a willingness to be like valued members of the language community" (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271). Such a perspective on motivation was well ahead of its time since macro-type, social approaches to motivation research (i.e., those focusing on motivational dispositions of communities) only started to become popular in the 1990s (Dörnyei, 2005). However, for this very reason, Gardner's social psychological approach also eventually started to be viewed as inadequate in terms of explaining how motivation works in actual language classrooms. As a result, a new wave of motivation researchers from the U.S.A. and Europe started to call for a broadening of the research paradigm.

The 1990s *cognitive-situated period* in L2 motivation is usually recognized as having been proclaimed by Crookes & Schmidt's (1991) call to "[reopen] the motivation research agenda" but other researchers had also recommended changes in a similar element at around the same time (e.g., Brown, 1990; Julkunen, 1989; Skehan, 1991). The suggested changes did not necessitate a rejection of the social psychological approach, but proposed to enrich it by taking into account what was happening in motivational psychology at that time (as described in Chapter 2 of this thesis), namely the adoption of a mostly cognitive and more "micro" perspective, which focused on motivation situated in the classroom.

Another shift in L2 motivation research occurred after the publication of Dörnyei and Ottó's innovative (1998) process model of L2 motivation. As a result, in the late 1990s, a new, *process-oriented period* began for L2 motivation research. The process-oriented period is characterized by an increasing emphasis on viewing motivation, not simply as a static product, but also as a dynamic process fluctuating over time. This movement is led by the research that has been carried out by Dörnyei (e.g., 2001) and Ushioda (e.g., 2001), and colleagues in Europe. The new approaches are moving toward an integration of concepts from motivational psychology, personality psychology, and even neurobiology (Dörnyei, 2005). This in line with the trend observable in general psychology, as evidenced for instance, by Kuhl's (2000b) Personality Systems Interaction theory of motivation which will be discussed later in this chapter.

The increasing interest in making motivation research more relevant to classroom practice was undoubtedly promoted by the 1994 debate in the *Modern Language Journal* (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). This shift is linked to the move toward a more situated research approach (including the influence

of the teacher, classmates, task-partners, and significant others), and to the emphasis on viewing motivation as a process. This is because the investigation of the dynamics of motivation within actual learning situations may uncover the processes by which students become motivated in specific physical classroom environments, which include both educational and social dimensions. This, in turn, may yield implications directly relevant to classroom practice, in terms of practices that can develop and support students' motivation.

According to Dörnyei (2005), the product-oriented approach (i.e., a focus on answering the question "What is motivation?") of traditional L2 motivation research—particularly the kind undertaken within the social psychological paradigm, is what has largely prevented its full integration into SLA. Dörnyei (2005) argues convincingly that this approach is in sharp contrast with SLA methods, which tend to focus on answering the question "How does it work?", and concentrate on studying learner-language development from a situated, process-oriented perspective.

Dörnyei (2005) speculates that the introduction of a process-oriented approach to L2 motivation research means that SLA and L2 motivation researchers may now be able to share similar approaches when studying the same phenomenon of L2 learning. Nevertheless, he cautions that full integration can only take place if L2 motivation researchers focus on how motivational factors affect specific student learning behaviors during an L2 course such as students' engagement in learning tasks rather than their L2 proficiency.

3.2 The social psychological approach specific to L2 motivation theories

L2 motivation research was initiated by social psychologists, Wallace Lambert, Robert Gardner and associates working in Canada. These researchers adopted a social psychological approach that was based on the main principle that students' attitudes toward the specific language group are expected to influence how successful they will be in acquiring the language (Gardner, 1985). In their study on high school students learning French as a second language in Montreal, they found that two factors, aptitude and motivation, were associated with achievement in French. Their conclusion was that motivation is "characterized by the willingness to be like valued members of the language community" (Kaplan, 2005).

In the following subsections, there will be a closer look at social psychological approaches that have been influential on L2 motivation research: Lambert's social model, Clement's social context model, Gardner's socio educational model, and extended versions of Gardner's model. There is a more extensive explanation and discussion of work done by Gardner since his work has been highly influential in research in the field of L2 motivation.

3.2.1 Lambert's social psychological model

Lambert's model, developed in the early 1960s, was perhaps the first social psychological model of SLA. It was designed to account for bilingual development and proposed that language distinctiveness was part of one's social identity and that a learner was likely to identify strongly with the members of the group whose language he or she was learning (target language group - TL group) in order to achieve native-like proficiency. He investigated developmental changes in French and English among

students who differed according to language training. Participants included were undergraduate students majoring in French, graduate students majoring in French, and native French speakers who had lived in an English- speaking country for an average of seven years. His observations marked the foundation of the integrative and instrumental dichotomy (Gardner, 2005).

The theory predicted that if the acquisition of L2 posed no threat to the learner's ethnic identity (i.e. the learner could maintain and use freely his or her L1), the result of the L2 learning process would be 'additive bilingualism' (and positive growth in the learner's social identity). If, however, L2 was learnt as a result of a push to assimilate into the TL culture, the learner was expected to restrict the use of or abandon altogether his or her L1. This detracted from the learner's social identity and resulted in 'subtractive bilingualism'. By taking into account intergroup attitudes and the effect of the language learning (LL) process on one's social identity, Lambert focused on the macro-context of L2 acquisition (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; 1972).

3.2.2 Clément's social context model

Clément's 1980 theory took up the idea that a learner's perception of the relative ethnolinguistic vitality of the L2 learning group and the TL group might influence the outcomes of the L2 learning process through the operation of primary and secondary motivational processes. Clément assumed that a group with high ethnolinguistic vitality would be attractive to members of outgroups (Clément, 1980: 149). The relative ethnolinguistic vitality of the two groups existing in a given social milieu influenced a primary motivational process which consisted of two antagonistic tendencies: integrativeness (positive function of the vitality of TL group) and fear of assimilation (negative function of the vitality of the L2 learning group). The relationship between the

two was subtractive (integrativeness minus fear of assimilation) and the resulting tendency had immediate effect on an individual's motivation to learn L2 and, through motivation, on the level of communicative competence that a learner achieved.

In multicultural settings, a secondary motivational process was thought to be operative, whereby the prevailing tendency of either integrativeness or fear of assimilation would determine the amount of contact the learner had with TL speakers. The quantity together with the quality (pleasantness) of contact would impact on the learner's self-confidence,(discussed further in section 3.5) and through it on his or her motivation to learn L2, and through motivation on the attainment of communicative competence. Although a cognitive module was absent from the representations of the model, its importance was acknowledged and measures for language aptitude were incorporated in the empirical tests of the theory. Most importantly, Clément proposed that since the motivational process was heavily influenced by characteristics of the social setting, "the predispositions and competence of locutors sharing a common milieu should evidence some resemblance, and thus, influence the collective outcome of communicative competence" (Clément, 1980:152) – the collective outcomes being assimilation or integration depending on the status (dominant or non-dominant) of the learner's original group. It could perhaps be said that this proposition is supported by the analysis of census data (C. Stevens, 1999) which reveals that groups with high levels of English language proficiency tend to have low rates of ethnic language maintenance and high rates of shift to English (shift from the use of an ethnic language to English in the family domain). Conversely, groups with low levels of English language proficiency tend to have high rate of ethnic language maintenance and lower rates of shift to English. Tests of the model revealed (1) that the primary motivational process operated in multicultural as well as in unicultural settings since there was a direct link between integrativeness and motivation

(Clément &Kruidenier, 1985), (2) that relative ethnolinguistic vitality was not related to integrativeness, self-confidence or motivation (Clément, 1986), and (3) that language aptitude was a better predictor of communicative competence than motivation. Critiques of the model (Giles & Byrne, 1982) argued that predicting collective outcomes assumed too much homogeneity among members of the L2 learning group, that ethnolinguistic vitality was only one of a set of factors determining an individual's ethnic identification, and that it was the degree of ethnic identification that was the prime determinant of the motivational process.

3.2.3 Gardner's motivation theory

Initiated by Gardner and Lambert, the study of motivation in second language acquisition became a distinguished research topic after they published a comprehensive summary of the results of a long-term research program in 1972 (Dörnyei , 1990). In their book *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning* (1972), a socio-psychological model on motivation research was advanced and motivation was defined as influenced by attitudes towards and orientations to learn a second language (L2). Since then, many empirical studies have been conducted within the model in second language learning contexts and the acquisition of a second language has been proven to be enhanced by motivation. However, as empirical studies on second language learning motivation flourish, new dimensions have been added to the motivation construct and new theories have been put forward. Likewise, the motivation theory proposed by Gardner and his associates has also undergone change and expansion.

Gardner's social psychological theory of L2 motivation has been used extensively to explore the structure of individual students' motivation, and links between students'

existing quantity of motivation and their achievement in the L2. The theory comprises the construct of "integrative motivation" (previously termed the "integrative motive"), a model of second language acquisition derived from it, and a matching battery of psychometric tests designed to measure a variety of motivational factors (the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, or AMTB).

This section reviews the development of Gardner's motivation theory and its application in research studies. In general, Gardner's theory has four distinct areas: (i) a general learning model, labeled the socio-educational model manifested in figure 1; (ii) the construct of the integrative motive shown in figure 2; (iii) the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB); and (iv) an extended L2 motivation construct (Dörnyei , 2001). The structure of the model, empirical research on factors, and empirical research on the relationship among different factors and with language achievement will also be presented.

However, it is important to first clarify a basic distinction made in Gardner (1985a) which has frequently been misunderstood, namely that between *orientation* (i.e., a class of reasons for learning a language, representing a type of "goal" similar to that found in goal theory discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis) and *motivation* (i.e., "the driving force in any situation," Gardner, 2001a, p. 6). Gardner's theory does not belong to goal-type theories (Dörnyei, 2001c); therefore, its focus is on motivation, not orientations.

3.2.3.1 The socio-educational model

Based on empirical studies, Gardner expanded the original socio-psychological model (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) to be a socio-educational one that focuses on four

major elements: the social milieu, individual difference variables, language acquisition contexts and outcomes as illustrated in Figure 1:
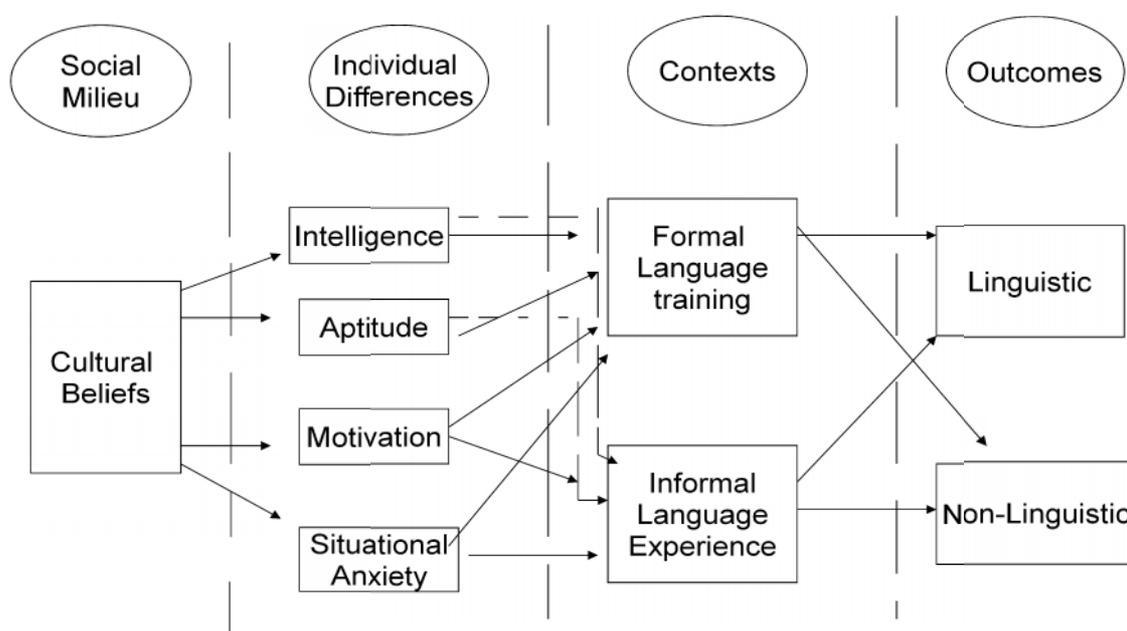
Figure 1 A Schematic representation of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model-1985

This model proposes that second language acquisition should be considered within the social milieu in which it takes place and hypothesizes that the cultural beliefs within this milieu could influence the development of attitudinal and motivational variables relevant to language acquisition. It determines the learner's beliefs about language and culture and the extent to which these characteristics will influence language learning, in different contexts.

Gardner's socio-educational model incorporates four major constructs: (a) social milieu, (b) individual differences, (c) language acquisition contexts, and (d) outcomes. The first construct, the social milieu, consists of the cultural beliefs of the language learner toward the target language group. Those beliefs, in the language learner's cultural context, involve the importance and perception of the second language to the second

language learners (Gardner, 1985). The second construct involves individual differences of the learners. These individual differences include variables such as anxiety, intelligence, language aptitude, and motivation. The third construct is the context of the second language learning, such as formal and informal. The fourth construct is the outcome of a specific language learning process, linguistic and nonlinguistic. The model places a primary role to the aptitude and motivation constructs as they are seen to have a strong influence on learning: aptitude because the student with higher levels of language aptitude will tend to be more successful at learning the language than students less endowed; and motivation because students with higher levels of *motivation* will do better than students with lower levels. The remaining variables in the model are seen as playing a secondary function.

Direct lines and dashed lines in the model represent different roles played by individual differences depending on the learning context. Direct continuous lines also link the cultural beliefs to four individual difference variables, which manifest that these beliefs can influence the extent to which variables influence the second language learning achievements.

3.2.3.2 Integrative motivation

The most elaborate and researched aspect of Gardner's motivation theory has been the concept of the integrative motive, which is defined as a "motivation to learn a second language because of positive feelings toward the community that speaks that language" (Gardner, 1985: 82-83). The integrative motive category includes three subcategories: (a) integrativeness (which refers to the interest in learning a foreign language in order to be part of, or closer to, the target language community); (b) attitudes (reactions to and evaluations of the L2 teachers and courses) toward the learning situation; and (c)

motivation, which consists of three inseparable components: effort to learn the language, desire to achieve the goal of learning the language, and positive affect toward the goal. In this model, it is hypothesized that integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation are attitudinal aspects that influence motivation. It is, then, motivation that is responsible for achievement in second language learning, and integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation are supports for motivation (Gardner, 2001).

Figure 2 shows Gardner's (2001) conceptualization of "Integrative Motivation." based on an extract from his basic model of second language learning (pp.5-7), which is a revised version of his earlier conceptualization of the "Integrative Motive" (Gardner, 1985). "Integrative motivation" subsumes three components. Integrativeness consists of integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, and attitudes towards the L2 community, reflecting the "individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups" (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993: 159). Attitudes towards the learning situation comprise attitudes towards the language teacher and the L2 course. Motivation includes effort, desire, and attitudes towards learning. These three elements constitute the cornerstone of integrative motive in Gardner's theory.

The first two, "integrativeness" and "attitudes toward the learning situation," are usually fairly correlated and are seen as supports for the third component, motivation, which has repeatedly proved to be the major variable related to L2 achievement. In other words, a student who has high levels of "integrativeness," and/or "positive attitudes toward the learning situation," but is low in "motivation" is unlikely to achieve much in terms of L2 proficiency. Conversely, for motivation levels to be sustained over the long period needed to master an L2, a high level of "motivation" alone is insufficient; it needs to be supported by high levels of "integrativeness," and/or positive "attitudes toward the

learning situation." Most importantly is that the effect of integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation on achievement is mediated by motivation.
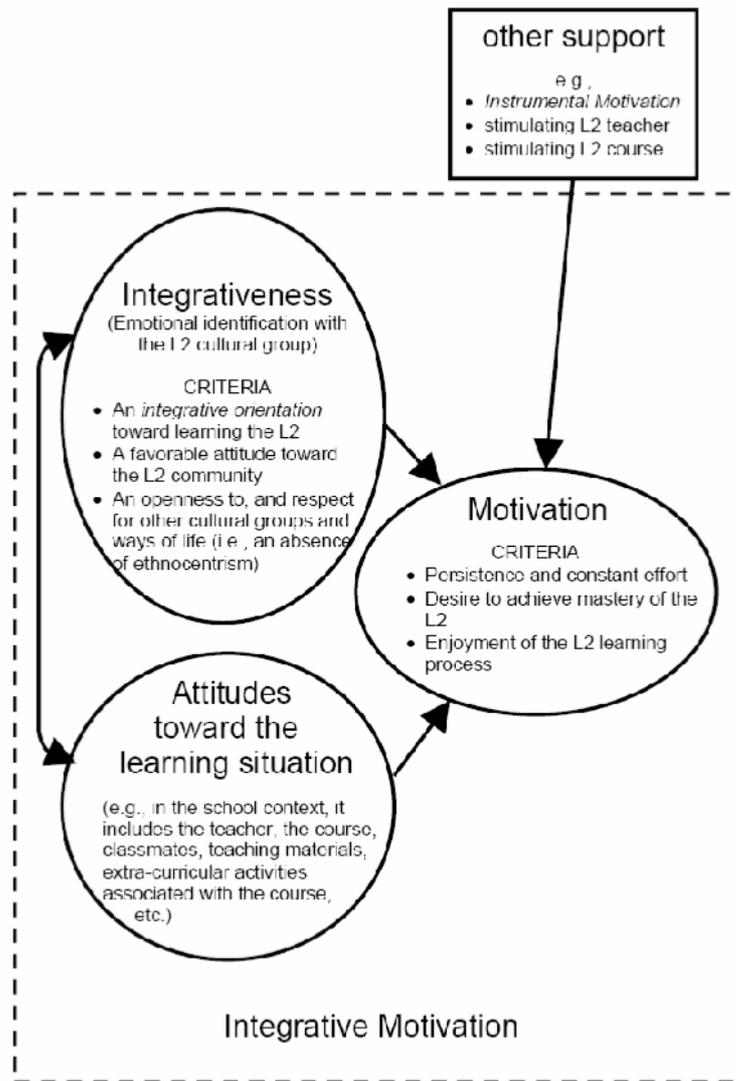
Figure 2 Conceptualization of Integrative Motivation
(Based on Gardner, 2001, pp. 5-7)

Gardner's (1985) social psychological approach assumes that students' goals, when they engage in L2 learning, fall into two categories, an integrative orientation, and an instrumental one. An integrative orientation reflects a positive disposition toward a community of L2 speakers, accompanied by a desire to learn the L2 for the purpose of interacting with, and even becoming similar to valued members of the community of L2

50

speakers. An instrumental orientation refers to a desire to learn the L2 primarily for potential concrete gains associated with L2 proficiency, such as improved education, career, or financial prospects.

Even though "integrativeness" and "instrumentality" are the two most frequently highlighted concepts in L2 motivation studies (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), "instrumentality" has not received much attention from Gardner. "Integrativeness" is assessed in the AMTB by scales tapping attitudes toward the group of L2 speakers, general interest in foreign languages, and a set of integrative orientation items reflecting reasons for studying the L2 based on attraction to the group of L2 speakers (MacIntyre, 2002).

Finally, Figure 2 indicates the function that Gardner (2001, p. 5) attributes to "instrumental motivation" and to other motivational factors (e.g., a stimulating L2 teacher or course), within a class of variables that he termed "other support" in his model of second language learning. However, this miscellaneous class of factors appears somewhat artificially differentiated from "integrative motivation," and not particularly well integrated into the model (Dörnyei, 2005).

3.2.3.3 The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery has been used in many different forms. The original formulations of the major concepts as well as the original items were developed by Gardner (1958; 1960) and extended by Gardner and Lambert (1972). Full scale item development and concern with internal consistency reliability of the sub-tests which led to the present version was initiated by Gardner and Smythe (1975). A summary of the initial cross validation is presented by Gardner and Smythe (1981).

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) is a multi-component motivation test made up of over 130 items. Operationalising the main constituent of Gardner's theory, the Test also includes language anxiety measures (L2 class anxiety and L2 use anxiety) as well as an index of parental encouragement. Adaptations of the Test have been used in several data-based studies of L2 motivation all over the world, and at the moment it is still the only published standardized test of L2 motivation (Dörnyei , 2001). The AMTB consists of 11 scales (see Table 1) that have withstood the test of time: three, *Attitudes toward French Canadians*, *Interest in Foreign Languages,* and *Integrative Orientation*, measure Integrativeness (see Figure 2); two, *Evaluation of the French Teacher* and *Evaluation of the French Course*, measure Attitudes toward the Learning Situation; another set of three, *Motivational Intensity*, *Desire to Learn French*, and *Attitudes toward Learning French*, measure Motivation; three more measure other variables, *Instrumental Orientation, French Classroom Anxiety,* and *French Use Anxiety* where the last two measure the Anxiety concept.

Table 1 Constructs and scales of the AMTB from Gardner (2001, pp. 8-9)

Construct 1:	**Integrativeness**
Subtest 1:	Integrative orientation (4 items)
Subtest 2:	Interest in foreign languages (10 items)
Subtest 3:	Attitudes toward the target language group (10 items)
Construct 2:	**Attitudes toward the Learning Situation**
Subtest 4:	Evaluation of the language instructor (10 items)
Subtest 5:	Evaluation of the language course (10items)
Construct 3:	**Motivation**
Subtest 6:	Motivation intensity (10 items)
Subtest 7:	Desire to learn the language (10 items)
Subtest 8:	Attitudes toward learning the language (10 items)
Construct 4:	**Instrumental Orientation**
Subtest 9:	Instrumental orientation (4 items)
Construct 5:	**Language Anxiety**
Subtest 10:	Language class anxiety (10 items)
Subtest 11:	Language use anxiety (10 items)

The cognitive factor of language aptitude is measured in Gardner's work with a standard test such as the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT). The affective factors in the individual differences component of the model are measured with the AMTB.

Although Gardner is unanimously praised by critics for his careful attention to measurement, operationalisations of concepts, and use of rigorous analyses, there is a component of the socio-educational model that has remained unmeasured and unoperationalised throughout the history of the development of the theory is Social Milieu. This seems to be another piece of evidence that Gardner steps away from considering the broadest macro context of SLA. Although he emphasizes the importance of social milieu (to the extent that in Gardner & MacIntyre's 1993 schematic version of the model it was shown to over-ride all variables), it is the only component that remains without measure or operationalisation. While it is suggested that the nature of the cultural community (unicultural, bicultural, or multicultural) might influence achievement and that the assessment of ethnolinguistic vitality could be used as a measure of cultural beliefs (Gardner, 1985; 1988), this component has always been excluded from empirical tests of the socio-educational model.

3.2.3.4 Extended versions of the socio-educational model

In the early nineties Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) revised Gardner's version of the socio-educational model of language learning (Figure 3). In their version, above all the aspects of the model, the socio-cultural milieu is considered the platform from which all of the variables that influence language learning operate.

Under antecedent factors, the model shows two factors: biological and experiential. Biological differences refer to the differences in age, gender, etc., and the experiential factor refers to any prior knowledge or experience with the target language.

The second construct consists of individual difference variables that are divided into two subcategories: cognitive and affective variables. Cognitive variables include intelligence, language aptitude, and strategies. Affective variables include language attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety. In the below model, it can be noted that only motivation has a direct role in the formal and informal language acquisition context. Intelligence, language aptitude, and strategies have a direct influence on second language learning in a formal language context; however, they have an indirect influence on second language learning in an informal language context.
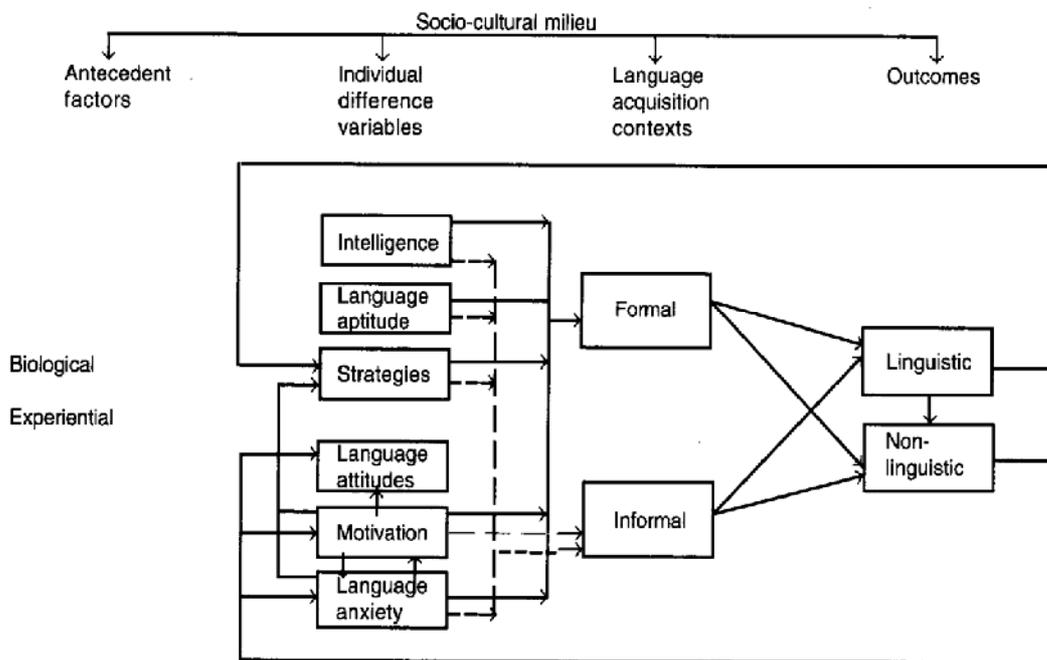
Figure 3 Modified version of the socio-educational model: Gardner & Macintyre (1993)

It also can be noted that language attitude is directly connected to motivation. According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), "motivation needs an affective basis to be maintained, and it seems reasonable to argue that attitudes serve this function" (p.9). Motivation and language anxiety, on the other hand, have a reciprocal influence on each other. This relationship between the two tends to be negatively correlated. High levels of

anxiety could decrease motivation and high level of motivation might lower language anxiety.

Moreover, it can be seen that all the individual-difference variables except language attitudes are connected directly to formal language acquisition context. Gardner and MacIntyre, (1993) explain:

> This [direct connection to formal language acquisition context] is meant to indicate that in any learning situation where material or skill is being transmitted to a learner in some way, individual differences in intelligence, language aptitude, the use of language learning strategies, motivation and language anxiety will influence how successful that individual will be in acquiring that material of skill (p. 9).

The outcomes of formal and informal learning can be linguistic and nonlinguistic. The linguistic outcomes are shown to directly interact with language-learning strategies. Nonlinguistic outcomes, on the other hand, are shown to be associated with language attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety.

Influenced by cognitive theories, motivation models advanced by other researchers and research findings, Tremblay and Gardner proposed another extended socio-educational model in 1995, which incorporated new elements originating from expectancy-value and goal theories. Figure 4 shows Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) extended model of L2 motivation. The overall design of the model suggests that an individual's L2 motivational knowledge base that is socially grounded but also has cognitive and affective components leads to motivated behavior, which in turn leads to L2 achievement. The expectancy components in the model include "adaptive attributions" and "self-efficacy," the latter being comprised of "anxiety" and "performance

expectancy" (i.e., the expectancy that one will be able to perform certain activities in the L2 by the end of the course). The value component is labeled "valence," and is assessed using the traditional AMTB scales for "desire to learn the L2," and "attitudes toward the L2." Finally, the goal element is termed "goal salience." It refers to how specific students' goals are, and to how frequently they use goal-setting strategies. Tremblay and Gardner' (1995) empirical testing of the model revealed that the effect of the new variables did not alter the basic structure of the original model.
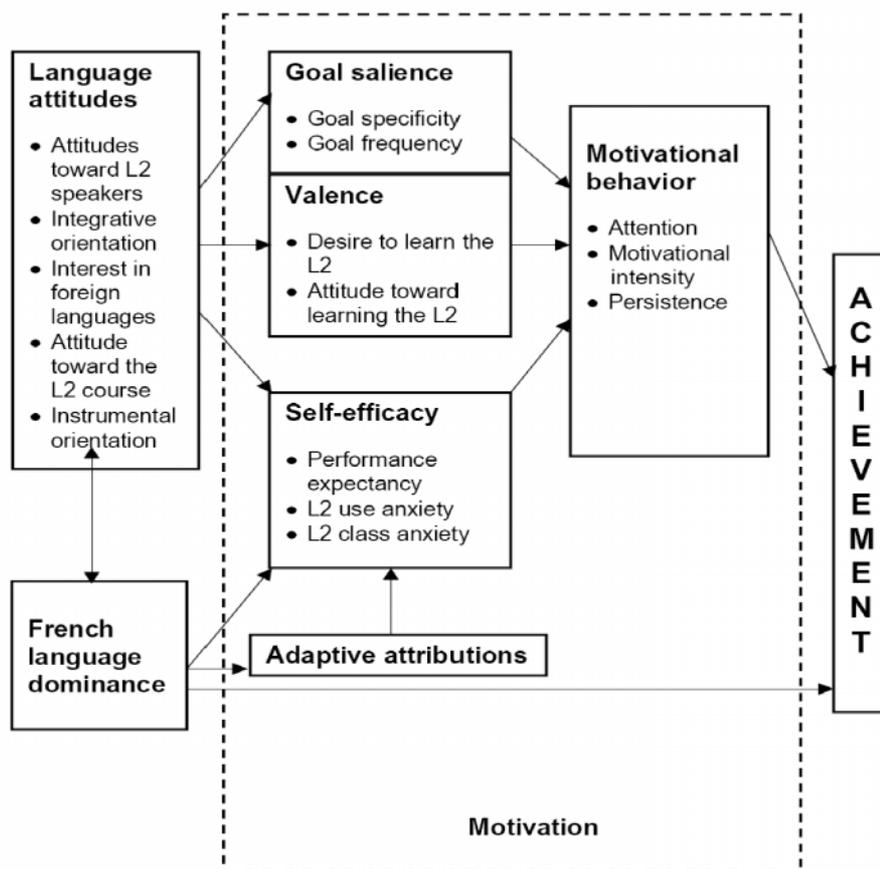
Figure 4 Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) Model of L2 Motivation

The novel element in this model is the inclusion of three mediating variables between attitudes and behavior: goal salience, valence and self-efficacy. Thus, the model offers a synthesis of Gardner's earlier, socially grounded construct and recent cognitive

motivational theories, and demonstrates that additional variables can be incorporated into Gardner's Socio-educational Model of L2 learning without damaging its integrity (Dörnyei , 1998).

3.2.3.5 Empirical studies around the model

Since the emergence of this theory, it has been applied to numerous empirical studies which reveal that in general both integrative and instrumental motives contribute to the acquisition of a second/foreign language, and that learners high on integrative motivation work harder and learn faster than those who are low (Gardner et al., 1983; Gardner et al., 1985; Gardner et al., 1987; Gardner et al., 1989; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner et al., 1992; Clément et al., 1994).

Many of the empirical studies (Gardner & Lalonde, 1983; Gardner et al., 1985; Gardner et al. 1987; Gardner et al., 1989; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner et al., 1992; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) turned out to support Gardner's (1983: 228) prediction that "individuals who are integratively motivated would be more active in language learning context, they would work harder and learn faster. Individuals with the more positive attitudes toward the target language are more active in the learning process, work harder to acquire the material and show more interest in learning".

In addition, Gardner et al.'s (1983) study supported the belief that proficiency in a second language was affected by attitudinal variables, which was confirmed by a later research study (Gardner et al., 1985). Their study also showed that motivation had a direct effect on situational anxiety and second language achievement.

Moreover, two other studies (Gardner et al., 1987; Gardner et al., 1989) led to the conclusion that integrative motivation was closely related to persistence, language

attrition and retention. It was claimed that students high on integrative motivation continued to learn the target language after the language class was over and retained the language proficiency longer (Gardner et al., 1987).

To address the challenge of the applicability of the socio-educational model (challenges are discussed further later in section 3.2.3.7), Masgoret and Gardner (2003) employed a meta-analysis method in examining 75 independent samples involving 10,489 individuals. All of the samples were from the studies of the Gardner group that had applied the socio-educational model using the AMTB. Hence, the results from this meta-analysis obviously echoed the voice of this group. Three general conclusions were obtained. First, the five classes of variables, that is, attitudes toward the learning situation, integrativeness, motivation, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation, were all positively related to achievement in an L2. Second, motivation was more highly related to L2 achievement than the other four. Third, the availability of the language and the age of the learners did not make a significant difference in L2 achievement. The finding about the availability of the language was basically a rebuttal of the criticism leveled in the literature; that is, whether in the second language or foreign language environment, the first two conclusions remained the same.

In another study Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner, and Reyes (2004) investigated the effect of the cultural background of immigrant children on affective variables in learning three different languages. Participants were students in secondary multicultural classrooms in Spain. A total of 114 students, aged 12 to 16, answered a questionnaire based on Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery assessing their attitudes, motivation and anxiety towards learning Catalan, Spanish and English. In addition, the students also completed self-ratings of their language achievement in each of the three languages. A

factor analysis demonstrated that integrative motivation was generally language specific (i.e. three distinct factors were obtained, one for each language), but that orientations, language anxiety and parental encouragement tended to apply generally to the three languages, forming three distinct factors. These results provide valuable information regarding the role played by attitudes and motivation within the context of a multilingual classroom. As demonstrated by the first three factors, the majority of attitude and motivation variables, which together represent a concept similar to the integrative motive (Gardner, 1985), are primarily language specific. This finding suggests that an individual who is integratively motivated to learn one language may not be equally motivated to learn other languages because the 'integrative motives' associated with learning each of the languages are distinct and not common across languages. The three remaining factors– language learning orientations, language anxiety and parental support– demonstrated common relationships across the three languages.

3.2.3.6 Misconceptions of Gardner's theory

There are two common misconceptions of Gardner's motivation theory (Dörnyei, 2005: 1) that L2 motivation is simply made up of two components, and 2) that instrumental motivation is bad while integrative motivation is good.

The first one is that L2 motivation is simply the interplay of two components, an "integrative orientation / motivation" and an "instrumental orientation / motivation." It is not surprising that misconceptions abound, given that:

- The terms "orientation" and "motivation" have been used somewhat inconsistently in the past by Gardner himself.

- Gardner, for instance, still mentions both "integrative orientation" and "integrative motivation" but the terms have come to refer to different concepts linked in complex hierarchical relationships.

- Some of the terms used in Gardner's model sound confusingly similar (e.g., "integrativeness," and "integrative motive", integrative orientation).

The other common misconception is that the theory revolves around a simple dichotomy of the type, "instrumental motivation is bad / integrative motivation is good," which is probably a consequence of Gardner's almost exclusive focus on "integrativeness."

The different meanings of orientation and motivation are accounted for this way: "orientation refers to a class of reasons for learning a second language" and "motivation refers to a complex of three characteristics (effort, satisfaction and desire) which may or may not be related to any particular orientation" (Gardner, 1985, p. 54). Therefore, the integrative and instrumental dichotomy exists at the orientation level rather than the motivation level. This dichotomy is not the key component of motivation, but only functions as "motivational antecedents that help to arouse motivation and direct it towards a set of goals, either with a strong interpersonal quality (integrative) or a strong practical quality (instrumental)" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 123).

3.2.3.7 Strengths and weaknesses of the theory

Being a unifying model to account for interrelations among different variables associated with second language acquisition, Gardner's motivation theory is flexible to incorporate new components emerging from empirical studies and other theories. As more and more empirical studies in different contexts illustrate that more components

should be included in motivation construct (Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Dörnyei , 1990; Clément et al., 1994), Gardner (1983, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) expanded the socio-psychological model to be a socio-educational one to cover these new emerging components and elements borrowed from cognitive studies such as self-efficacy, goal and attributions (Dörnyei , 1994a; Oxford & Shearin, 1994), which demonstrates that Gardner's motivation theory is adaptive to incorporate additional variables without damaging its integrity (Dörnyei , 1998).

However, there also exist some limitations and Gardner's Motivation theory has received a host of criticism in terms of its theoretical assumptions and motivational battery constructs (Au, 1988; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Dörnyei, 1994a, 2001, 2003a; Oller et al., 1977; Skehan, 1991)

Clément and Kruidenier (1985) claimed that though the formality of the learning situation in the theory is precisely defined and is intuitively appealing, the definition is in terms of characteristics of the social milieu. The individual's psychological representation of these characteristics and their particular interaction with motivational processes and language production mechanisms are not clear. In addition, research studies prove that integrative and instrumental motivations are not opposite ends of a continuum, and both were shown to be positively related, affectively loaded goals that can sustain motivation (Oxford & Shearian, 1994; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Dörnyei , 1994a, 2001). Learning goals have proved to break up into different orientation clusters, the definition of which varied depending upon the socio-cultural setting in which the data were gathered (Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Clément et al., 1994; Oxford & Shearian, 1994).Moreover, rooted in second language learning in Canada, Gardner's motivation theory is difficult to be generalized to other situations (Dörnyei , 1994a; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998).

Furthermore, difficulty has been encountered in clarifying which underlying factors comprise integrative and which comprise instrumental motivations (Belmechri & Hummel, 1998).

In addition to the controversies about instrumental/integrative distinctions, researchers challenged Gardner's approach claiming that it does not include the cognitive aspects of learning motivation (Oxford and Shearin 1994; Dörnyei 1994a), it is not practical and does not benefit L2 learning since it is too broad to help L2 educators generate practical guidelines (Dörnyei 1990). Many theorists and researchers have found that it is important to recognize the construct of motivation not as a single entity but as a multi-factorial one. Oxford and Shearin (1994) analyzed a total of 12 motivational theories or models, including those from socio-psychology, cognitive development, and socio-cultural psychology, and identified six factors that impact motivation in language learning:

- attitudes (i.e., sentiments toward the learning community and the target language)

- beliefs about self (i.e., expectancies about one's attitudes to succeed, self-efficacy, and anxiety)

- goals (perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reasons for learning)

- involvement (i.e., extent to which the learner actively and consciously participates in the language learning process)

- environmental support (i.e., extent of teacher and peer support, and the integration of cultural and outside-of-class support into learning experience)

- personal attributes (i.e., aptitude, age, sex, and previous language learning experience).

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) were among the first scholars to question Gardner's approach stating that the empirical evidence is not clear enough to support the notion that integrative motivation is a cause and second language achievement the effect. They acknowledge that language learning takes place within a social context and socially grounded attitudes may provide important support or lack of support for motivation (p. 501). The focus of their arguments is that Gardner's approach was so influential that alternative concepts have not been seriously considered (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991, p. 501) and that the theory was limited in terms of the range of possible influences on motivation that exist. Crookes and Schmidt identified a clear need to research and classify L2 learning motivation as it relates directly to the classroom. They identified four areas of SL motivation: the micro level, the classroom level, the syllabus level, and a level involving factors from outside the classroom. The micro level involves the cognitive processing of L2 input. At the micro level learner motivation is evidenced by the amount of attention given to the input. The classroom level includes the techniques and activities employed in the classroom. Crookes and Schmidt apply tenets of expectancy-value and self-deterministic theories to this level stating that the expectancy of success and amount of control over activities contributes to learner motivation. The syllabus level refers to the choice of content presented and can influence motivation by the level of curiosity and interest aroused in the students. Finally, factors from outside the classroom involve informal interaction in the L2 and long term factors.

A most comprehensive evaluation of Gardner's theory comes from Au (1988). Au breaks down Gardner's theory to five major propositions and, citing the inconsistency of results in two groups of studies – one conducted by Gardner and his associates and the other conducted by other researchers -- critiques each proposition. The propositions are:

1. The integrative motive hypothesis – integrative motive is positively related to L2 achievement.

2. The cultural belief hypothesis – cultural beliefs within a particular milieu could influence the development of the integrative motive and the extent to which the integrative motive relates to L2 achievement.

3. The active learner hypothesis – integratively motivated L2 learners achieve high L2 proficiency because they are active learners.

4. The causality hypothesis – integrative motive causally affects L2 achievement.

5. The two-process hypothesis – linguistic aptitude and integrative motive constitute two independent factors affecting L2 achievement. (Au, 1988: 77-78)

In general, Au's and others' (e.g. Oller et al., 1977; Skehan, 1991; Dörnyei, 2003a) criticism is directed at particular methodological and statistical, conceptual, and contextual aspects of Gardner's theory.

In summary, methodologically and statistically Gardner's theory appears to be very strong. However, its conceptual and contextual aspects are marred by some contradictions and inconsistencies. These perhaps arise from the mixture of different contexts and levels of analyses which, while not explicitly specified, are brought together within one framework. For example, cultural beliefs and integrativeness appear to be truly *macro*-contextual factors since they refer to society at large, whereas attitudes toward the learning situation appear to be a *micro*-contextual factor since they refer specifically to the formal classroom setting. From the perspective of level of analysis, integrativeness is

an intergroup level (L2 learning group-TL group) phenomenon, attitudes toward the learning situation are an inter-individual level

(student-teacher) phenomenon, and motivation is an individual level phenomenon. In view of this, it could then be argued that Gardner does not use cultural beliefs as a ploy to rescue his theory from disconfirming evidence, as Au (1988: 85) suggests. It could simply be that the explanation for a certain result could lie at the intergroup rather than at any other level.

3.4 Integrative orientation vs. other orientations

Research has shown that language learning motivation is a complex construct made up of a number of other underlying factors. Because motivation is a complex and multi-faceted construct, identifying its underlying components will help in clarifying its nature. Studies in language learning motivation have shown that the constructs that underlie motivation may be interpreted differently in different contexts. The first important difference in language learning contexts is that between foreign language and second language milieus. Attitudes towards a language, the L2 speaking community and its culture, as well as the various reasons for learning another language will differ when learning an L2 as a second or foreign language. Gardner (1980), Clément and Kruidenier (1983 and 1986), Svanes (1987), and others (Belmechri & Hummel, 1997; Clément *et al*., 1994; Julkunen & Borzova, 1996; Cid *et al*., 2002) investigated the endorsement of reasons for learning foreign or second languages by various groups of learners in different contexts. They found that foreign or second language learning breaks up into various orientations depending upon the context.

Instrumental orientation proves to be successful in situations where the learner has no opportunity to use the target language and therefore, no chance to interact with members of the target group. Lukmani (1972) found that an instrumental orientation was more important than an integrative orientation in non-westernized female learners of L2 English in Bombay. The social situation helps to determine both what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning. BrajKachru (1977, cited in Brown 2000) also points out that in India, where English has become an international language, it is not uncommon for second language learners to be successful with instrumental purposes being the underlying reason for study.

Brown (2000) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental orientations are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientations. He cites the example of international students residing in the United States, learning English for academic purposes while at the same time wishing to become integrated with the people and culture of the country.

However, the extent and interaction of these two orientations was liable to controversies. Scholars such as Soh (1987) viewed the integrative and the instrumental goals as opposite ends of a continuum. Others, however, such as Clément and Smythe (1977) found that both goals are positively related.

As for the status of these orientations, Dörnyei (1990) argues that instrumental goals play a prominent part in the learning of English up to intermediate level. However, learners wishing to master the language with socio-cultural and non-professional reasons of learning English do not merely want to acquire a minimal working knowledge of English. This scholar argues that the instrumental orientations may acquire a special

importance in situations where English is an academic matter. Yet, the integrative goals may be there.

In a seminal paper, Canadian researchers Clément and Kruidenier (1983) were the first to challenge the "universality and exhaustiveness" (p. 288) of the instrumental and integrative orientations because of conflicting results that had been obtained in a number of empirical studies examining patterns of relationships between different orientations and achievement in L2 learning. They pointed out ambiguities in the definition of the construct of integrative orientation, and suggested that aspects of the learning context might influence the emergence of other orientations.

Indeed, four orientations emerged from Clément and Kruidenier's research, namely, instrumental, friendship, travel, and knowledge orientations, which appeared to sustain motivation in all eight groups of Canadian high school learners that they surveyed. Each group represented a different learning context, that is, the eight groups were obtained by combinations of three factors: the learners' ethnicity—English-speaking, or French-speaking; the learning milieu—monocultural, or multicultural; and the target L2—French, English, or Spanish. The instrumental, friendship, travel, and knowledge orientations were also found later in a study by Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000).

In their 1983 study, Clément and Kruidenier also identified a fifth orientation, termed sociocultural orientation, among unicultural-setting students learning Spanish as an L2 (an ethnic minority language in Canada). A sociocultural orientation refers to "seek[ing] greater knowledge of the cultural and artistic production of the target [language] group" but implies "a rather distant or 'bookish' interest," therefore lacking

the affective connotation that is an inherent aspect of integrative orientation (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983, p. 288).

Clément and Kruidenier's (1983) results suggested that an integrative orientation, whereby students learn an L2 in order to "identify" with valued members of the L2 group, requires assurance of one's first language and culture dominance, as well as familiarity with, and usually availability of the L2 group in one's immediate environment.

In a second language context, Kruidenier and Clément (1986) investigated the orientations of grade 11 students in Quebec City towards learning English as a second language. In this study, students' orientations were friendship, travel, prestige, and knowledge/respect. Their study was conducted with 93 students, aged 15 to 19. They used a Likert-type 6-point scale.

Pondering on these results, Belmechri and Hummel (1997) conducted a similar study to Kruidenier and Clément's with a similar population in the same context using the same instrument with adaptations. They ran factor analyses and a multiple regression analysis on the data. Results indicated that students' orientations were: travel, understanding, school (instrumental), friendship, understanding, and career (instrumental).

In a foreign language context, Dörnyei (1990) studied the orientations of Hungarian students toward learning English. The students were adult learners who had voluntarily registered and paid for English courses. The students were learning the language as an academic matter. In this context, he hypothesized the prominence of instrumental orientation. His reason for this hypothesis was little or absence of the L2 group member in the society. However, his results revealed the existence of an integrative orientation as they portrayed a desire for contact with foreigners and Anglophone culture.

His first study confirmed the prominence of instrumental goals up to an intermediate level.

Dörnyei's (1990) studies paved the way for other more intensive studies using mixed methodolgy. In 1994, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels assessed the orientations of students in the uni-cultural Hungarian context. A survey assessing students' attitude, anxiety, and motivation toward learning English as well as their perception of classroom atmosphere and cohesion was administered to 301 students in Grade 11. Meanwhile, the teachers were asked to rate each of the students on proficiency and a number of classroom behaviors and to evaluate the cohesion of each class group. It was revealed that achievement in English was significantly related to self-confidence, the evaluation of the learning environment and the motivational indices. The attitude and effort index was also found to be related to self-confidence, the learning environment, and a cluster of affectively based attitudes and motivational factors.

In later study, Julkunen and Borzova's factor analysis (1996), based on teenagers in Finland and Russia, yielded three other factors ('challenge motive', 'anxiety factor' and 'teacher/method') besides an instrumental and an integrative orientation.

Furthermore, Cid *et al*. (2002) in their study on a sample of students from Catalonia made a distinction between two factors that are instrumental in nature, 'functional' and 'career-oriented'. The first one covers the use of English for personal purposes (everyday language, songs, media, tourism, movies) and the latter covers the use of English for future studies and work.

The most important contribution of this focus on orientations lies in the fact that it has helped redefine the concept of integrativeness, which was originally said to involve "emotional identification with another cultural group" (Gardner, 2001:5). The reconceptalization of integrativeness will be explained further in the next section.

3.3 Integrative motivation in a globalizing world: Re-conceptualizations

The world has changed greatly since Gardner and Lambert first established their views toward motivation and second language acquisition in the 1950s Their ideas of integrative motivation are based upon a world with obvious and identifiable social groups associated with particular languages. However, in the case of English, concepts like globalization and the rapid growth of technology should be considered. Learners may not associate English with a particular cultural group, but with an international community including "business, technological innovation, consumer values, democracy, world travel, and the multifarious icons of fashion, sport and music" (Lamb 2004). Due to the current information technology era, globalization, and students' interaction with foreigners, it is plausible that learners can develop certain "generic" attitudes towards the culture of the target language and its native speakers.

In fact, Gardner and Macintyre (1993) themselves acknowledge that since motivation is dynamic; the old characterization of motivation represented by instrumental/integrative distinctions is too restricted and cannot be employed. In a review of the literature, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002:453) say that empirical studies on L2 motivation show that some kind of integrativeness factor does exist, but affirm that 'it may be timely to re-examine the term."

Dörnyei (1990) is another researcher to challenge the conceptual definition and the dominant place of "integrativeness" in L2 motivation. His research was based on survey data obtained from young adult learners of EFL in Hungary, where direct contact with a community of English speakers, hence the opportunity to identify psychologically

and emotionally with them seldom, if ever, happens. Dörnyei (1990) argued that foreign language learners could hardly be expected to form attitudes about the L2 community, particularly when the L2 is an international language. Instead, he proposed that identification be considered metaphorically, as "a more general disposition toward language learning and the values the target language conveys" (p. 65), "and in the case of the undisputed world language, English, this identification would be associated with a non-parochial, cosmopolitan, globalized world citizen identity" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 97). This was already well illustrated in Dörnyei's (1990) conceptualization of an Integrative Motivational Subsystem (based on the set of integrative motives that emerged from the study), which includes the following four dimensions:

- A general interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people (related to Clément and Kruidenier's [1983] "sociocultural orientation").

- A desire to broaden one's outlook, to be current, more cosmopolitan, and avoid isolation (associated to Clément and Kruidenier's [1983] "knowledge orientation").

- A desire for new stimuli and challenges (includes Clément and Kruidenier's [1983] "friendship orientation," and the tourist dimension of the "travel orientation").

- A desire to integrate into another community (temporarily or permanently), with the help of the L2.

It is especially interesting to note that, compared to the set of integrative motives, the set of *instrumental motives* that emerged from Dörnyei's (1990) investigation was particularly homogeneous, and accounted for a large proportion of the variance in motivation. "Instrumental motives" refer to those organized around a learner's striving

toward his or her future career. Consequently, the results seemed to suggest that instrumental orientation might play a more crucial role than integrative orientation in foreign language learning environments. Moreover, Dörnyei's (1990) results showed that integrative and instrumental motives sometimes overlapped, particularly in the case of emigration, or even temporary sojourn, when the main motives are usually work or study but can be accompanied by a desire to identify with and integrate into a new community. Consistent with the above, Dörnyei (2002) subsequently redefined "integrativeness" as "a broad positive disposition towards the L2 speaker community, including an interest in their life and culture and a desire for contact with them" (p. 147).

The lack of fit between empirical findings and Gardner's meaning of "integrativeness" has led some researchers, such as Warden and Lin (2000) in the Taiwanese EFL environment, to conclude that integrative motivation does not exist in their particular setting. Other researchers suggest that it exists but in a different form. For instance, based on empirical data collected in the Japanese EFL context, McClelland (2000) proposed that, since English is an international language, integrativeness could refer to integration with the global community. The global community, in many ways, is an "imagined community," as conceptualized by Norton (2001), that is, a mental construction made of a combination of personal experiences and knowledge derived from the past, and of imagined elements related to the future.

Yet other researchers try to avoid using the concept because of conflicting results. Irie (2003) explains that this often happens in Japanese motivation studies because what is generally found is a factor that blends positive attitudes toward L2 communities and speakers of the L2 with utilitarian interests (e.g., traveling), which does not fit Gardner's original meaning. Instead, these composite factors are given new labels, such as

"International Orientation" (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b) or "Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive" (Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001). An elaborate adaptation of integrativeness has also been proposed by Yashima (2002), which she called "International Posture." International Posture is presently operationalized into three variables: "interest in international vocation or activities," "interest in foreign affairs," and "intergroup approach-avoidance tendency" (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu, 2004). Yashima (2002) found that Japanese university students' International Posture influenced their motivation and L2 self-confidence. Yashima et al (2004) replicated these findings with Japanese adolescent learners of English.

Other researchers have examined integrative motivation for learning a foreign language in the globalizing world in different contexts, namely, Kormos and Csizer (2008) and Csizer and Kormos (2008) in Hungary, Hernandez (2008) in the USA, and Lamb (2004) in Indonesia. Specifically, Kormos and Csizer (2008) examined motivation for learning English as a foreign language in three distinct learner populations in Hungary: secondary school pupils, university students, and adult language learners. The main factors affecting students' L2 motivation were language learning attitudes and the ideal L2 self, which provides empirical support for the main construct of the theory of the L2 motivational self system. The results also demonstrated that models of motivated behaviour varied across the three investigated learner groups: for university students, as well as for adult language learners, "international posture" was an important predictive variable, instead of interest in English-language cultural products among secondary school pupils.

Furthermore, Csizer and Kormos (2008) examined the role of inter-cultural contact in the motivation of Hungarian learners. They used motivated learning behaviours

as the outcome measures. According to Dörnyei (2005), motivated learning behaviour, one of the most important antecedents of achievement in language learning, is defined as "effort expended to achieve a goal, a desire to learn the language, and satisfaction with the task of learning" (p. 6). Csizer and Kormos' (2008) results showed that these behaviours were determined not only by language-related attitudes, but also by the views of students about the perceived importance of contact with foreigners. The results of the study also revealed that the perceived importance of contact was not related to students' direct contact experiences with target language speakers but was influenced by the students' milieu, that is, the social influence of the learners' immediate environment (parents' support and friends' attitudes toward L2 learning) and indirect contact to foreign media usage. Among the contact variables, it was only contact through media products that had an important position in the model examined, whereas direct contact with L2 speakers played an insignificant role in affecting motivated behaviour and attitude. Csizer and Kormos pointed out that this finding highlighted that, in a foreign language setting such as Hungary, indirect contact by means of exposure to English-language media products, such as television, magazines, and the Internet, might take over the place of direct contact and might exert significantly more influence on attitudes to target language speakers and their culture than direct spoken contact.

Hernandez's (2008) study examined students learning Spanish as a foreign language in the USA. Integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, the need to fulfill a foreign language requirement, grade point average, and previous years studying Spanish were used as independent variables to predict scores on exams, the desire to enroll in Spanish courses, and the intention to enroll in Spanish courses. Integrative motivation was a significant predictor of students' desire to enroll in additional coursework, and it

also had an important role in students' foreign language requirement and students' intention to major in the language. A negative relationship was found between the need to fulfill the language requirement and intent to continue with further studies in Spanish. The findings demonstrated that integrative motivation was important in predicting student achievement in the foreign language classroom.

Examining integrative motivation in learning English in Indonesia, Lamb (2004) used closed and open questionnaire items, classroom observations, and interviews with a selected group of Indonesian students to examine their motivation in learning English. The results showed the integrative and instrumental orientations to be indistinguishable. The researcher argued that English had lost its association with particular Anglophone cultures and instead was identified with powerful forces of globalization and that the desire to "integrate" had lost its explanatory power in many EFL contexts. Lamb found that most students aspired to a bicultural identity that incorporated an English-speaking, globally involved version of themselves in addition to their local Indonesian culture.

To recapitulate, the importance of looking into the effects of motivation in the current globalizing world lends support to a closer investigation of motivation in different contexts. However, controversy still exists as to how to refine and redefine relevant motivation concepts, especially integrative motivation. On the one hand, many researchers (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Lamb, 2004; Sifakis, 2004; Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004) promoted different concepts to enlarge the vision of motivation to suit challenges faced with world globalization.

Ushioda (2009), for example, presented a person-in-context relational view of emergent language motivation. She argued that by integrating a range of relevant

theoretical frameworks to inform our analysis of interaction processes and relational contextual phenomena, we may enrich and diversify our understanding of how motivation shapes and is shaped through engagement in L2-related activity and the engagement of identities and engagement with possible selves (p. 225).

In addition, a more recent reinterpretation of "integrativeness" by Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) may offer a more useful motivational concept because it is not specific to English as an international language and has the merit of being able to account for the high positive correlation often found between "integrativeness" and "instrumentality." On the basis of findings from a large-scale survey of Hungarian school children (age 13-14), these authors suggest that it may be useful, especially in contexts where there is little or no direct contact with L2 speakers, to look at "integrativeness" from a perspective of "ideal" and "ought" selves (as discussed in 3.8). From this perspective, learners are said to have an "integrative" disposition if they are driven by an idealized image of themselves that includes the possibility of becoming competent L2 speakers. A learner with an ought L2 self as opposed to an ideal L2 self learns an L2 for non-internalized motives based, for instance, on fear of punishment or on fear of failure. Csizér and Dörnyei suggest that "integrativeness" be relabeled as the "Ideal L2 Self," and point out that the latter does not conflict with Gardner's original notion of "integrativeness".

On the other hand, some researchers, such as MacIntyre, Mackinnon, and Clément (2009), have expressed caution about re-theorizing L2 motivation from a self perspective and have urged the researchers in this field not to throw out the baby with the bathwater, suggesting instead that possible selves and integrative motivation be viewed as complementary rather than competing frameworks. They argued that language motivation research that brought in self and identity theories held a great deal of promise because of

its focus on the learner as applicable to education research contexts, its focus on whom the learners planned to use language with apart from a specific cultural group, and its ability to integrate multiple motives. However, cautions were put forward as to how to ensure a better understanding of language motivation rather than simply rephrase it. MacIntyre, Mackinnon, and Clément suggested that the literature of the socio-educational model of motivation is a solid base on which other literature or new concepts could be built.

3.5 Expectancy-value related components of L2 motivation

Gardner's theory of L2 motivation provides some basic elements of a student's L2 domain motivational knowledge. However, other components have been investigated since the 1990s. A number of these components fall within an expectancy-value framework.

3.5.1 L2 Research on attributions

Research implementing aspects of the attribution theory has been limited despite its recognized importance, partly as, Dörnyei (2003) points out, because it does not easily submit itself to quantitative research. Dörnyei summarizes the findings of some qualitative studies that were conducted by Ushioda (1996, 1998) and by Williams and Burden (1999). The first found that maintaining a positive self-concept and belief in personal potential in the face of negative experiences depended on two attributional reasons: success attributed to personal ability or other internal factors (e.g. enough effort) and failure to temporarily shortcomings that can be overcome (e.g. lack of effort or time

to spend). The latter found differences between ages: 10-12 year olds attributed success mainly to listening and concentration, older learners mentioned a variety of reasons including ability, level of work, circumstances and the influence of others.

3.5.2 Linguistic self-confidence and related attitudinal constructs

Linguistic self-confidence is a construct that was first introduced by Clément, Gardner , and Smythe in 1977 and has been supported by empirical results (e.g., Clément, 1980; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). Clement (1980) proposed that linguistic self-confidence was an important determinant of the motivation to learn an L2 and consisted of perceptions of confidence in the L2. It is a socially defined construct, since it is mainly determined by the quality and quantity of either direct or indirect social contact with the L2 group and culture (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994). In this respect, it is different from the cognitive construct of "self-efficacy" used in the psychological motivational literature (see Chapter 2). Linguistic self-confidence, though, does have a cognitive subcomponent named perceived L2 competence (Baker &MacIntyre, 2000), as well as an affective one, L2-use anxiety, or "the discomfort experienced when using a L2" (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 551). Learners who are high in linguistic self-confidence tend to believe that they have the ability to achieve goals or complete tasks successfully.

Linguistic self-efficacy (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000) is the task-specific form of linguistic self-confidence. It is a situation-dependent, cognitive component, which refers to learners' self-evaluation of their existing L2 language knowledge and skills, with regard to whether or not they can—or think they can—meet the communication demands of a particular task, and whether they feel they have the ability to compensate for what they do not know. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and Dörnyei (2002) investigated the

relationship between linguistic self-efficacy and task engagement. Task engagement was operationalized as the number of turns that Hungarian high school EFL students took at speaking the L2, and the number of words that they produced while engaged in an oral task. The task was especially designed for the study, but took place in the students' regular English classes. Both studies revealed that linguistic self-efficacy only affected the task engagement of those students who had positive attitudes toward the task; in other words, if students were negatively disposed toward the task, it did not matter whether they felt able or unable to complete the task satisfactorily. Consequently, it appears that if a student does not want to engage in an activity, whether or not she feels she can complete it, may be irrelevant.

3.5.3 Value components of L2 motivation

For many secondary school students, learning an L2 remains primarily an academic requirement, which is often at best perceived as a means to achieve another end. In other words, they may be interested in obtaining high scores in an L2 test (which may only require the ability to do well in complex multiple-choice tests, and not test either oral or written proficiency in the L2), in order to pursue other meaningful personal goals.

Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), and Dörnyei (2002) investigated the instrumental benefits associated with the EFL proficiency of Hungarian high school learners. In these studies, the authors preferred to use the term "incentive values" to instrumentality because, besides the usual pragmatic benefits mentioned by the participants, other incentives were mentioned such as traveling, making foreign friends, and understanding English songs. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found a negative correlation between learners with high task attitudes who reported an interest in incentive values and the number of words produced by these learners; they suggested it might be because such an interest was

socially desirable rather than genuine. On the other hand, Dörnyei (2002) reported a highly significant, positive correlation between students with positive task attitudes who reported an interest in incentive values and the number of turns they had taken during the task. Dörnyei (2002) indicates that the result is in accordance with his theoretical proposition that task motivation is "fuelled by a combination of situation-specific and generalized motives" (p. 151). This conclusion is in line with Boekaert's theoretical position (1988), and with Tremblay, Goldberg, and Gardner's (1995) suggestion that the trait motivation students bring to a given lesson may interact with classroom experiences to affect their state motivation during that lesson

Finally, another noteworthy finding from the studies by Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and Dörnyei (2002) was that some learners, who had negative attitudes toward the tasks used in their study, nevertheless engaged in L2 communication behavior when they held favorable attitudes toward the L2 course. This seems to lend support to Schumann's (1999) argument that some individuals may be "willing to endure" (p. 36) certain L2 learning experiences that they find unappealing or even unpleasant, just because of the contribution these experiences make to achieving a longer-term goal that they value (e.g., learning an L2). It also suggests that favorable attitudes toward an L2 course may be related to the positive value students attach to L2 learning in general, and that attitudes toward specific language learning tasks may be based on an affective type of response to these learning tasks, which can be self-regulated.

3.6 Self-determination theory (SDT) and second language motivation

Deci and Ryan's (1985, 2002) self-determination theory (SDT) has been one of the most influential and well-known approaches in motivational psychology (Dörnyei, 2003). According to SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000), three different types of motivation (intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, and amotivation) can be identified according to the extent to which a learner participates in an activity due to their inner interest. Different types of motivations are depicted in Figure 5 below:
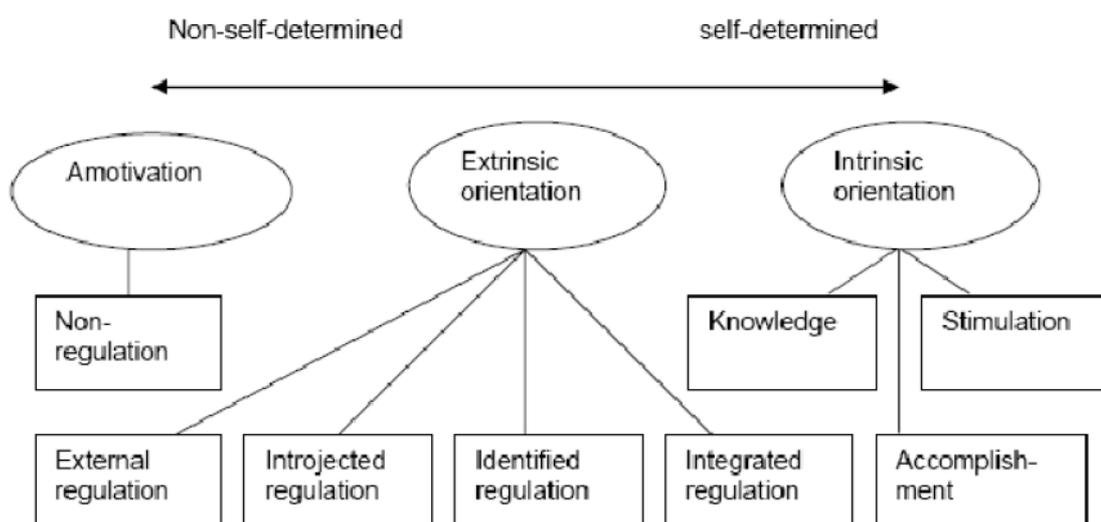
Figure 5 Orientation subtypes along the self-determination continuum (*adopted from Ryan & Deci, 2000, cited in Noels, 2001a, p. 49*)

In the language learning context, intrinsic motivation (IM) refers to "the degree of effort a learner makes to learn a second/foreign language as a result of the interest generated by a particular learning activity" (Ellis, 1997, p. 140). Vallerand and his associates (Vallerand, 1997; Vallerand, Blais, Briere, & Pelletier, 1989; Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal, & Valliires, 1992, 1993) propose three subtypes of intrinsic motivation: IM-Knowledge, IM-Accomplishment and IMStimulation. The enjoyable feelings obtained from "the self-initiated and challenging activity" are the basis

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of the three subtypes of intrinsic motivation. IM-Knowledge refers to "the motivation for doing an activity for the feelings associated with exploring new ideas and developing knowledge"; IM-Accomplishment is "the sensations related to attempting to master a task or achieve a goal"; IM-Stimulation means "motivation based simply on the sensations stimulated by performing the task" (Noels, et al., 2000, p. 61).

Extrinsic motivation (EM) refers to the degree of effort a learner makes to learn a second/foreign language in order to receive some extrinsic reward or to avoid punishment. EM has traditionally been regarded as undermining intrinsic motivation, with several studies confirming that intrinsic motivation in an activity will gradually decline if learners have to accomplish a task for some extrinsic needs. However, recent research shows that extrinsic motivation can be combined with or even leads to intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 1994a; Noels, et al., 2000). EM has been classified into four types, from the lowest to highest level of self-determination: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation (Vallerand, 1997; Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993). These types vary in the extent to which "they have been internalized and integrated into the person's self-concept" (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997, cited in Noels, 2001a, p. 46). External regulation is the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation and is defined as "those activities that are determined by sources external to the person, such as tangible benefits or costs" (Noels et al., 2000, p. 61-62). Introjected regulation is more internalized and refers to "reasons that pertain to performing an activity due to some type of pressure that individuals have incorporated into the self, such that they compel themselves to carry out that activity" (Noels et al., 2000, p. 62). The most self-determined form is integrated regulation, which "occurs when identified regulations are fully assimilated to the self, which means they have been evaluated and brought into congruence with one's other values and needs" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 73). Amotivation

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refs to situations in which people have no reasons for their performance, that is, there is no relationship between their actions and the consequence of those actions (Noels, et al., 2000). Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory on intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and self-determination has become so influential in mainstream psychology, that components of the theory have been incorporated into L2 motivation research. In particular, researchers have focused on apparent similarities between intrinsic motivation and an integrative orientation and between extrinsic motivation and an instrumental orientation.

Noels and her colleagues (Noels, Pellertier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000; Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999) have made a systematic effort to investigate the relationship between the main concepts in SDT and established L2 motivation concepts.

Noels et al. (1999, 2000) examined the validity of the self-determination model among Anglo- Canadians learning French and Anglo-Americans learning Spanish and found that the subtypes of SDT could be successfully used to test L2 motivation. The results showed a clear distinction among the subtypes of motivation, *i.e.,* that more determined forms of motivation, less determined forms of motivation and amotivation can be distinguished explicitly. Moreover, Noels et al.'s (2000) study explored the link between the subtypes of intrinsic/ extrinsic motivation and the language learning orientations proposed by Clement and Kruidenier (1983), that is, travel, knowledge, friendship and instrumental orientations. The results suggest that instrumental orientation is strongly correlated with the external regulation, and that travel, knowledge and friendship are highly associated with identified regulation and intrinsic motivation, which are more self-determined. However, the relationships between integrative orientation and the subtypes of self-determination theory were not explored.

In a follow-up study, Noels, Clement, and Pelletier (2001) examined another group of learners, francophone Canadians learning English, to test the extent to which the

SDT can be generalized and, more important, to expand on previous studies. They investigated the relations between different subtypes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and integrative orientation. The results demonstrated "cross-linguistic generality" (Noels, et al. 2001, p. 432) in that the motivation pattern of Francophone learners of English in this study was consistent with that of Anglophone learners of French at the same bilingual institution featured in Noels et al.'s (1990) study. The results also indicated that "integrative orientation is most similar to more self-determined forms of motivation and to intrinsic motivation in particular" (Noels, et al. 2001, p. 432), coinciding with data reported by Noels (2001b). An integrative orientation was found to be predictive of L2 achievement, as interacting with target language speakers demands relatively high fluency and grammatical accuracy, encouraging learners to strive to achieve greater language proficiency (Noels, et al., 2001).

In sum, these studies show that an instrumental orientation is more closely connected with less extrinsic motivation, while the integrative orientation is more closely related to intrinsic motivation. Based on the different research findings drawn from ESL and EFL contexts regarding the predictive effects of integrative and instrumental orientations on L2 achievement, it is necessary to look at IM and EM through different contextual lenses.

However, the distinctions that Noels and associates make between the different extrinsic regulations and the different intrinsic motives are not theoretically clear. In addition, new recent research within the frame of the self-determination theory suggests that such a continuum does not exist. Vandergrift (2005) wanted to examine the relationship between motivation and proficiency in L2 listening among adolescent learners of French as L2. The framework adopted for studying motivation was the self-determination theory with the sub-classifications suggested by Noels and associates.

Among the other findings, Vandergrift found that 'no distinct simplex pattern, reflecting a continuum of increasing self-determination [was] apparent' and concluded that the self-determination framework as theorized by Noels and colleagues cannot be generalized for adolescent learners. Such a generalization can only be made as to the broad categories of extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation and amotivation. In a recent experimental study on college students, Vohs et. al. (2008) found that offering too many choices to individuals may lead to negative effects on self-regulation. It found for example, that this might lead to less self regulation, less willingness to engage in an activity and less persistence on performance.

3.7 Goal theories and second language motivation

A number of researchers on language learning motivation such as Oxford and Shearin (1994) and Dörnyei (1994) have embraced the goal setting theory in some of their works. Dörnyei incorporated the goal setting theory into his 1998 model on language learning motivation. The appeal of the theory is not without genuine reasons. It offers measurable parameters and the possibility of autonomy for the student (Pagliaro, 2002). However, Pagliaro warns against a careless application of the theory that has developed within a workplace context on language learning. In the former context, work is needed for living whereas in the latter students are not subject to these needs.

Since mastering a language is not a goal to be achieved within a short time, Dörnyei (1994) suggests that planners set subgoals (proximal subgoals) that can be achieved within a short time. Such subgoals might have a powerful motivating function for they also provide learners with feedback on their progress. They can, once achieved,

increase self-efficacy and motivation. Van Lier (1996:121), cited by Pagliaro (2002:20), warns against an exclusive focus on goals since concentration only on future goals, particularly the long-term goal of mastering the language, might distract teachers' attention from the fact that learners' intrinsic enjoyment and innate curiosity are both vital sources of motivation.

Unlike the goal-setting theory, the goal orientation theory was developed in a classroom context in order to explain children's learning and performance (Dörnyei, 2001:27), and it might now be one of the most vigorous motivation theories within the classroom (Pintrinch & Shunck, 1996). According to this theory, an individual's performance is closely related to his or her accepted goals. An important contribution of the theory resides in its distinction between two types of goal orientation (Ames & Archer, 1988; Ames, 1992): performance vs. mastery (or learning) orientations. Learners possessing the first orientation are primarily concerned with looking good and capable, those possessing the second are more concerned with increasing their knowledge and being capable. A rather interesting distinction is suggested by Dweck (1985:291) in Williams and Burden (1997:131), 'Put simply, with performance goals, an individual aims to look smart, whereas with the learning goals, the individual aims to becoming smarter'. A strategy called the attunement strategy (ibid, 132), based on the goal orientation theory in which teachers negotiate and discuss with students all aspects of the work, proved successful in increasing language learners' motivation in primary schools in Netherlands and England (Hasting, 1992 in ibid).

3.8 Personality Systems Interaction (PSI) theory

Personality Systems Interaction theory, or PSI (Kuhl, 2000a), builds on Kuhl's Action Control Theory (e.g., Kuhl, 1986). PSI is based on neurobiological evidence, and is supported by a systematic body of empirical research. It is a fully-fledged theory of motivation and personality. PSI calls attention to the mechanisms underlying the dynamics of motivation and personality—that is, to the functional characteristics of the cognitive "macrosystems" (akin to modules) posited to underlie the functioning of motivation and personality, and to the functional relationships among these systems. For instance, PSI tries to answer questions such as, How does a specific system become activated? What does it do when it is activated? What enables the activation of a connection between two systems?

Being based on neurobiological and experimental evidence, PSI is in line with Schumann's (e.g., 1998, 1999, 2001a, 2001b) neurobiological perspective on L2 motivation in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field. Kuhl (2000b) aptly summarizes the core concept of PSI theory, and outlines broad implications for education as follows:

> PSI theory shows how biased activation of affect in relation to key cognitive systems can lead to inflexible cognitive and self-regulatory styles. An understanding of how affective bias operates in relation to cognition and self-regulation suggests opportunities for altering personal styles through new targets of training and therapy. Whereas content-based theories lead to modifications of contents such as controllability beliefs, or the types of goals students pursue …, PSI theory suggests changing cognitive and self-regulatory mechanisms for instance, by changing the way a person regulates affect. (p. 666)

Affect therefore occupies a central place in PSI since it is assumed that motivational problems occur because of an individual's impaired ability to move between different affective states. Biased activation of affect (which could be due to personality dispositions, task demands, and/or other situational constraints) impacts on the energy flow between the systems, generating specific patterns and sequences of interaction among them that may be far from optimal for motivation. In other words, what appears important in terms of motivation in classrooms is not to feel positive affect throughout the duration of lessons, but rather the ability (and opportunity) to feel a variety of more, or less positive or negative types of affect, and the ability to move easily between these different affective states. This adds a new, and more complex dimension to Schumann's (1999) statement that "positive appraisals along any of [the dimensions of novelty, pleasantness, goal or need relevance, coping potential, and compatibility with social or cultural norms, expectations of significant others, and self or ideal self] promote SLA" (p. 37). Positive appraisals may not be sufficient.

According to PSI, it appears that a strong positive (or negative) bias in terms of stimulus appraisals may not be desirable for SLA, which requires deep sustained learning fuelled by motivation stemming from an individual's ability and opportunity to experience positive and negative effects of different intensities, and success in moving from one affective state to another. Consequently, positive appraisals along any of Schumann's (1999) five dimensions may promote SLA indirectly by sustaining motivation in easy L2 learning activities but it is unlikely that they will sustain deeper, more meaningful L2 learning.

Provided the assumptions behind PSI theory hold (see Kuhl, 2000a, 2000b for assumptions), it appears to deal with all the major challenges of motivation research, as

listed by Dörnyei (2001c). For instance, Kuhl claims he addressed the challenge of unconscious volition (Kuhl, 2000a, p. 136). He also provides numerous examples that testify to the comprehensiveness of the theory, and to its ability to deal with the challenges of context, time, and cognition vs. affect (Kuhl, 2000b, 2001). Finally, it seems that the way students deal with multiple and sometimes conflicting goals and activities could be explained through affect regulation.

3.9 The Dörnyei-Ottó process-oriented model of L2 motivation

The fluctuation of L2 motivation over time and the conceptualization of motivation as evolving in stages have been matters of interest since the late 1990s, particularly in Europe (e.g., Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2006; Ushioda, 2001; Williams and Burden, 1997). A process-oriented approach can potentially integrate various research trends, and seems necessary when trying to account for the evolution of motivation over time, or when examining motivation in relation to specific learner behaviors and classroom processes (Dörnyei, 2000b, 2001c, 2005). However, the only fully developed and comprehensive process-oriented model of L2 motivation to date is Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) and its subsequent elaborations (Dörnyei, 2000b, 2001c).

The Dörnyei-Ottó process model of motivation is based on Heckhausen and Kuhl's *Action Control Theory* (e.g., Heckhausen, 1991; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985; Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994). Action Control Theory is elaborate, but it is only necessary to highlight one main aspect here. Since motivation accounts for not only why individuals come to engage in an activity but also for how long they persist and how much effort they

invest in it, Action Control theory distinguishes two sequentially ordered phases within the motivated behavioral process:

- the *predecisional phase* ("choice motivation")—forming an intention to act;

- the *postdecisional phase* ("executive motivation")—initiating action, persevering, and overcoming obstacles until the action is eventually completed.

When Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) conceived their process model of motivation, their aim was twofold. First, they wanted to introduce a process-oriented perspective of motivation as an alternative to the product-oriented approach, which was dominant at the time. Second, they wished to synthesize, within a unified framework, various lines of research on motivation in the L2 field and in educational psychology. In order to achieve these aims, the Dörnyei-Ottó model divides the motivated behavioral process into three main stages (or phases) occurring in the following sequence: the "preactional stage," which precedes the decision to act, then two stages that follow the decision to act: the "actional stage" and the "postactional stage." Figure 6 presents an updated version of the model.

The key tenet of the process-oriented approach is that each of the three stages of the motivated behavioral process cycle is associated with different motives. Consequently, such a perspective can integrate different motivational theories since they tend to focus on motives affecting different stages of the motivational process. For example, Dörnyei (2005) indicates that "the Canadian social psychological construct is effective in explaining variance in choice motivation but to explain executive motivation, more situated factors need to be taken into account" (p. 86). However, I will indicate here the type of motivational theory or construct that seems particularly effective in explaining variance at each stage of the motivated behavioral process.
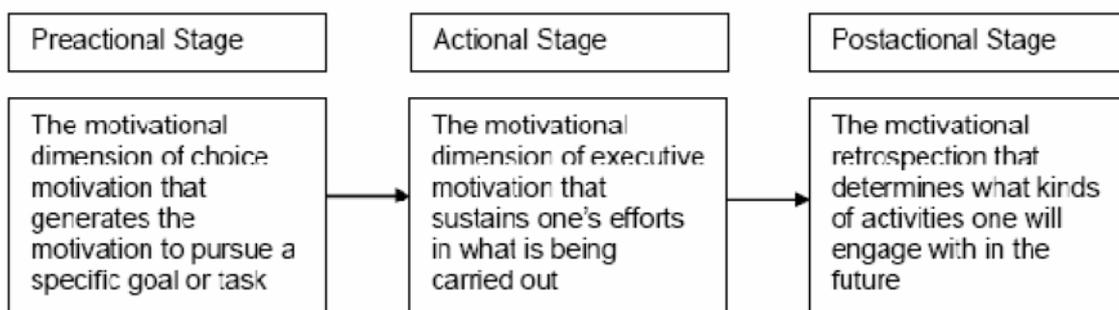
Figure 6 A process model of L2 learning motivation

The preactional stage is related to "choice motivation" in Action Control Theory. It refers to the phase during which an individual is engaged in the process of forming an intention to act, and in selecting an action plan in order to realize the intention to act. Three sub-processes can thus be distinguished within this stage: "goal setting," "intention formation," and "initiation of intention enactment." These occur sequentially, but the sequence can be aborted at any time before reaching the impulse to act. Moreover, the pace at which the sub-processes succeed each other can vary. They can happen almost simultaneously, or the whole sequence can cover a considerable period, depending on the nature of the action being contemplated.

The actional stage corresponds to "executive motivation" in Action Control Theory. It refers to the phase when individuals have translated their intention into action—when they have crossed the metaphorical Rubicon of action (Hechhausen, 1991, cited in Dörnyei, 2001c). In the actional stage, "learners are engaged in *executing* a task, they continuously *appraise* the process, and when the ongoing monitoring reveals that progress is slowing, halting, or backsliding, they activate the *action control* system to save or enhance the action" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 81, original italics). This action-control system, or self-regulation, is what enables learners to persevere until the action is eventually completed. Thus, three interrelated subprocesses make up the action process of

the actional stage, namely, "appraisal," "generation of subtasks and implementation," and "action control." The action process and its components are essentially identical to what Dörnyei (2002, 2005) calls, in the specific context of task (situated) motivation, the "task processing system." Dörnyei's "actional stage" and "task processing system" are fully in line with some current models of situated motivation used in educational psychology to investigate motivation in actual learning situations (e.g., Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001; Volet, 2001).

In the postactional stage, learners examine their behavior in retrospect and evaluate the outcome of their action, thereby possibly forming inferences regarding future similar or related actions. They may have completed the intended outcome, or they may be about to resume their attempt to complete it after an interruption, or they may even have abandoned all attempts to ever complete. No matter the extent to which they have realized their intended goal, learners are likely to evaluate what they have accomplished by comparing their original goal to their actual achievement and forming causal attributions by hypothesizing links between what they did or did not do, and the extent to which they achieved their intended goal. Such *evaluation through retrospective introspection* enables learners to enrich their store of accumulated experience, elaborate their internal standards, and enlarge their repertoire of action-specific strategies. Once the evaluation process is over, the original intention to act is dismissed since it has been acted upon. This *dismissal of intention* is followed by further planning, and by the beginning of a new motivated actional process cycle. The factors that influence the postactional stage of the motivation process are mostly linked to attribution theory (section 2.3.2, and 3.5.1), and to theories dealing with self-concept beliefs (e.g., self-worth theory, section 2.3.5, and 3.3.5; general/linguistic self-confidence and self-efficacy, section 2.3.3, and 3.5.2, learned helplessness, section 2.3.4, and 3.5.3).

Dörnyei (2005) acknowledges that the model has limitations, even though it is helpful in understanding motivational evolution. He lists two shortcomings. First, it is difficult, in real educational contexts, to isolate the actional character of a concrete learning activity from that of the series of activities making up a concrete lesson, itself nested in activities that make up a course that is embedded in the rest of the activities of the school curriculum. It is not easy to define when one actional process starts and ends. The second problem is that it is not common for students to be engaged in only one actional process at a time. It is likely that they will be engaged in other ongoing activities, which will probably interfere with the actional process in question.

3.10 Dörnyei's L2 motivational self system

In line with the latest developments in personality and motivation research, Dörnyei (2005) has outlined a new conception of L2 motivation, the L2 Motivational Self System, in order to increase understanding of individual variations in L2 learning. The *L2 Motivational Self System* is composed of three dimensions:

- The *Ideal L2 Self*, that is, the L2-speaking person we would like to become, which acts as a motivating factor because we desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal self;

- The *Ought-to L2 Self*, that is, an L2-"knowing" person we feel we ought to become in order to avoid possible negative outcomes;

- The *L2 Learning Experience*, "which concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.106).

The Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves both concern future motivational perspectives (i.e.,
constitute what Ushioda (2001) calls "teleological" factors in learners' motivational
configurations), whereas the L2 Learning Experience concerns the past and present of L2
learning and L2-related experiences (the "causal" dimension in Ushioda's 2001
terminology). Based on Ushioda's (2001) findings that motivation could be fuelled either
by future-related factors or by past/present L2-learning factors, it appears possible to
speculate that the strength of L2 motivation may be dependent on the learner's ability to
develop a salient vision of an L2 Self, or on the quality of the L2 Learning Experience. It
seems that L2 teachers have a role to play in both these areas.

Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) developed a self theory for better understanding the
content of motivation in EFL contexts. They examine it within the larger framework of
possible selves, an important line of research in social psychology (*e.g.*, Markus &
Nurius, 1986; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004). According to Markus
and Nurius (1986, p. 954), possible selves refer to "individuals' ideas of what they would
like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming, and thus provide a conceptual link
between cognition and motivation". Possible selves have been further distinguished in
terms of ideal self and ought self by Higgins (1987, 1996).

While the ideal self refers to who one would like to become, the ought-to self means
who one feels it is one's duty to become (Higgins, 1996). Csizer and Dörnyei (2005)
contend that integrativeness can be understood as the L2 learning aspect of one's ideal
self; while instrumentality can be divided into two kinds related either to ideal self or to
ought self, depending on the extent to which the extrinsic motives are internalized. The
less internalized the instrumental motives are, the more they are associated with the ought
self. The motives related to ought self are more likely to be 'short-term' than those related
to ideal self (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 29). Based on the finding that ideal L2 self lies

in the core of motivated L2 learning behaviors, Csizer and Dörnyei (2005, p. 30) redefine L2 motivation as "the desire to achieve one's ideal language self by reducing the discrepancy between one's actual and ideal selves".

Ushioda (2006) found that language learning motivation is increasingly becoming linked to theories of self and identity. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) suggested that future L2 motivation research should take motivation as a situated, dynamic, and person-in-context relational concept, which "take[s] into account sufficiently the process-oriented nature of motivation or the dynamic interaction between motivation and the social environment" (p. 354). Recent research in the Japanese context, for example, has demonstrated that the ideal L2 self, a concept developed by Dörnyei (2005) based on self theory from psychology, was found to be equivalent to integrativeness (Ryan, 2009).

3.11 Willingness to communicate (WTC)

The use of the target language is an end in itself for many L2 learners, and it is generally believed to be an indicator of and a necessary condition for successful second language acquisition. A recent addition to the affective variables coming from the field of speech communication is "willingness to communicate" (WTC). McCroskey and associates employed the term to describe the individual's personality based predisposition toward approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication when free to do so (McCroskey, 1992, p. 17). WTC was originally introduced with reference to L1 communication, and it was considered to be a fixed personality trait that is stable across situations, but when WTC was extended to L2 communication situations, it was proposed that it is not necessary to limit WTC to a trait-like variable, since the use of an L2

introduces the potential for significant situational differences based on wide variations in competence and inter-group relations (Macintyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). Macintyre et al. (1998) conceptualized WTC in an L2 in a theoretical model in which social and individual context, affective cognitive context, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, and behavioral intention are interrelated in influencing WTC in an L2 and in L2 use (Figure 7).

Macintyre (1994) developed a path model that postulates that WTC is based on a combination of greater perceived communicative competence and a lower level of communication apprehension. The model also postulates that anxiety influences the perception of competence. Baker and Macintyre (2000) examined the effects of an immersion versus a non-immersion program on various dependent variables including perceived competence, WTC, self-reported frequency of communication, communication anxiety, and motivation of students who have English as their L1 and are studying French as their L2. It was found that anxiety and perceived competence were key factors in predicting WTC and self-reported frequency of communication.
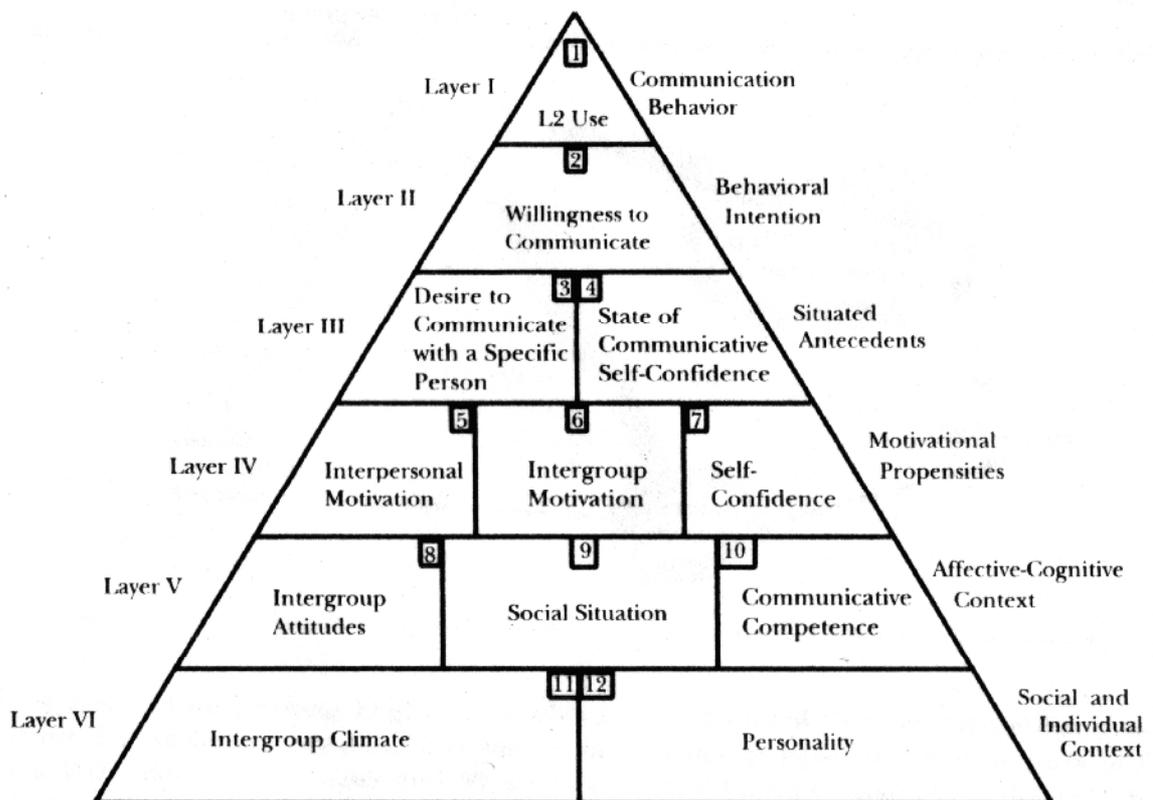
Figure 7 Heuristic model of variables influencing WTC (Macintyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 547)

Macintyre and Charos (1996) tested a hybrid of Gardner's socio-educational model (1985) and Macintyre's (1994) WTC model to predict the frequency of using the second language in the daily interactions of Anglophone students taking introductory level conversational French at adult evening classes. All the paths that were derived from the Gardner and Macintyre models were replicated. The results confirmed that students who have greater motivation for language learning report using the language more frequently and students who are more willing to communicate are more likely to do so. The hypothesized variables underlying WTC were also tested. Both language anxiety and perceived competence influenced WTC, and the predicted effect of anxiety on perceived communicative competence was also supported. It was shown that perceived communicative competence has a strong and direct influence on the L2 communication

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frequency from a data-driven path.   A path from WTC to motivation was also hypothesized but was not found to be significant.

In the Macintyre and Charos model, it was also hypothesized that personality traits and social context have an indirect effect on L2 communication frequency through attitudes, motivation, language anxiety, and perceived competence. Their hypothesis was based on a study by Lalonde and Gardner (1984) which concluded that personality traits have an effect on second language achievement indirectly, through motivation and attitudes.   It was found that having more opportunities for interaction in L2 affects frequency of L2 use directly and also indirectly through perceived competence and WTC. These findings support the suggestions by Macintyre et al. (1998) that context and personality are among the variables influencing the WTC.

Yashima (2002) investigated variables underlying the WTC in a Japanese English as a foreign language context using Macintyre's WTC model and Gardner's socio-educational model. Since there is little daily contact with native speakers of English in the Japanese EFL context, frequency of communication was not included in this model. Instead, L2 proficiency, attitude toward the international community, confidence in L2 communication, and L2 learning motivation were hypothesized to affect the WTC in the L2. The hypothesized causes of WTC were replicated. It was shown that a lower level of anxiety and a higher level of perception of L2 communication competence led to a higher level of WTC, thus supporting the results of the Macintyre and Charos (1996) study.

3.12 Qualitative approaches to motivation

Several studies have emerged which directed studies of L2 motivation to focus more on social context and social identity. Norton (1995) introduced the conception of investment, building on Bourdieu's notion of "cultural capital." She argues that the instrumental and integrative distinction does not capture the complex relationship among power, identity, and language learning. Instead, the notion of investment attempts to capture the relationship of the language learner to the changing social world (p. 17). She argues that in the field of SLA, artificial distinctions are drawn between the individual language learner and the social world. However, motivation must be understood with reference to social context and in relation to the multiple changing and contradictory identities of language learners across time and space (p. 26). The term investment refers to the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language and their sometimes ambivalent desire to learn and practice it (Norton, 1997, p. 411). Syed (2001) also argues that the notions of multiple and socially constructed identity need to be addressed in the study of motivation (p. 129). Other researchers also saw the need for more qualitative approaches to complement the largely quantitative tradition of research on L2 motivation (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001; Ushioda, 2001).

The work of Ushioda (1996; 1998; 2001; 2003) has been crucial in developing an understanding of language learning motivation as not simply a static, individual phenomenon but a product of the learner's interaction with the social context over time. Ushioda's work is significant not only for its theoretical contribution but it has also shifted the methodological base for motivation research. Her initial studies fell outside the conventional quantitative paradigm and were, therefore, uninhibited by considerations of established theoretical constructs. Based on interviews with 20 learners of French in

Ireland, her research provides fresh insights that reveal motivation to be a 'socially mediated process' rather than an individual difference. Ushioda identifies both causal and teleological dimensions to the motivation to learn a language. The causal dimension emphasizes the role of the individual's evaluation of past experiences in the formation of current motivation while the teleological dimension focuses on future-directed behavior. She also draws attention to a tendency for motivation to shift according to proficiency, from being rooted in past experience at lower proficiency levels to being shaped by future goals as proficiency and experience develop.

Although L2 motivation research can benefit from the use of qualitative techniques, they are not without disadvantages in terms of their reliability and generalisability. Many researchers have questioned the use of self-report questionnaires in studies of L2 motivation on the ground that they do not always elicit true responses from participants and they are vulnerable to extraneous influences. Self-reported attitude measures may also be under the influence of extraneous factors such as the desire to look good in one's own eyes (self-flattery), or in the eyes of others (the approval motive), or simply to be consistent in responding to questions of related content (response set). Further, it has been suggested that subjects must understand the questions in an attitude survey in order for them to give self-flattering, socially desirable, and consistent responses. Therefore, if the questions are phrased in the subject's native language, they become a test of intelligence and a rather direct test of first language proficiency. If the questions on the other hand are phrased in the target language, they become a target language proficiency measure (Oller, 1981; Oller & Parkins, 1978a; Oller & Parkins, 1978b). Gardner responded that all such claims are based on speculation and lack empirical support (Gardner, 1980; Gardner & Gliksman, 1982).

3.13 Language learning motivation in the Palestine

During the past two decades several studies reflecting on the attitudes and orientations of Palestinians towards English have been carried out in the West Bank. The majority of these studies indicated that students considered English an important and useful language. There was also a significant trend for instrumental motivation for learning English to be high. However, attitudes towards the English-speaking people and their cultures varied.

The first study was carried out by Tushyeh(1986) among English majors at An-Najah National University. Results revealed that the students expressed positive attitudes towards English; however, they had mixed attitudes towards the English community and their culture. Results also indicated that the students had negative attitudes towards the teaching situation in their department.

Another study with similar results was conducted by Khalil and Sanbee (1987) dealing with attitudes of Palestinian university students learning English at Bethlehem University. These learners thought that learning English helped them in their college work and offered good job opportunities. Unlike the students at An-Najah, this group was interested in meeting and communicating with native speakers of English but, they were not interested in adopting a native speaker's way of life and mentality.

The importance of motivation in accounting for success or failure in learning English was emphasized in the findings of a study carried out by Bakir (1996).

Instrumental motivation was a factor since students pursued the social advantages of learning English.

Shakhshir (1996) further investigated the relationship between students' attitudes towards English and their performance at the secondary stage in Nablus, in the West Bank. He added that achievement scores of students who had positive attitudes towards learning English, towards the English language teaching situation at their schools, and towards the culture of English speaking people were higher than those who had negative attitudes towards these three factors.

The importance of English within the new Palestinian Curriculum and status was outlined in a lecture delivered by Professor Ibrahim Abu Lughod at Bethlehem University in 1997:

> The implications of the importance of English for the Palestinians are that there is a socioeconomic value of English, that the culture of the language should be taught, and since English is the universal language of the modern world, it should be taught from the first grade and this means that there will be more for English and more jobs for English language teachers in Palestine.

As the status of English further develops in Palestine, research assessing this development and its relation with motivation and achievement in Palestinian schools is called for.

A more recent study carried out by Musleh (2006) involved a comparison of motivation and attitudes towards learning English among Palestinian students and students from Catalonia, Spain in a study carried out by Tragant (2006). In this study, findings were expected to show the impact of various variables, relating to context and culture, on motivation and attitudes to differ among students from the two countries.

Results revealed that Palestinian students are more motivated and have higher positive attitudes towards learning English than students from Catalonia. Using factor analysis, seven factors were identified: *1- Motivation, Interest and Attitudes towards the English Language, 2- Positive Attitudes towards the Learning Environment, 3- Perceptions of English Language Skills and Use,* and *4- Interest in Foreign Languages*, *5- Importance of English and Its Modern Uses, 6- Career and Academic Orientations,* and *7- Pleasure and Entertainment.*

Necessity proved to be one of the major sources of motivation for the Palestinian students that participated in this study. This necessity was created due to living conditions in Palestine and the role that the English language plays in the current educational system. Students from Catalonia, on the other hand, don't strongly show this kind of orientation. When compared to Palestinian students, results reveal that the majority learn English for pleasure and entertainment purposes such as listening to music, watching films, and travelling for touristic reasons.

Another interesting finding was the difference in how mothers' and fathers' level of education affected the motivational factors. It was surprising to see that almost all mothers had an education higher than the primary grades with 62% at the university level. In contrast, 20% of the fathers are only educated to the primary level. Despite, the higher number of fathers with a low education, the father's educational level showed great impact on attitudes towards learning English and its importance among Palestinian students and not the mother's. When analysed carefully this can be due to cultural distinction in the different roles parents play in the family and community. The mother's academic level, however, showed no significant impact on the motivational factors.

The influence of other variables such as the type of school, grade level, and student achievement on motivation and attitudes were also dealt with. Reasons for the findings revealed can all be traced back to the important and critical role English plays in the Palestinian educational system and Palestinian culture. Type of school (public/private) showed to have an impact on *attitudes towards the learning environment*, *perceptions of English language skills*, the *interest in foreign languages,* and *pleasure and entertainment*. The grade levels investigated involved the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. Results showed that there was a significant difference among the grade levels in attitudes towards the learning environment. This difference was traced to the critical situation these levels are at in their academic lives as they determine which academic stream they will enter and prepare for the final secondary examinations (Tawjihi).

3.14 Summary

This chapter reviewed the field of second/foreign language (L2) learning motivation. The discussion focused on the following main points:

- Developments that have occurred in the field since its foundation in the late 1950s

- The social-psychological approach specific to the field.

- The expectancy-value related components of L2 motivation, and Self-Determination Theory related components of L2 motivation – all of which represent an attempt to bring L2 motivation more in line with motivation theories in educational psychology.

- Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System.

- Willingness to Communicate as an affective variable,

- Qualitative approaches to motivation, and studies that employ Structural Equation Modeling.

The chapter closed on a review of studies concerning the L2 motivation of Palestinian learners. The objective behind presenting developments and theories in the field of second/foreign language (L2) learning motivation was to provide a background in the available literature and theory to serve as grounds for later discussion and interpretation of results from the present study. As we have seen, researchers in this field have continuously advanced in this field providing a wide variety of interpretations of findings in the different contexts of their studies. Thus, it is expected that theories and explanations developed in contexts similar to the Palestinian one can be applied as well. Similar contexts include EFL settings in which English plays a major role in education and in many other aspects of daily life, but at the same time without having direct contact with native speakers of the language and their culture.

CHAPTER FOUR

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the purpose of the study and to allow readers to evaluate both the appropriateness of the methods used in this study and the reliability and validity of the results. To achieve these aims, I begin the chapter by discussing some key methodological issues and considerations concerning the research design of this investigation before presenting the research design itself. Next, I set out the purpose and research questions. Then, I introduce the methods that were used, describe the participants and the research sites, explain the processes used to adapt and modify the instruments and describe the data collection procedures. Finally, I outline the approaches used to analyze the data.

4.1 Research methods in motivation research

Quantitative research methods have been the most commonly employed methods in L2 motivational research because of the initial influence of social psychology and a concomitant emphasis on results that are reliable, replicable, and generalizable to different types of L2 learner populations. Dörnyei (2001c) aptly defines quantitative research:

[Quantitative research] employs categories, viewpoints and

models as precisely defined by the researcher in advance as

possible, and numerical or directly quantifiable data are

collected to determine the relationship between these

categories, to test research hypotheses and to enhance the

aggregation of knowledge. (p. 192)

Because L2 motivational researchers have traditionally targeted the more general

and stable aspects of L2 motivation, *cross-sectional surveys* (i.e., surveys administered at

a single point in time), involving self-report questionnaires with closed-ended items have

been widely used in L2 motivation research. Cross-sectional surveys are particularly

oriented toward the measurement of stable perceptions and behaviors because they

typically require participants to average their subjective experiences across situations in

order to produce generalized theories about their experiences, which are then reflected in

the self-reports.

Survey methods have both advantages and disadvantages. A major advantage is

that data collection and processing are relatively inexpensive, fast, and economical in

terms of labor. On the other hand, for the reasons outlined in the previous paragraph, they

cannot yield data on the contextual variability of learners' L2 motivation and, in the case

of cross-sectional surveys, on its temporal variability. Another downside of survey

approaches to investigating L2 motivation is that participants' responses to questionnaires

containing no open-ended items are constrained by the constructs researchers have

imposed on the respondents rather than derived from the respondents' own expressions of

their understanding of the phenomenon under study (Elliott & Bempechat, 2002). Despite

these limitations, quantitative survey methods have produced significant advances in the

understanding of academic motivation and L2 motivation.

Qualitative or interpretive methods are not yet commonly used in L2 motivation research, although they have been advocated over the past decade (e.g., Dörnyei, 2001, Ushioda, 1996). A main difference between quantitative and qualitative/interpretive methods is that the latter focus on the participants' rather than the researcher's interpretations and priorities. Thus, qualitative methods can be more contextually sensitive than quantitative ones because researchers do not set out to test preconceived hypotheses; rather, they tend to define analytic categories only during the process of research.

Qualitative methods exclude the collection of numerical data in favor of natural data in the form of researchers' field notes (e.g., notes taken during classroom observations), participants' verbalizations of their experiences (e.g., interviews, journal entries, or answers to open-ended items in questionnaires), and/or authentic documents (e.g., recorded speech samples, texts written by participants, video-recordings of lessons). The analysis of these data consists of discovering meaningful themes and patterns. Consequently, researchers can learn about students' L2 motivation from, for instance, descriptions constructed after having observed the students engaged in classroom activities and from students' accounts of their feelings relating to their L2 teacher and engagement in L2 class activities. From observation notes, it is possible to appreciate how teachers select, sequence, modify, and create activities to cater to their students' specific needs and the constraints of their particular environment.

With their potential for yielding rich and varied data, qualitative research methods accompanied by quality in-depth analysis and interpretation can lead to uncovering the structure of events when the meanings and perspectives of individuals are important. The main drawbacks are that qualitative-type studies are labor-intensive and usually involve only a small number of participants, which makes it impossible to generalize the findings

since the few participants may not be representative of the population being studied. However, the latter drawback can be overcome to some extent by using appropriate sampling methods (see next section, and for more details, Dörnyei, 2007).

One way of enhancing the positive attributes of both methods and of overcoming some of their shortcomings is to combine the two approaches in a single research design. For the present study, the research design was conceived to enquire into the attitudes and motivational components that impact student achievement in learning English in Palestine using the dominant – less dominant design. A combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies is used primarily following quantitative procedures but complementing the quantitative analysis with a qualitative analysis. The quantitative procedures were followed to analyze responses to a structured questionnaire measuring student attitudes, motivation and orientations. A qualitative procedure was followed in the analysis of student responses to the semi-structured questions. The main objective of the analyses was to discover patterns of responses that would enrich and/or reinforce the quantitative findings. The main advantage of this type of method is that data collected is more contextually sensitive than quantitative data because they are not set to test preconceived hypotheses but rather analytic categories tend to be defined only during the process of research.

4.2 Purpose of study and research questions

The main aim of this study is to investigate and discuss what motivational factors emerge from the investigation of Palestinian learners of English and how they may relate to achievement. In addition to identifying the underlying components of motivation, a

structural model is created to examine and graphically exhibit the interrelationship of these motivational factors and English achievement grades. Additional investigation includes the relationship of these factors to gender, age, type of school, mother and father's academic level, and district.

Because motivation is a complex and multi-faceted construct, identifying its underlying components will help in clarifying its nature. Studies in language learning motivation have shown that the constructs that underlie motivation may be interpreted differently in different contexts. The first important difference in language learning contexts is that between foreign language and second language milieus. Attitudes towards a language, the L2 speaking community and its culture, as well as the various reasons for learning another language will differ when learning an L2 as a second or foreign language. Gardner (1980), Clément and Kruidenier (1983 and 1986), Svanes (1987), and others (Belmechri & Hummel, 1997; Clément *et al*., 1994; Julkunen & Borzova, 1996; Cid *et al*., 2002) investigated the endorsement of reasons for learning foreign or second languages by various groups of learners in different contexts. They found that foreign or second language learning breaks up into various orientations depending upon the context. Accordingly, this will be reflected in the investigation of Palestinian learners of English from age twelve to eighteen. Thus, the first research question explored the components underlying motivation.

Research Question No.1: What components underlie motivation to learn English as a second language in Palestinian learners of English aged twelve to eighteen?

In addition to indentifying the components that underlie motivation to learn English, it is also important to investigate the relationship of the motivational constructs identified and their impact on language learning achievement. Research investigating the

relationship of motivation to achievement has shown a positive relation between the two (e.g. Bernaus *et al*, 1994; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Gardner, 1979). Motivation was found to be the cause for successful achievement rather than achievement being the source of motivation (e.g. Gardner, 1979; Gardner, 1985; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Skehan, 1989). Thus the following research question is posed:

Research Question No.2: What is the structure of the different components of motivation and how do they relate to achievement?

After identifying the different components of motivation among these learners and their relationship to achievement, the impact of 'other variables' such as type of school, district, the mother/father's level of education, and grade level will be explored. As mentioned above, the social milieu plays a vital role in language learning. There is a wide variety of factors in second language learning. In the pilot study, variables including gender, age, type of school, and the parent's academic level constitute part of the factors that influence environment and context in which the learning takes place (Musleh, 2006). In social psychology, it is a widely accepted fact that learner's individual differences have significant impact on the learner's overall L2/FL performance (Burstall, 1980; Collier, 1988; Ellis, 1994; Kang, 2000; Oxford, 1999; Robinson, 2002; Shaaban & Ghaith, 2000; Skehan, 1989). Gardner (1985) proposes that second language acquisition is 'truly a socio-psychological phenomenon'. It is concerned with the development of communication skills between an individual and members of another cultural community. Due to the developing role English plays in Palestine and its growing importance, these individual variables are expected to have impact on language learning, thus posing the following research question:

Research Question No.3: What are the relationships of the underlying factors with type of school, student grade level, district, and academic level of the mother and father?

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Context: language in Palestine

In order to have a more comprehensive picture of the context in this study, it is worthy to mention how English was introduced in Palestine and into its academic institutions.

Palestine has been in contact with many different countries all over the world, therefore affecting the development of foreign language education and policies. According to Amara (2003), the new Palestinian Curriculum shows that an international orientation is clearly part of the policy, thus, the learning and teaching of languages is a major concern for the development of this identity.

The existence of so many diverse languages in Palestine is due to several factors such as political developments, studying abroad, immigration and resettlement, trade, tourism, travel, and the founding of several religious missionaries and institutions (Amara 2003). Alongside Arabic, English and Hebrew have developed into critical languages throughout the years in Palestine and modern European languages such as French, Spanish, German, Italian, and Russian, are also spreading. Nevertheless, English will remain by far the most widely known and used foreign language among Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza. It has now become a core subject in the Palestinian curriculum

to be taught in all schools beginning in the first grade and continuing through university studies as well.

The spread of English began after the First World War with the British Mandate in Palestine. Since the main language of the government at that time was English, it became the first official language of Palestine (Dweik 1986; Amara 2003). Moreover, the ongoing Palestinian-Israeli conflict which began in 1948 and continues today resulted in the following three important consequences increasing international contacts around the world:

1. Millions of Palestinian refugees were forced out of their homes moving to foreign countries as a result of the war in 1948.
2. Palestinians emigrate to other countries seeking better living, educational, and career opportunities.
3. Many international media and humanity organizations were established in Palestine. Effective NGOs, such as United Nation organizations, became part of the daily life of Palestinian people.

During the Israeli occupation of the West Bank 1967-1995 and Gaza 1967-1994, the Jordanian and Egyptian English language curriculum were used in these two Palestinian areas. The development of a new Palestinian curriculum including the English language as a requirement in Palestinian education began in 1998. The new curriculum is implemented at all grade levels beginning at the first year of elementary school. A minimum of 4-6 classes per week are devoted to English language instruction.

During the past three decades there has been an increase in the use of English in the daily lives of Palestinians. Nowadays English is the first foreign language of the

Palestinians. It is taught in all types of academic institutions and universities throughout the West Bank and Gaza. It is a required subject for all first-year university students. Students are required to sit for an English placement exam before university registration. Moreover, English is the medium of instruction in the sciences and mathematics at all universities, and in other fields such as nursing, business, political science and cultural studies at some universities (Tushyeh 1990b). Hence, generation following generation, Palestinian students at school and university levels are constantly exposed to the English language.

4.4 Participants

Participants in this study are all learners of English as a foreign language in both public and private schools. They all learn English as a foreign language as an obligatory school subject and Arabic as their first. All participating schools teach English as a foreign language starting from the first grade. At public schools, students receive an average of 160 minutes of classroom English instruction a week; while students at private schools study English for an average of 240 minutes a week. Teachers at private schools also tended to be more qualified than public school teachers, thus providing students with a more communicative approach to teaching. Public school teachers are obliged to follow the curriculum provided by the government with a textbook for each level from the first to the twelfth grade. Moreover, since the establishment of the new Palestinian curriculum in 1998, the public schools have been applying the new Palestinian English curriculum while private schools chose the curriculum they want to teach.

The students from the private schools in Palestine have also been exposed to a third foreign language beginning from the first grade. In most cases this third language was French. Nevertheless, there was always more emphasis on the acquisition of English as a foreign language.

Data were collected from a total of 1,133 students from 16 different schools representing a range of grade levels from the 6th grade to the final year of high school (12th grade). The sample includes 48% males (n=546) and 52% (n=587) females. Data collection was planned and carried out with the intention of obtaining a representative sample of students in Palestine. However, in the end a convenience sample was obtained the obstacles were faced due to many reasons which will be explained accordingly in the following paragraphs.

There are generally three main types of schools in Palestine: governmental public schools, private schools and UNRWA schools. Since UNRWA schools only teach students at the basic levels from ages 6 to 14, we only collected data from public and private schools for this study. The private schools involved in the study are all located in the Jerusalem area and its suburbs. Thus, investigation concerning type of school (public/private) will only be within this area. Table 2 shows the distribution of students involved in the study according to type of school, gender, and level of education.

As the table shows, the sample contains more students in the 9th, 10th, and 11th grades. The volunteer university students that assisted in the data collection process had more convenient access to schools that did not have the lower grade levels, thus limiting the number of students in the sample in the 6th, 7th, and 9th grades. As for the 12th grade, teachers are not usually willing to give up teaching time for anything outside the Tawjihi

curriculum which is essential for the regional Tawjihi midterm and final examinations. In Palestine, after completing secondary education, students sit for a series of exams called Tawjihi. If these exams are passed then the student has completed his/her high school studies and receives the Tawjihi diploma.

The subjects came from both types of schools (public and private) in order to give a more accurate and detailed representation of motivation in Palestine. However, more concentration was given to public schools because the number of students in public schools makes up 82% of the total number of students in the West Bank.

Table 2 Collected data from Palestinian schools in the West Bank. Type of school distribution

		6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	TOTAL
Public	male	34	30	44	107	111	60	30	416
	female	0	31	52	101	81	112	30	407
Private	male	12	14	0	8	44	34	18	130
	female	6	0	0	0	72	70	32	180
TOTAL		52	75	96	216	308	276	110	1,133
Percentage		4.6%	6.6%	8.5%	19.1%	27.1%	24.4%	9.7%	100%

The participating schools involved in the investigation were composed of twelve public schools (n=823) and four private schools (n=310). It is also important to note that neither the private and nor public schools are co-ed. There was an equal distribution of girls and boys schools in both the private school and public school samples. The participating schools are located in four of the districts in the West Bank, Palestine: Jerusalem, Nablus, Bethlehem, and Salfeet. The distribution of students participating in the present study according to district is shown in Table 3. According to the Ministry

statistics, of the four districts accessed for data collection, the districts with more students are the Nablus and Jerusalem (including Jerusalem suburbs) areas (Palestinian Ministry of Education, 2006).

From the information collected about the parents' educational level we can observe that the students come from families with a wide diversity of socioeconomic and educational backgrounds. Table 4 represents the distribution of parents according to their level of education.

Table 3 Collected Data from Palestinian Schools in the West Bank –School District Distribution

District	Number	Percentage
Jerusalem	379	33.5%
Nablus	465	41%
Salfeet	147	13%
Bethlehem	142	12.5%
TOTAL	**1,133**	**100%**

Table 4 Distribution of parents according to academic level

		Primary	Secondary	Tawjihi	University	TOTAL
Mother	n	170	252	321	369	1,112*
	Percentage	15%	22%	28%	33%	98%*
Father	n	220	226	266	410	1,122*
	Percentage	19%	20%	24%	36%	99%*

* missing values: 2% (21 mothers); 1% (11 fathers)

Before starting data collection permission from the Palestinian Ministry of Education was needed to distribute the questionnaire in public schools (see appendix 2 for permission letter from Ministry). The Ministry offered its help by selecting and

contacting a number of public schools in the different districts with the range of required grade levels for this study. As for the private schools, the four were selected for convenience and each was contacted by the researcher without prior permission necessary from the Ministry. A group of four university students participated in the data collection. They had access to the following districts in the West Bank: Jerusalem, Nablus, Bethlehem, and Salfeet. For convenience and due to difficulty of movement from one district to another, each student distributed questionnaires in schools of the district nearest to them.

4.5 Instruments and measures

The investigation combined a structured questionnaire with 38 items measuring learner orientations and attitudes for learning English (see Appendix 3) and 10 semi-structured questions (see Appendix 4). These questions were developed to get student opinions on whether they like learning English, why they think it is important and to what extent they use the language. The students were further required to fill in a sheet with background information about themselves, their parents' academic levels and their types of careers (see Appendix 5).

Student semester grades (out of 100) were used for the achievement factor. These grades were provided on the background information sheet the students were given along with the questionnaire. These grades are assumed to be reliable since students in Palestinian schools are all subject to the same midterm exams provided by the Ministry of Education and grades are based entirely on test scores.

4.5.1 Adaptation and development of questionnaire

The structured questionnaire used in the present study is an adaptation of the one used in my pilot study (Musleh, 2006), which was at the same time an adaptation from FLAGS (Foreign Language Attitudes and Goals Survey), a validated questionnaire created by Cid, Grañena and Tragant (2002) with Catalan secondary school learners of English in Catalonia, Spain. This questionnaire was developed as an adaptation from FLAGS in order to allow comparison of results from the two different social and cultural contexts- Palestine and Spain.

Cid et al. (2002) developed FLAGS using students' answers to open-ended questions from Tragant and Muñoz (2000) in order to be able to later on build a data-driven questionnaire addressed to EFL secondary school learners. Their resulting instrument was a Likert-format questionnaire including a total of 49 items, a first part with 25 items in reference to attitudes and a second part with 24 items in reference to orientations, whose factor analysis resulted in seven variables. Table 5 shows the resulting categories from Tragant and Muñoz's work as well as the initial scales and resulting factors in Cid et al's work.

For the pilot study (Musleh, 2006), FLAGS was translated into Arabic in order to be used with secondary school learners in Palestine. As the questionnaire was adapted to suite the Palestinian context, a number of modifications were made including the omission and addition of questionnaire items. First, eighteen items were omitted and an additional seven new items were added. Selection of items to be omitted was based on results from tests of reliability and validity carried out by Cid et al. (2003). The seven items added were suggestions made by Palestinian English teachers. After testing the questionnaire in the pilot study, results and tests for internal reliability and construct validity that were

carried out resulted in the deletion of an additional four questionnaire items (16, 24, 29, and 34). For more detail, a table containing the items in the Catalan, pilot and final questionnaire showing which were deleted and added is provided in Appendix 6. In addition, the Arabic questionnaire used in this study and FLAGS are provided in Appendices 7 and 8. As to the analysis of validity conducted as part of the pilot study, a four factor solution was obtained and factors were labeled as follows: *1- Motivation, Interest and Attitudes towards the English Language, 2- Positive Attitudes towards the Learning Environment, 3- Perceptions of English Language Skills and Use,* and *4- Interest in Foreign Languages*. The factors for part two are the following: *1- Importance of English and Its Modern Uses, 2- Career and Academic Orientations,* and *3- Pleasure and Entertainment.* In total, the seven constructs identified in the pilot study served as the initial scales for the questionnaire used in the present study.

The current questionnaire (shown in Appendix 3) is in Likert-format with a response scale of six levels. Thirty-eight questionnaire items were distributed into two sections. The first section with 25 items aimed at measuring attitudes in which students were asked to respond by choosing among six levels of agreement. These items measured interest in attitudes towards the English language and in foreign languages in general, and towards the learning environment (see Table 6). The four scales that make up this part one of the questionnaire are *Motivation, Interest and Attitudes towards the English Language* (9 items), *Positive Attitudes towards the Learning Environment* (6 items), *Perceptions of English Language Skills and Use* (6 items), and *Interest in Foreign Languages* (4 items). The second section with 14 items was aimed at measuring goal orientations in which students chose among six levels of importance. These items determined career/academic and entertainment orientations, as well as the modern uses

Table 5 Categories, constructs, and scales identified with the development of the questionnaire

Tragant and Munoz (2000) resulting categories	Cid et al. (2002) initial scales	Cid et al. resulting factors	Pilot questionnaire resulting factors (Musleh, 2006)
general attitude	*Motivation to learn English*: present and future interest in learning the FL	*Motivation to learn English and Appeal to the Language*: a determination to learn English both in class and outside as well as a liking for the language.	*Motivation, Interest and Attitudes towards the English Language:* positive attitudes and an interest to learn the English language.
evaluation of instruction	*Attitudes towards FL instruction*: students' opinions about how they are taught English at school	*Attitudes towards instruction*: the learners' opinion about the English class at school as well as their self-reported motivated behavior in this context.	*Positive Attitudes towards the Learning Environment:* positive opinions towards learning in the classroom. Positive words found in these items include easy, fun, do very well, and pay close attention.
attraction to English and languages	*Appeal to English/FLs*: attraction to English or to FLs in general		*Interest in Foreign Languages:* student appeal towards English and foreign languages. Students show interest in learning other languages apart from English, and the importance of speaking other languages other than Arabic
linguistics self-concept	*Linguistic self-efficacy*: self-perceptions of aptitude or difficulty in learning the language	*Linguistic self-efficacy:* the learners' perceptions of aptitude for FL learning, including English as well as their experiences of difficulty with English.	*Perceptions of English Language Skills and Use:* references to student opinions towards their level in understanding and speaking English. These include knowing how to speak English to find a job, and understanding English tapes and movies
effort	*Effort*: amount of time and attention devoted to learning in and outside school		
demotivation	*Determination to learn*: inner thrust to know English		
instrumental orientation	*Instrumental orientation*: references to the importance of English in general as well as to its importance to achieve present and future goals (i.e., grades, furthering studies, pleasing parents, etc.)	*Instrumental/Professional–Academic' orientation*: an acknowledgement of the importance of English in the world as well as of a need to know English in the future for job or study purposes.	*Career and Academic Orientations:* an instrumental orientation and a determination to use English in the future for job or study purposes.
interpersonal communicative orientation	*Interpersonal communicative orientation*: reference to the use of English to communicate with people from other countries	*Interpersonal Communication orientation:* an interest in establishing contacts with people from other countries.	*Importance of English and Its Modern Uses:* reflects the importance of English as a world language. The uses include important daily uses such as understanding written English from everyday life and using the computer.
knowledge orientation	*Knowledge orientation*: references to the value of learning in general, knowing more than your mother tongue and to feeling valued by others and yourself because of linguistic knowledge and ability		
receptive communicative orientation	*Receptive communicative orientation*: references to the use of English through listening (i.e., songs, movies, TV, internet) and reading (books, newspapers, etc.)	*Popular culture/Functional use orientation:* an interest in 'pop' cultural products and activities in English (i.e., movies, books, the press and songs as well as in using the FL for everyday purposes.	*Pleasure and Entertainment:* a desire to learn English to be able to sing and understand songs, watch and understand movies. Other items include traveling for touristic reasons and interacting with people from other countries.

Table 6 Initial scales of the questionnaire

Part 1: Attitudes				Part 2: Orientations		
Scale 1	**Scale 2**	**Scale 3**	**Scale 4**	**Scale 5**	**Scale 6**	**Scale 7**
Motivation, Interest and Attitudes towards the English Language	*Positive Attitudes towards the Learning Environment*	*Perceptions of English Language Skills and Use*	*Interest in Foreign Languages*	*Importance of English and Its Modern Uses*	*Career and Academic Orientations*	*Pleasure and Entertainment*
item27: I am not interested in the English language	item15: In the English lesson I pay close attention to the activities that the teacher tells us to do	**item7**: I don't think you need to speak English because nowadays almost everything is translated or dubbed	**item18**: I would like to learn more languages apart from English	**item41**: I want to learn English because English is a language that many people in the world speak and nowadays you must be able to speak it	**item35**: I want to learn English because I want to read books in English	**item42**: I want to learn English to be able to sing and understand the songs that I like
item8: I am not interested in learning English	**item21**: English is the sign of an educated person	**item5**: You don't need to speak English in order to find a job	**item17**: When I see something in English I try to understand it	**item39**: I want to learn English to understand things written in English from everyday life like notices, advertisements, t-shirts, brand names, etc	**item31**: I want to learn English because I will need it in the job I would like to have	**item36**: I want to learn English so I can watch movies without translation in original version
item1: I like learning English	**item9**: In general, I do very well in English	**item14**: I find it difficult to understand the English tapes that we listen to in class	**item12**: For me it's not important to speak another language other than Arabic	**item40**: I want to learn English to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English	**item37**: I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies	**item33**: I want to learn English because I am interested in being able to interact with people from other countries
item22: I study English only because it is an obligatory school subject	**item6**: In general, I find learning English fun	**item19**: I don't think that I will ever know enough English to understand movies	**item13**: I can notice that my level of English is improving	**item30**: I want to learn English to be better trained for the future	**item38**: I want to learn English to have more job opportunities	item28: I want to learn English to travel abroad for touristic reasons during vacations
item20: I really want to learn English	**item4**: In general, I find it easy to learn languages	**item10**: I don't think I need English when I grow up		**item32**: I want to learn English to use computers and surf the net		
item3: I like it when the teacher talks to us in English	**item11**: I think English is a nice language	**item23**: I would like to travel and visit England or the USA				
item2: When I grow up, I want to know how to speak English						
item26: I would like to meet people who speak English						
item25: I would like to be able to speak with English people						

for the English language measured by three scales: *Importance of English and Its Modern Uses* (4 items), *Career and Academic Orientations* (4 items), and *Pleasure and Entertainment* (5 items) (also see Table 6). Reversed items were only used in part one of the questionnaire (items 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14, 18, 21, and 25). Participants were required to shade circles on a scale from A – F, in which for part 1, an A indicated that the students 'strongly agree' with the sentence, B 'agree', C 'quite agree', D 'quite disagree', E 'disagree', and F 'strongly disagree'.   As for part 2 of the questionnaire, an A indicated 'very important', B 'important', C 'quite important', D 'slightly important', E 'not important', and F 'not important at all'. The Likert-scale items in the present instrument have an even number of items because it is important to design a scale with balanced keying (an equal number of positive and negative statements) and to avoid responses at the scale mid-point and neutral responses**.** Having more than six or seven response levels was not considered because it runs the risk of annoying or confusing the responder with hairsplitting differences between the response levels. Having less than six response levels was also dismissed because a scale with limited response levels creates a forced response (Frary, 1996).

4.6 Data Collection

The data collection instruments were distributed in 16 Palestinian schools throughout the West Bank in the districts of Jerusalem, Bethlehem, Nablus, and Salfeet. All the schools contacted accepted participation. Data collection took place in November during the 2007/2008 academic year.

The questionnaire was completed by students from ages 12 to 18 at sixteen different schools in the West Bank. The English teachers at each of the schools were asked to administer the questionnaire along with the semi-structured questions during the English language class time. The students were to answer the semi-structured questions first. They were asked to answer with complete honesty and sincerity. Moreover, they were informed that their answers would be kept confidential and that the results would have no effect on their school grades. Instead of using the students' names on the questionnaires and semi-structured questions, the sheets were numbered. The following conditions for completing the questionnaire were common to all classes: (a) the students were given as much time as was needed to complete the questionnaire (b) the students completed the questionnaires without conferring with classmates, and (c) students were encouraged to ask the teacher for help with comprehension.

In order to obtain more reliable data and ensure efficient data collection, each of the English teachers at the sixteen schools was given an instructions letter with the questionnaire and semi-structured questions. A copy of the teacher instructions letter is included in Appendix 9.

A group of university student volunteers, who come from these different areas, helped with the data collection from the different Palestinian districts. These volunteers were awarded university community service hours required before graduation in return for their work. There was continuous contact and communication with them in order to follow up on the data collection process.

The students needed 10-15 minutes to respond to the questionnaire and approximately another 10 minutes to answer the semi-structured questions. No problems

were reported except for the observation that students tended to give brief answers to the semi-structured questions.

4.7 Analysis of questionnaire data

The data collected using the structured questionnaire was entered into SPSS 17 for windows. In order to enter the responses numerically the six levels were converted from letters to numbers 0-5, in which 0 represents 'strongly disagree' and 5 represents 'strongly agree'. The answers corresponding to negative items were reversed when entered into the SPSS database. First a frequency analysis was conducted to get a general view of how student's responses were distributed among the different items of each section of the questionnaire. The item description analysis allowed us to detect if there were any problematic items by looking at the number of missing cases for each item. It also allowed us to make sure that all six levels of the Likert-scale had been used by students. Further more, the test for internal reliability, the alpha levels for each scale, and the change in the alpha level according to the 'if item deleted' values allowed us to check and eliminate any items with a low index of discrimination.

As part of the preliminary analyses, the number of missing cases was identified in order to be able to replace a percentage of the missing data with plausible values via a procedure called 'multiple imputation'. Version 17 of SPSS has a multiple imputation option which was used in order to create values for any missing responses. Keeping the number of missing items to the minimum was important in order to avoid deletion or omission of cases with missing values when running factor analyses. The number of incomplete questionnaires was 205 (18%). According to the missing value analysis, it

was decided that cases with more than four missing values would be excluded from the analysis (7 cases). The results showed that there were 188 cases with one or two missing values; nine cases with three missing items; three cases with 4 missing items. Finally, after missing data was imputed, the total number of questionnaires used in the analyses was 1,126.

Multiple imputation (MI) is a general statistical method for the analysis of incomplete data sets. A statistical analysis using multiple imputation typically comprises three major steps. The first step involves specifying and generating plausible synthetic data values, called imputations, for the missing values in the data. This step results in a number of complete data sets (m) in which the missing data are replaced by random draws from a distribution of plausible values. The number of imputations, m, typically varies between 3 and 10. The second step consists of analyzing each imputed data set by a statistical method that will estimate the quantities of scientific interest. This step results in m analyses (instead of one), which will differ only because the imputations differ. The third step pools the m estimates into one estimate, thereby combining the variation within and across the m imputed data sets. Under fairly liberal conditions, this step results in statistically valid estimates that translate the uncertainty caused by the missing data into the width of the confidence interval.

In order to answer the first two research questions about the components that underlie motivation to learn English as a second language in Palestinian learners of English aged twelve to eighteen, their structure, and how they relate to achievement, three types of analyses were conducted in different phases: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). As shown in table 7, the different phases allowed for model development and validation and

were done with the use of two data sets. When using SEM it is "critical to eventually replicate a structure equation model if it is ever to represent anything that goes beyond mere statistical exercise" (Kline, 2005, p. 65). In the present study this was done by splitting the larger sample into two two sub datasets (N_1=649, N_2=551) in order to allow cross validation of the models developed. The data was split randomly using the "split file" option in SPSS, all the while ensuring that all the cases in the second sample contained a grade for achievement. That is, the random split option created a filter (with values 0 and 1) which was used to select cases for each dataset. Another filter was created giving cases with semester grades a value of 0 and cases without grades a value of 1. In the end, to create the second dataset, the cases were selected using the filters and then copied into another data file.

As can be seen in table 7, EFA was run for both parts of the questionnaire using dataset one in order to obtain the factors underlying motivation and develop the initial model. Second, using the software AMOS 16.0, CFA was also conducted on dataset one to confirm that a relationship between observed variables (the questionnaire items) and their underlying latent constructs (the factors) exists. CFA was repeated again using dataset two in order to cross-validate and confirm results obtained from the first dataset.

Table 7 Phases for model development and validation

	Model development	Model validation
Phase 1	EFA & CFA (dataset 1)	CFA (dataset 2)
Phase 2	SEM without achievement factor(dataset 1)	SEM without achievement factor(dataset 2) SEM including achievement as a component in the model (dataset 2)

EFA could be described as an orderly simplification of interrelated measures. EFA, traditionally, has been used to explore the possible underlying factor structure of a set of observed variables without imposing a preconceived structure on the outcome (Child, 1990). By performing EFA, the underlying factor structure is identified; however, prior to such analysis, two statistical measures were generated to test the factorability of the data for both parts of the questionnaire: the Kaiser–Meyes–Oklin value and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity. The data from parts one (attitudes and motivation) and two (orientations) of the questionnaire were first analyzed separately, using principal component analysis (SPSS 17) to extract underlying factors. Different criteria were considered to determine the number of factors to enter in the rotated factor solution for each part: Kaiser's criterion, the scree plot, and the variance explained, and number of items with high interpretable loadings. Using Kaiser's criterion, also known as the eigenvalue rule, only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained for further investigation. The eigenvalue represents the total amount of variance explained by that factor. Kaiser's criterion has been criticized, however, as resulting in the retention of too many factors in some situations. Thus, another criterion was used, Catell's scree test (1966). The scree test involves plotting the eigenvalues for each of the factors and inspecting for a point at which the curve changes shape and becomes horizontal. Catell recommends keeping all the factors above the break in the curve, for these are the factors that contribute most in the explanation of the variance in the dataset. Finally the criteria that was deemed more important was that suggested by Garson (2009) consisting of keeping factors that had at least three high, interpretable loadings (higher than 0.5) which was necessary for confirmatory factor analysis. After deciding how many factors will be retained, using the Varimax rotation method the factors were extracted, interpreted, and finally labeled. The items with greater loadings determined the interpretation and labeling

of the factors. Varimax rotation has been widely used in SL motivation research in order to identify constructs underlying motivation. Studies using Varimax rotation include Belmechri and Hummel (1998), Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner, and Reyes (2004), Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar (2001), and Cid et al.(2009), and Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996)

In phase one, CFA was used in order to confirm the relationship of the items with the underlying factors identified previously. CFA is a set of statistical techniques used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables. They allow the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists. The researcher uses knowledge of the theory, empirical research, or both, proposes a relationship pattern a priori and then tests the hypothesis statistically. Using Amos Graphics a visual representation of the observed and latent constructs is drawn. Squares are used to represent observed variables, in this case the questionnaire items, and circles are used to represent latent constructs, in this case the factors identified in the EFA.

In the second phase (see table 7), structural equation modeling was used to test a proposed model and the interrelationship of the factors in the model using dataset one and then cross validated with dataset two. A final model was proposed and tested including the achievement factor with dataset two. SEM is a multivariate statistical approach that allows for hypothesis testing concerning the interrelationship of multiple factors.

In the study of SL motivation, there has been a significant increase in the application of structural equation modeling (SEM) to interpret large, multivariate datasets. This procedure has been used since the early 1980s, but due to the fact that

programs have become easier to deal with and more readily available, there has been an increase in the employment of SEM procedures (Dörnyei, 2001). Studies using SEM methods include Gardner, Masgoret and Tremblay (1999), Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997), Laine (1995), Masgoret and Gardner (1999), and Yamashiro and McLaughlin (2000). More recent studies using SEM are Al-Sheri (2009), Csizer and Dörnyei (2005), Csizer and Kormos (2009), Pae (2008), Papi (2010), Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009), and Yashima (2002).

In the present study, the hypothesized model was estimated using the covariance matrix derived from the data. To evaluate the adequacy of the estimated models, several measures can be used. The measurements used were: (a) the Comparative Fit Index (CFI >.90 for satisfactory fit), (b) root mean squared error (RMSEA; ≤ .05 for good fit and < .10 for adequate fit), standardized root mean residual (SRMR; < .10 for adequate fit). Significant individual parameter estimates were also taken into consideration. While the most recommended measures used are chi-square statistics and CMIN/*df*, due to the sensitivity of this test to sample size, it is difficult to achieve indexes of fit based on chi-square. Some authors in SL motivation who have used similar measures include Csizer and Dörnyei (2005), MacIntyre (1994), and Tragant, Victori, and Thompson (2009).

In order to answer the third research question about the influence of 'other external variables' on foreign language learning motivation and the identified components, a MANOVA was conducted to investigating the relationships of the resulting factors (dependent variables) with type of school, student grade level, district, and academic level of the mother and father (independent variables). MANOVA in SPSS is concerned with examining the differences between groups. It examines the group differences across multiple dependent variables simultaneously, and is appropriate when

there are two or more dependent variables that are correlated. Prior to the main MANOVA analysis, data was tested to see if it conformed to the following assumptions: normality (univariate and multivariate), outliers, linearity, homogeneity of regression, multicollinearity and singularity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. The MANOVA was followed with univariate ANOVA examining the relationships of each of the four dependent variables and the independent variables. For the analysis of variance (ANOVAs) all post hoc tests were conducted using Tukey's honestly significant difference test.

4.8 Qualitative analysis

The purpose of the interviews was to qualify the quantitative data, that is, to investigate to what extent and in what ways students' responses to the semi-structured questions served to contribute to a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the constructs identified in the quantitative analyses.

This section describes the research methods employed in the interviews. A subsample of the learners who completed the questionnaire was selected for analysis of their responses to the semi-structured questions. Initially, approximately thirty sets of responses to the semi-structured questions from the upper grade levels (10th, 11th, and 12th) were chosen because they had longer responses. After a review of the overall content of the responses fifteen representative cases were selectively chosen for thorough content analysis. It is also important to point out that one of the fifteen students had a speech disability.

The selected sample used for this part of the analysis consisted of a selection of 15 students (8 females and 7 males) whose responses to the questions were rich. In the process steps were taken in order to get a representative sample of responses considering gender, grade level and proficiency level. Their proficiency level in English was indicated by the semester grade they had provided with the questionnaire and classified as high, medium or low. There was an equal distribution of five students from the 10th, 11th, and 12th grades. Table 8 provides a detailed description of the 15 participants.

To facilitate qualitative data presentation in chapter five, a coding system was devised in order to identify the student responses. The codes for females begin with an F followed by a number from 1-8. Similarly the codes for males begin with an M followed by a number from 1-7. This was followed with 10, 11, or 12 representing their grade level. In addition, the students with a high semester grade were assigned a lower case letter 'a', those who had medium achievement level were assigned the letter 'b', and those who had a low semester grade were assigned the letter 'c'.

Table 8 Qualitative analysis sample

Grade level		10th	11th	12th	Total
	Male	3	2	2	7
	Female	2	3	3	8
Total		**5**	**5**	**5**	**15**

Several steps were followed in analyzing the data. First, the responses were scanned to gain a general sense of the information and to reflect on its overall meaning. Next, relevant information and responses were coded according to content; during the coding process, responses were studied in search of constructs and significant patterns. It

was expected that the patterns identified would reinforce the constructs identified after running EFA.

4.9 Summary

In this chapter, I presented the manner in which the current research was carried out. The following aspects were discussed: the research questions, some key methodological issues and considerations that informed the research design of this investigation (pros and cons of qualitative vs. quantitative research), the research design, selection and description of the participants and the research sites, instruments that were used, data collection procedures, and approaches used to analyze the data.

The approach and research design was selected based on the lack of recent research in the field of language learning motivation in Palestine. This study contains a collection of various approaches and data analysis procedures carried out using recent trends in this field. This study, with its diverse approaches, also provides an interesting basis for future studies in Palestine.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

In this chapter the results of the analyses described in the previous chapter will be presented. The results chapter begins with section 5.1 explaining general descriptive results of responses to the questionnaire items. Results for the exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis measurement model and its development are illustrated in sections 5.2 and 5.3 respectively. Results concerning structural equation modeling are provided in section 5.4 followed by the MANOVA results in section 5.5. The final section in this chapter provides a description of the qualitative analysis of answers to the semi-structured questions.

5.1 Descriptive Results

A frequency analysis was conducted to get a general view of how student's responses were distributed among the different items of each section of the questionnaire. Means and standard deviations for each of the questionnaire items are indicated on the back-translated English version of the questionnaire in Appendix 3. Table 9 lists the fourteen most agreed with and the three least agreed with statements from parts one and two of the questionnaire. From table 9, it can be seen that the participants in this sample

of Palestinian EFL learners expressed strong agreement with statements that learning English is important, useful, and necessary. Item 33 (I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies) has the highest mean showing a strong desire to learn English for academic purposes. They also agreed strongly with statements expressing the desire to be able to speak and interact with speakers of the English language. Other statements show reasons for learning English which include career and academic orientations. Overall these items exhibit positive attitudes and a strong interest towards learning English.

Table 9 Most and least agreed with statements from the questionnaire

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation
Highest agreement (highest means)		
33. I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies.	4.45	1.074
23. I would like to be able to speak with English people.	4.28	1.341
19. I really want to learn English.	4.23	1.374
16. When I see something in English I try to understand it.	4.22	1.107
34. I want to learn English to have more job opportunities.	4.18	1.223
2. When I grow up, I want to know how to speak English.	4.16	1.286
36. I want to learn English to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English.	4.14	1.271
27. I want to learn English to be better trained for the future.	4.13	1.215
1. I like learning English.	4.09	1.358
29. I want to learn English to use computers and surf the net.	4.08	1.229
25. I am not interested in the English language.	4.03	1.452
22. I would like to travel and visit England or the USA.	4.03	1.597
24. I would like to meet people who speak English.	4.03	1.382
28. I want to learn English because I will need it in the job I would like to have.	4.01	1.315
Varied agreement (lowest means)		
38. I want to learn English to be able to sing and understand the songs that I like.	2.68	1.867
30. I want to learn English because I am interested in being able to interact with people from other countries.	2.58	1.748
14. I find it difficult to understand the English tapes that we listen to in class.	2.44	1.647

It is interesting to note that there are no items that have means lower than 2. For the three least agreed with items, responses are distributed quite evenly among the six levels of the response scale indicating that there is variability among students. Wanting to learn English in order to understand and sing songs and interact with people from other countries, for example, varies among the Palestinian students. The item with the lowest mean is concerned with students perceptions on their ability to understand the English tapes played in the class.

5.2 EFA and the identification of factors

Exploratory factor analysis was run in order to discover patterns among the values in the first dataset (n=649). The data from part one (motivation and attitudes) and part two (goal orientations) of the questionnaire were factor analyzed separately. Before beginning with the factor analyses, two statistical measures were carried out by SPSS to check if factor analysis was appropriate: Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin measure of sampling adequacy (Pallant, 2001). For the first part of the questionnaire, the value obtained for Bartlett's test was .000, which is considered significant ($p < .05$). The KMO measure was .928, with .6 suggested as the minimum value for a good factor analysis. As for part two of the questionnaire, the values for Bartlett's test and KMO were also appropriate (Bartlett's test .000, KMO .904). Accordingly, factor analysis can be run for both parts of the questionnaire.

A preliminary exploratory factor analysis was carried out in order to obtain initial measurements for the questionnaire items and the components they constitute. This preliminary analysis resulted in the realization that there were three items in part one (items 22, 23, and 24) that overlap in content and wording with items from part two

(items 26, 30, 36). Running the two parts of the questionnaire together in one analysis was first considered; however, this would create colinearity, thus the final decision was to delete the items in part one and run separate analyses for each part of the questionnaire.

The data from parts one (attitudes and motivation) and two (orientations) of the questionnaire were both analyzed using principal component analysis (SPSS 17) to extract underlying factors. Different criteria were considered to determine the number of factors to enter in the rotated factor solution (Kaiser's criterion, the scree plot, and the variance explained). Using Kaiser's criterion, also known as the eigenvalue rule, only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained for further investigation. The eigenvalue represents the total amount of variance explained by that factor. Kaiser's criterion has been criticized, however, as resulting in the retention of too many factors in some situations. Thus, another criterion was used, Catell's scree test (1966). The scree test involves plotting the eigenvalues for each of the factors and inspecting for a point at which the curve changes shape and becomes horizontal. Catell recommends keeping all the factors above the break in the curve, for these are the factors that contribute most in the explanation of the variance in the dataset. Finally the criteria that was deemed more important was that suggested by Garson (2009) consisting of keeping factors that had at least three high, interpretable loadings (higher than 0.5) which was necessary for confirmatory factor analysis.

5.2.1 Motivation and attitudes: Items 1-25

After running principal components analysis, the unrotated solution for part one resulted in four underlying factors with significant eigenvalues (above 1) explaining a total variance of 53.87%. However, after taking into consideration the number of items with loadings higher than 0.5, only two factors with at least three high interpretable

loadings were extracted. The initial seven factors were reduced to two factors explaining a total variance of 43% (see Table 10). The rotated component matrix using Varimax method revealed that each factor had a number of strong loadings. By focusing on the content of those items with loadings higher than 0.5, the four factors are interpreted and labeled in the next sections. Labeling the factors was partly based on similar labels and content of factors from the pilot study (Musleh, 2006), and previous studies (Cid et. al., 2009, Csizer and Dörnyei, 2005, and Tragant, Victori, and Thompson, 2009).

The items loading highest on the first factor assert high motivational strength, positive attitudes, and interest in learning English. In addition, most of these items are about how learning is experienced- as something fun, easy, and as a successful experience. Items 15 and 3 also show positive attitudes towards the learning environment including the teacher and activities done in class. Thus this factor was labeled *"Motivation and Enjoyment."* As for the reliability, the alpha level for the eleven items is .889.

Eleven items load on Factor 1:

6. In general, I find learning English fun.	.742
1. I like learning English.	.705
16. When I see something in English I try to understand it.	.686
19. I really want to learn English.	.683
11. I think English is a nice language.	.660
15. In the English lesson I pay close attention to the activities that the teacher tells us to do.	.651
9. In general, I do very well in English.	.643
13. I can notice that my level of English is improving.	.636
2. When I grow up, I want to know how to speak English.	.632
17. I would like to learn more languages apart from English.	.609

3. I like it when the teacher talks to us in English.   .591

Factor 2 is readily interpreted and labeled as "*Awareness for Need*", since the items express the need for English and its importance. The word "need" appears in practically each of the questionnaire items. English is necessary for things like finding a job and understanding movies. In addition, there is the need to understand things in their original version rather than the translated or dubbed versions. The alpha level for this factor is .731.

Factor two consists of six items:

7. I don't think you need to speak English because nowadays almost everything is translated or dubbed.	.684
10. I don't think I need English when I grow up.	.677
12. For me it's not important to speak another language other than Arabic.	.628
5. You don't need to speak English in order to find a job.	.580
18. I don't think that I will ever know enough English to understand movies.	.541
21. I study English only because it is an obligatory school subject.	.504

Hence, the two constructs identified for part one of the questionnaire are concerned with *Motivation and Enjoyment* as well as an *Awareness for Need* of the English language in Palestine.

Table 10 Factor analysis of items part one- 1-24: varimax rotated factor matrix, communalities h², variance, and eigenvalues

	Factor 1	Factor 2	h^2
6. In general, I find learning English fun.	.742		.594
1. I like learning English.	.705	.302	.636
16. When I see something in English I try to understand it.	.686		.580
19. I really want to learn English.	.683		.512
11. I think English is a nice language.	.660		.599
15. In the English lesson I pay close attention to the activities that the teacher tells us to do.	.651		.529
9. In general, I do very well in English.	.643		.579
13. I can notice that my level of English is improving.	.636		.461
2. When I grow up, I want to know how to speak English.	.632		.553
17. I would like to learn more languages apart from English.	.609		.608
3. I like it when the teacher talks to us in English.	.591		.543
4. In general, I find it easy to learn languages.	.478		.573
20. English is the sign of an educated person.	.470		.424
7. I don't think you need to speak English because nowadays almost everything is translated or dubbed.		.684	.329
10. I don't think I need English when I grow up.		.677	.576
12. For me it's not important to speak another language other than Arabic.	.330	.628	.601
8. I am not interested in learning English.	.465	.620	.557
5. You don't need to speak English in order to find a job.		.580	.562
18. I don't think that I will ever know enough English to understand movies.		.541	.592
21. I study English only because it is an obligatory school subject.	.352	.504	.572
25. I am not interested in the English language.	.452	.502	.499
14. I find it difficult to understand the English tapes that we listen to in class.		.402	.636
Eigenvalues	5.68	5.24	
Variance	27.17%	15.87%	
Cumulative Variance	27.17%	43.05%	

Factor 1 = Motivation and Enjoyment; Factor 2 = Awareness for Need

5.2.2 Orientations: Items 26-38

After running principal components analysis, the unrotated solution for part two resulted in four underlying factors with significant eigenvalues (above 1) explaining a total variance of 60.51%. However, after taking into consideration the number of items with loadings higher than 0.5, only two factors with at least three high interpretable loadings were extracted. The initial four factors were reduced to two explaining a total variance of 46.54% (see Table 11). The rotated component matrix using Varimax method revealed that each factor had a number of strong loadings. By focusing on the content of those items with loadings higher than 0.5, the four factors are interpreted and labeled in the following.

The items loading on factor 3 are all concerned with a strong instrumental orientation, thus labeled *"Instrumentality"*. The majority of items loading under this factor refer to instrumental motives rather than integrative or intrinsic ones such as learning English in order to get a job, study, use the computer, surf the net, and communicate with foreigners. In all these items there is a desire to learn the English language for achieving a purpose and not just for the sake of interest in the language. As can be seen below, the two items with the highest loadings refer to an academic/career orientation which in the Palestinian context is of great importance and necessity. The reliability level of this construct is significant at .865.

Eight questionnaire items load on Factor 3:

34. I want to learn English to have more job opportunities.	.777
33. I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies.	.755
35. I want to learn English to understand things written in English from everyday life like notices, advertisements, t-shirts, brand names, etc.	.719

27. I want to learn English to be better trained for the future.	.715
36. I want to learn English to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English.	.711
37. I want to learn English because English is a language that many people in the world speak and nowadays you must be able to speak it.	.674
28. I want to learn English because I will need it in the job I would like to have.	.643
29. I want to learn English to use computers and surf the net.	.580

The items loading on factor four deal with the desire to learn English for interactive reasons. Living abroad, travelling, and interacting with people from other countries, all show interest in the L2 culture/people. These items refer to the wish to interact with L2 speakers as well as the desire to travel abroad mainly to England or the USA. Items 38 and 32 show the desire to learn English in order to interact with aspects of the L2 culture such as songs and movies. Hence, the factor was labeled "*Interaction with L2 people/culture.*" The alpha level for this factor is .640.

30. I want to learn English because I am interested in being able to interact with people from other countries.	.717
32. I want to learn English so I can watch movies without translation in original version.	.675
38. I want to learn English to be able to sing and understand the songs that I like.	.669
26. I want to learn English to travel abroad for touristic reasons during vacations.	.589

Thus, the two constructs identified for part two of the questionnaire are concerned with reasons for learning the English language. In factor three these reasons are instrumental in nature with academic and career orientations as the highest loadings. Factor four, on the other hand, refers to interactive reasons for learning English.

Table 11 Factor analysis of part two- items 25-38: varimax rotated factor matrix, communalities h², variance, and eigenvalues

	Factor 3	Factor 4	h^2
34. I want to learn English to have more job opportunities.	.777		.594
33. I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies.	.755		.636
35. I want to learn English to understand things written in English from everyday life like notices, advertisements, t-shirts, brand names, etc.	.719		.580
27. I want to learn English to be better trained for the future.	.715		.512
36. I want to learn English to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English.	.711		.599
37. I want to learn English because English is a language that many people in the world speak and nowadays you must be able to speak it.	.674		.529
28. I want to learn English because I will need it in the job I would like to have.	.643		.579
29. I want to learn English to use computers and surf the net.	.580		.461
30. I want to learn English because I am interested in being able to interact with people from other countries.		.717	.553
32. I want to learn English so I can watch movies without translation in original version.		.675	.608
38. I want to learn English to be able to sing and understand the songs that I like.		.669	.543
26. I want to learn English to travel abroad for touristic reasons during vacations.		.589	.573
31. I want to learn English because I want to read books in English.	.475	.478	.424
Eigenvalues	5.68	5.24	
Variance	32.86%	17.25%	
Cumulative Variance	32.86%	50.11%	

Factor 3 = Instrumentality; Factor 4 = Interaction with L2 people/culture

5.2.3 Factor level of endorsement

Another analysis that was carried out after EFA considers the level of endorsement of each factor. We computed these by taking the average endorsement (minimum=0; maximum=5) for those items shown to load on each factor (Gorsuch, 1983). We included items that cross loaded onto two factors in the index of the factor that they defined most highly. The results show a relatively strong endorsement of the first three factors with factor three as the highest. *"Instrumentality"* (M=4.11), *"Motivation and Enjoyment"* (M=3.78), and *"Awareness for Need"* (M=3.6) are endorsed strongly, while "*Interaction with L2 people/culture*" (M=2.93) has the lowest level of endorsement than the rest. These results can be observed graphically in figure 8. They reflect similar observations to those made earlier in the descriptive measures of the individual questionnaire items. According to these results, students are motivated to learn English but, the more important reasons for learning the English language are instrumental in nature.

Figure 8 Graph showing level of endorsement of the four factors (scale 0-5)
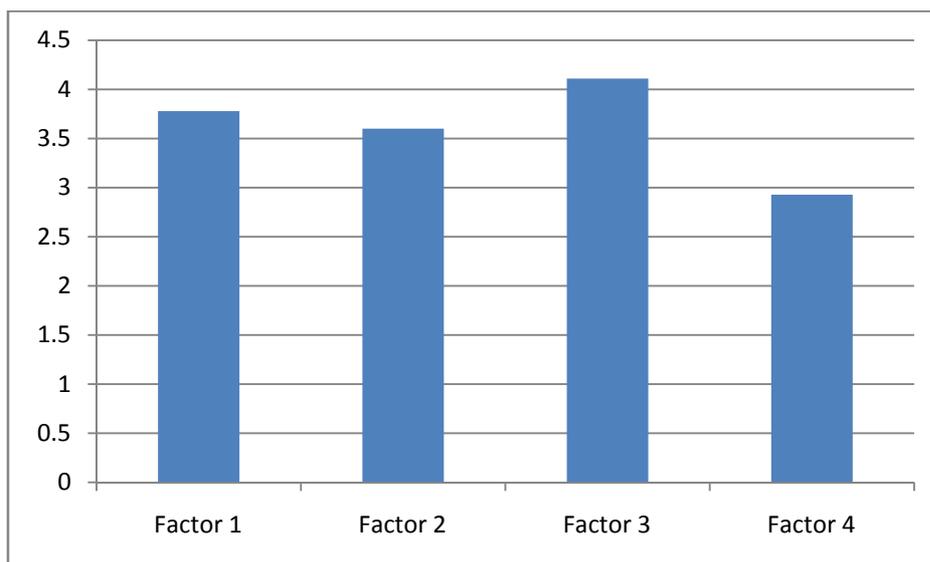
Factor 1= Motivation and Enjoyment; Factor 2= Instrumentality; Factor 3= Awareness for Need; Factor 4= Interaction with L2 People/Culture

5.3. Confirmatory factor analysis measurement model and its development

The initial measurement model, a four-factor CFA model is presented in Figure 9 below. The hypothetical relationships proposed in the initial model were drawn up in accordance with the earlier factor analytical results using the first dataset. The objective of the first run was to confirm the latent factors and their indicators. The factors in the initial CFA include *Motivation and Enjoyment, Instrumentality, Awareness for Need, and Interaction with L2 people/culture*.

The proposed hypothetical relationships in the initial model (Figure 9) have been based on theoretical considerations similar to those of Csizer and Dörnyei (2005), Tragant et al. (2009), and earlier analyses of the data (EFA). In the figure, observed variables are represented using small squares which are labeled with q*n*, while latent variables are shown as circular. The observed variables in the model correspond to the questionnaire items determining each of the latent factors, which were initially interpreted and labeled as a result of the earlier EFA. CFA was run in order to represent these constructs graphically and confirm the proposed relationship between the latent constructs and their indicators (questionnaire items).

In order to gain a testable, identified model, the scale of measurement for the factors (latent variables) was set by designating one manifest variable for each latent variable as a "reference variable." Factor loading of the reference variable was fixed to be 1. In the meantime, the variance of the latent variable was set to be a free parameter to be estimated from the data. In this model, q9, q7, q28 and q30 were set as reference variables for their respective factors.
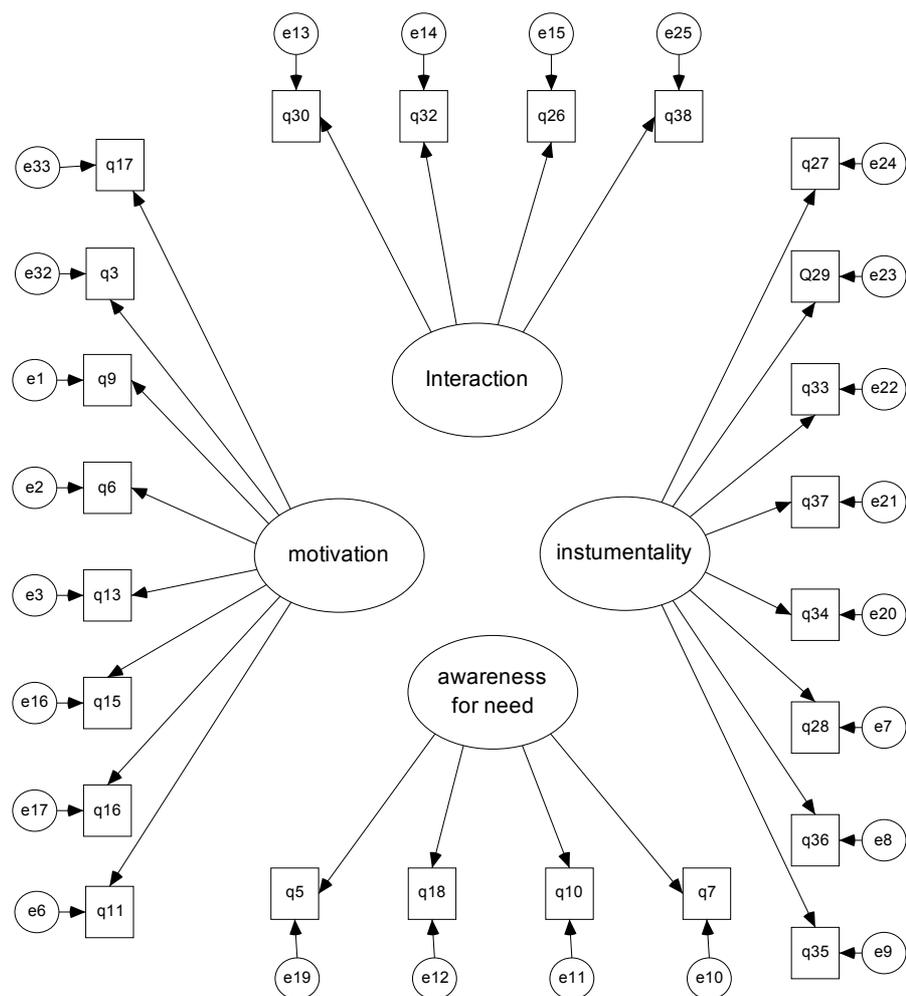
Motivation

    q3: like it when the teacher talks to us in English.

    q6: find learning English fun.

    q9: do very well in English.

    q11: English is a nice language.

    q13: my level of English is improving.

    q15: In the English lesson I pay close attention to the activities

    q16: try to understand things in English.

    q17: like to learn more languages apart from English.

Awareness for Need

    q5: need to speak English in order to find a job.*

    q7: you need to speak English *

    q10: I need English when I grow up.*

    q18: I will know enough English to understand movies.*

*Originally worded negatively but reversed prior to analysis

Instrumentality

    q27: to be better trained for the future.

    q28: need it in the job I would like to have.

    q29: to use computers and surf the net.

    q33: I will need it in university studies.

    q34: to have more job opportunities.

    q35: to understand daily things written in English

    q36: to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English.

    q37: global language that you must be able to speak

Interaction

    q26: to travel abroad

    q30: to interact with people from other countries.

    q32: to watch movies

    q38: to sing and understand the songs that I like.

all parameters were statistically significant at the $\alpha=.05$ level

Figure 9 CFA structural model

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The model was tested based on the correlation matrix where all variable values were standardized. The maximum likelihood (ML) method was employed to estimate the model fitting of the first dataset (n_1 = 649) and then further validated with the second dataset (n_2=551). Table 12 summarizes some important model fit indices ($p < .001$, df= 246). Both absolute fit indices and incremental fit indices were included. Absolute fit indices directly assess the discrepancy between the model and the data, while incremental fit indices are relative indices, which make comparisons between a proposed model and a null model. The absolute fit indices selected were Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). RMSEA has been regarded as one of the most informative criteria in covariate structure modeling, because it takes into account the error of approximation in the population (Byrne, 1998), and provides confidence intervals. RMSEA has also been found to be reasonably effective in detecting misspecified models and takes into account model parsimony (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Normally, RMSEA > = 0.10 is considered as an unacceptable model fit; RMSEA > = 0.08 is considered as mediocre model fit; RMSEA < = 0.08 is considered as acceptable model fit; and RMSEA < = 0.05 is considered as a good model fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1992; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). SRMR represents the average value across all standardized residuals, and its value ranges from 0 to 1. Hu and Bentler (1998) recommended that values of .08 or lower are regarded as good model fit. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) to gain information about the model-data fit. It has been suggested in the literature that in the case of the CFI, any values above .95 on the 0 to 1.0 scale are acceptable (see Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999;Hu&Bentler, 1999). Because it is useful to consult more than one index when deciding on the model fit, four further indexes will also be reported: (a) the Bentler-Bonett normed fit index (NFI); (b) the Tucker-Lewis coefficient (TLI; also known as the

Bentler-Bonett nonnormed fit index [NNFI])—in both cases, values close to 1 indicate a very good fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980); and (c) the Parsimony-Adjusted Comparative Fit Index (PCFI) that takes into account the degrees of freedom available for testing the model.

Table 12 Model fit indices- Datasets one and two

	Dataset One	Dataset Two
chi-square/df ratio	3.34	2.82
CFI	.889	.904
NFI	.850	.860
NNFI	.876	.893
GFI	.903	.902
PCFI	.792	.806
RMSEA	.060	.058
SRMR	.052	.053

According to CFA results for the first dataset, RMSEA = 0.060, which was < 0.08. With a 90% confidence interval, the model fit is between 0.056 and 0.065, which is slightly lower than the acceptable level of good model fit. In addition, SRMR = 0.052. These two absolute fit indices arrived at good results of model fit. Furthermore, it was observed that the incremental fit indices reached good fit as well, for example, CFI = 0.889 and GFI = 0.903.

Figure 10 graphically demonstrates the standardized coefficients of the examined variables (chi-square =821.17, df =246, *p*-value < .001, RMSEA = 0.085). All of the estimates for paths between the observed variables and factors were all significant, demonstrating that the factors were well represented by their respective manifest variables. The unique variance estimates showed that some of the indicators had high

unique variances, e.g., q37(0.93), q35 (0.84), q36(0.82), q27(.77), and q16(0.74).

Correlations among the latent constructs are shown in table 13.

Table 13 Correlations among the latent factors- dataset one and two

			Estimate dataset 1	Estimate dataset 2
Instrumentality	<-->	Interaction	.60	.77
Instrumentality	<-->	Awareness for Need	.53	.41
Motivation and Enjoyment	<-->	Awareness for Need	.50	.43
Motivation and Enjoyment	<-->	Interaction	.49	.54
Motivation and Enjoyment	<-->	Instrumentality	.72	.71
Interaction	<-->	Awareness for Need	.25	.32

Next, results were cross-validated using the second dataset to further test the proposed model. Figure 11 exhibits the standardized coefficients of the tested variables (chi-square =693.98, df =246, *p*-value < .001, RMSEA = 0.086). Again, all of the estimates for paths between the observed variables and factors were significant, demonstrating that the factors were well represented by their respective questionnaire items. The unique variance estimates showed that some of the indicators had high unique variances, e.g., q6(0.96), q16(0.95), q35(0.95), q27(0.86), q33(0.85), q36(0.85), and q34 (0.84). Again, fit indices, similar to those calculated for the first dataset, were slightly lower than the level of good model fit. Correlations among the latent factors are provided in table 12.
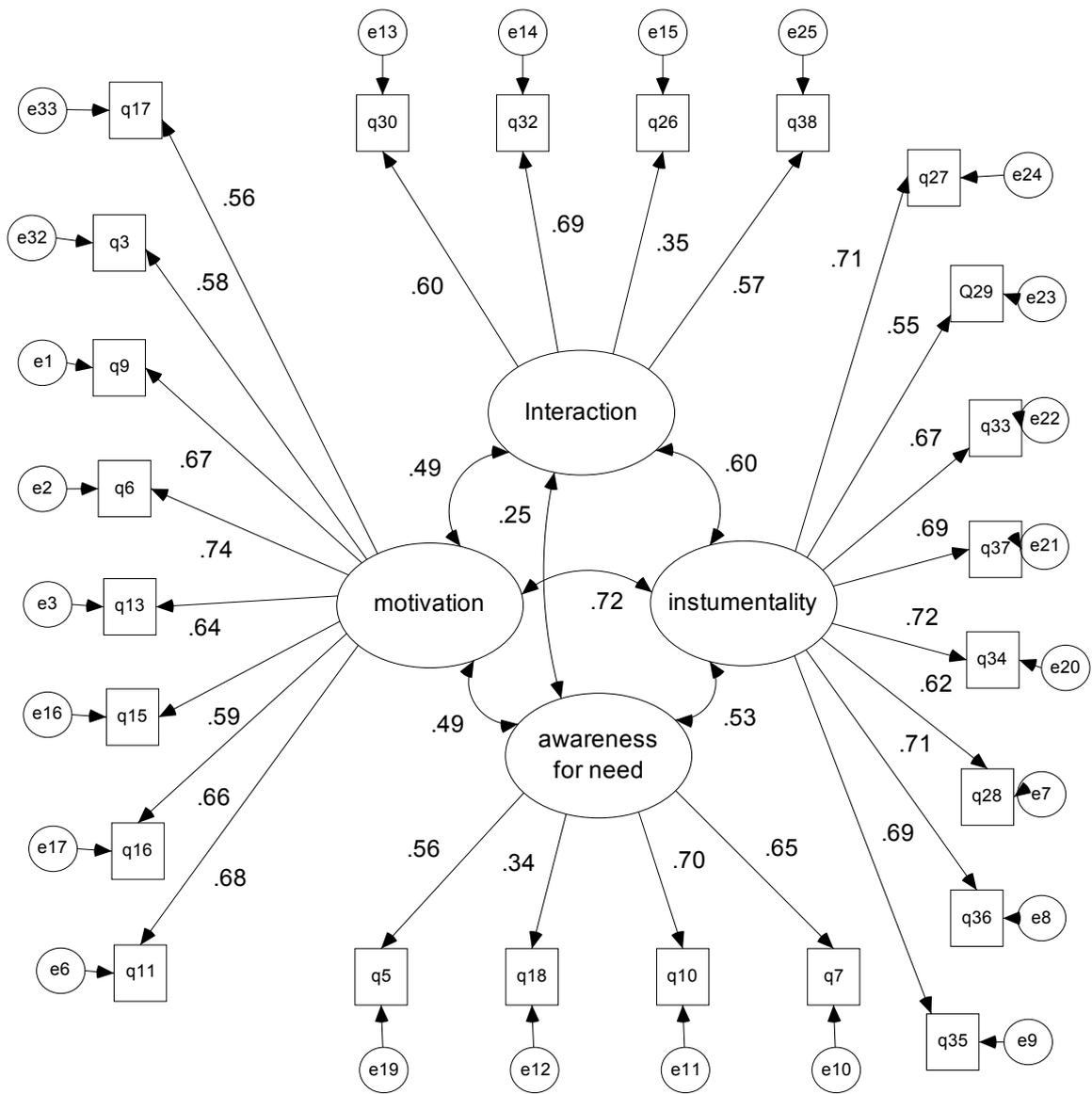
Initial Model
RMSEA = .060; CFI = .889; GFI = .903

Figure 10 The initially tested CFA model- Results for the first dataset

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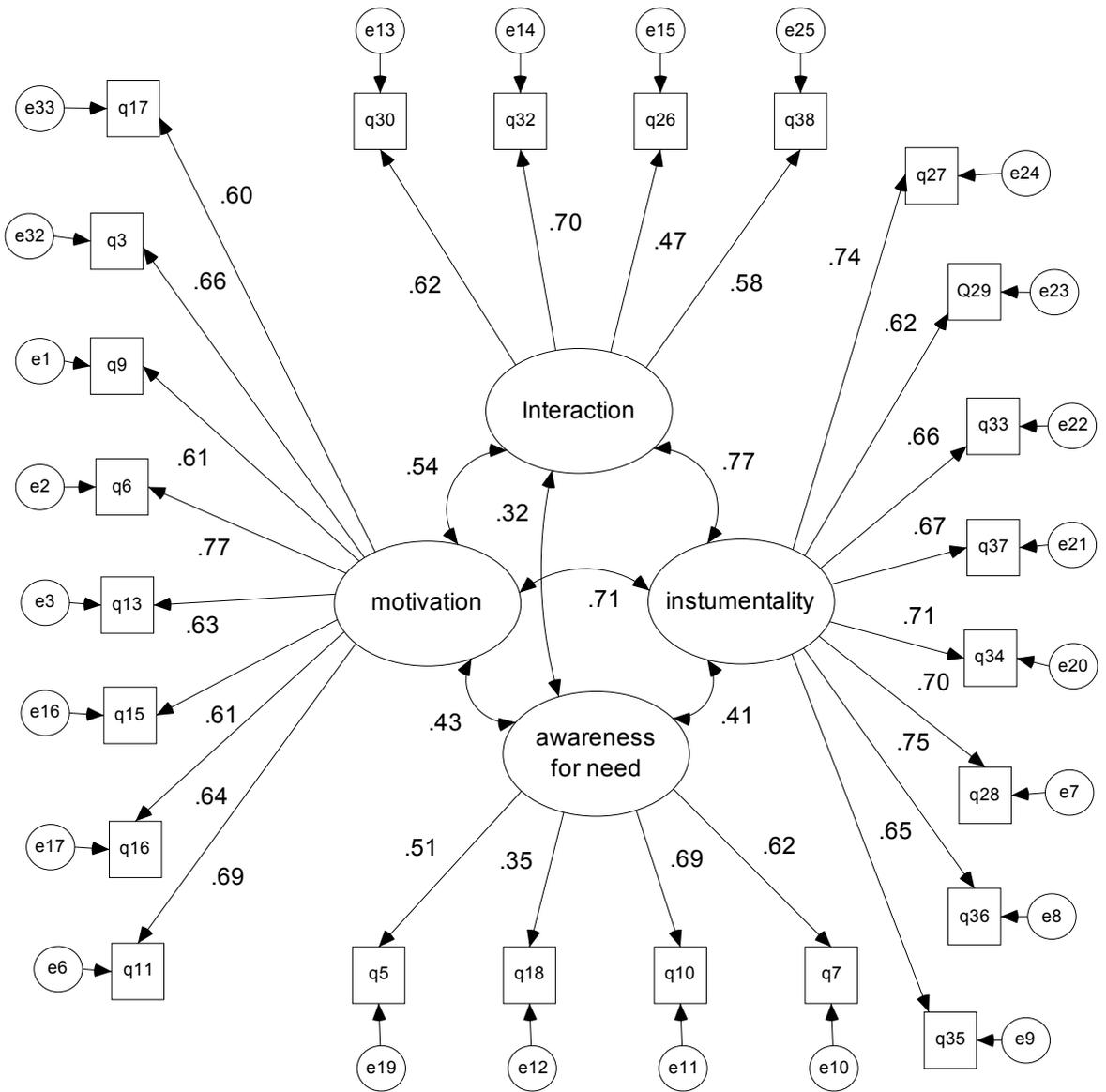
Initial Model
RMSEA = .058; CFI = .904; GFI = .902

Figure 11 The initially tested CFA model- Results for the second dataset

5.3.1 Building a complete model

The CFA structural model was good with respect to fit as indicated by the absolute fit indices. Building on theoretical considerations, additional paths indicating correlations between the latent factors and achievement were added. The links proposed in this model are based on the relationships between factors proposed by Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) and Tragant et al. (2009). First, all the factors were hypothesized to be directly linked to the *Motivation* component. The fact that *Instrumentality* is directly linked to *Motivation* is obvious because this concept has been greatly examined in this field. Although in this model Integrativeness is not a factor, according to the Canadian social psychological approach, the factor labeled *Interaction* can be considered a forerunner of Integrativeness, thus directly linked to Motivation. In the Palestinian context learning a second language, particularly English is vital and necessary for academic and professional success; thus it is hypothesized that there is a direct link between *Awareness for Need* and *Motivation*. The relationship between *Instrumentality* and *Interaction* was hypothesized in accordance with Gardner's argument that integrativeness and instrumentality are not mutually exclusive, but often occur together. Furthermore, the desire to interact with L2 speakers and their culture in a foreign language learning context can be considered a desire to communicate using English as a universal and global language not necessarily for integrative purposes but rather as an instrumental orientation.

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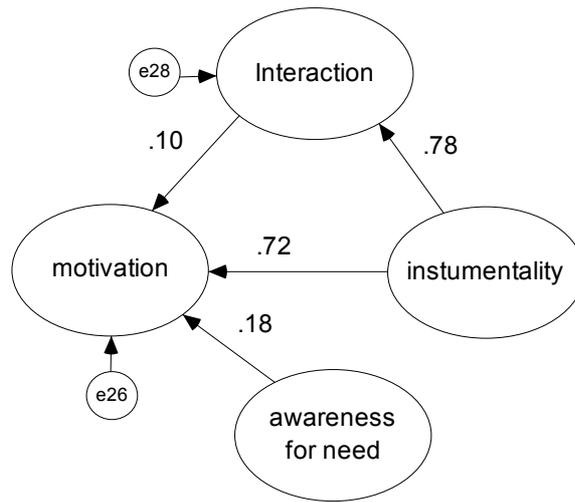
RMSEA = .065; CFI = .867; GFI = .894

Figure 12 Revised model with correlations between latent constructs

After this revised model had been submitted to evaluation using maximum-likelihood estimation using dataset one, it was found that the hypothetical model provided acceptable model-data fit indexes as shown in figure 12 above (e.g., RMSEA= .065, CFI= .867); the hypothesized relationships among the four latent factors were significant. However, the weakest correlation was that between *Interaction* and *Motivation* and was therefore deleted. In order to further improve model fit, modification indices provided by AMOS were considered. Accordingly, an additional path was added between *Awareness for Need* and *Instrumentality* (shown in figure 13 below). With this modification, model fit indices increased to an acceptable good fit to the data used (e.g., RMSEA=.060; CFI=.888; GFI=.902). When cross-validated with dataset two, model fit results for the proposed model were also found to be good (e.g., RMSEA=.057; CFI=.905; GFI=.902).
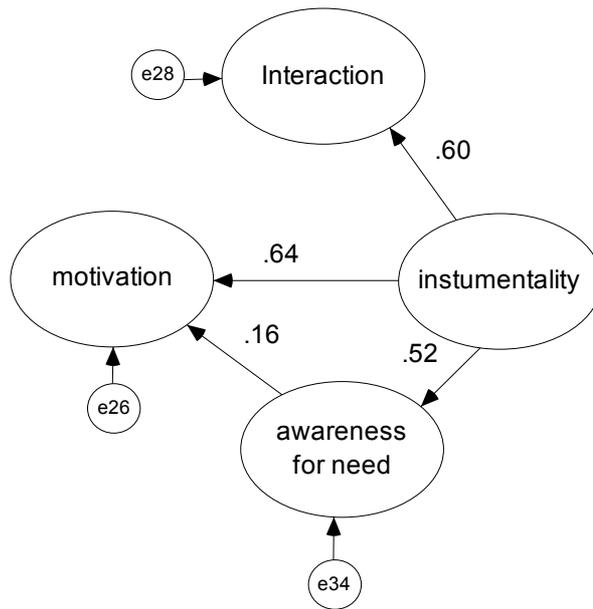
RMSEA = .060; CFI = .888; GFI = .902

Figure 13 Revised model- dataset one
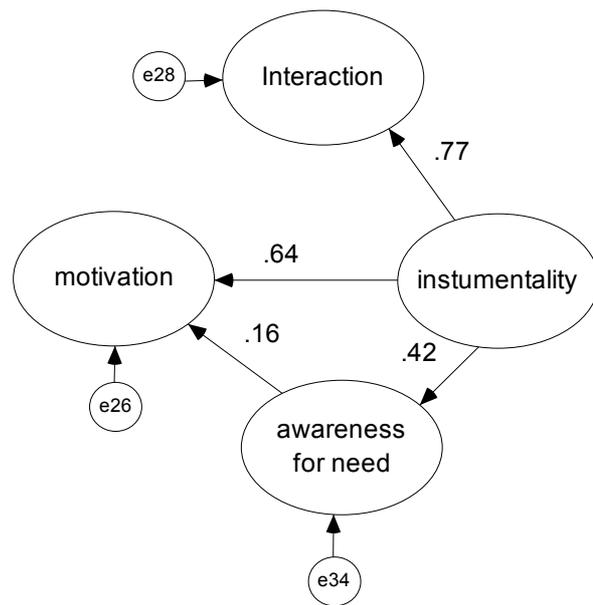
RMSEA = .057; CFI = .905; GFI = .902

Figure 14 Revised model- dataset two

5.4 Structural equation modeling analysis

Based on the complete CFA model, the structural equation model was specified including the *Achievement* variable. Altogether, there are two exogenous latent variables in this hypothesized base model (see Figure 15 below): *Interaction* and *Achievement* . There are three endogenous latent variables: *Motivation, Awareness for Need*, and *Instrumentality*. All of the latent variables were discussed in the above model analysis except for *Achievement*. *Achievement* refers to the latent variable of English achievement, composed of one manifest variable: *grade,* which is composed of the students' English semester grades. The specification between other latent variables and manifest variables remained the same as the revised model in the previous section.
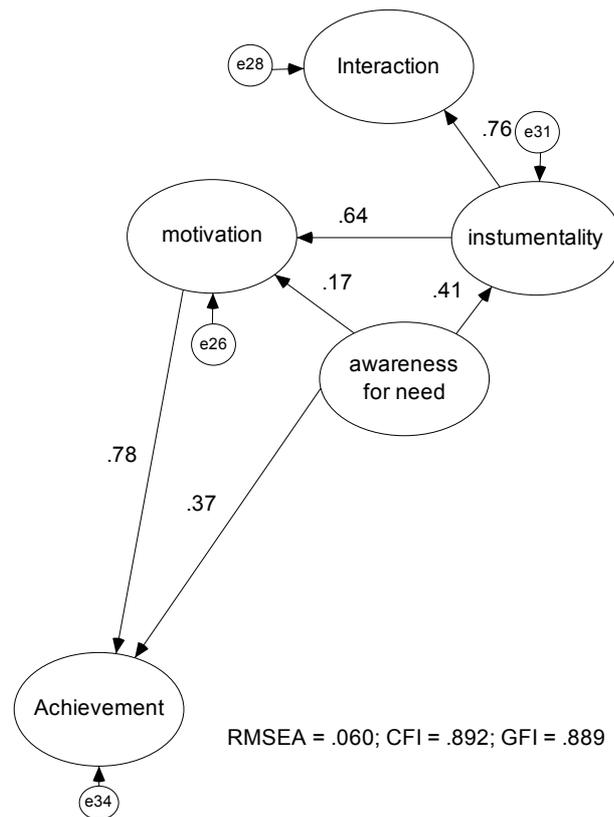
Figure 15 Schematic representation of the initial SEM model with the standardized estimates

Figure 15 contains the schematic representation of the initial SEM model with the standardized estimates. Goodness of fit measures indicated an acceptable fit, however after examining the modification indices, two additional correlations were added to the model: *Awareness for Need → Achievement* and q9 (*In general, I do very well in English*)→ *grade.* These additional correlations are reasonable considering the Palestinian context and the role English plays in Palestine. First, the correlation between *Awareness for Need* and *Achievement* is proposed because many students in Palestine may not be motivated to learn the English language but have high achievement due to the vital role it plays in their future. The second correlation between q9 (*In general, I do very well in English*) and *grade* indicates a relationship between a self-confidence component (represented by q9) which is proven to increase motivation to learn English and hence increase achievement.

The revised SEM model, shown in figure 16, was tested using dataset two and results indicated an increase in fit thus confirming the proposed hypothetical correlations among the constructs identified and their relationship with English proficiency. Table 14 presents various goodness of fit measures for the final SEM model.

Table 14 Selected fit measures for the final model

Chi- square/*df* ratio	2.72
CFI	.906
RMSEA	.056
SRMR	.053

Note. CFI= Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR= Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
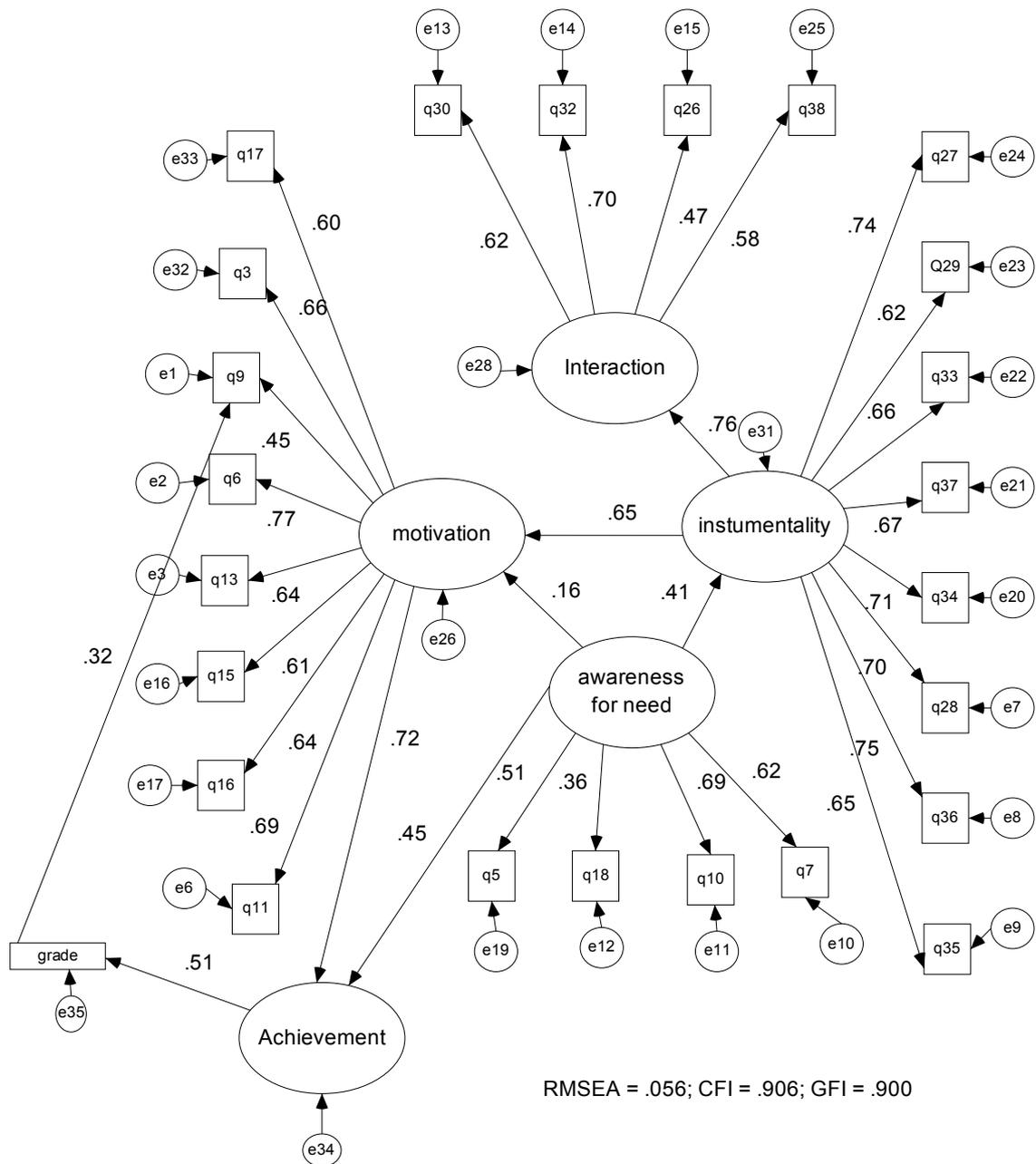
Figure 16 Final SEM model showing five latent constructs and their manifest variables

As can be seen in Table 14, the chi-square/*df* ratio is above the usually recommended value of 1-2 (Arbuckle, 2007); however as pointed out earlier, it is extremely difficult to get an acceptable level of this index if the sample size is large; therefore more focus was placed on other fit indexes. These indexes all indicate very good fit; thus we can conclude that the final model in Figures 16 and 17 provides an

adequate representation of the data. However, as Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) mentioned, this initial model is only one of the possible models to explain the data. "The most we can say is that a proposed model seems to describe adequately the data under investigation" (ibid).
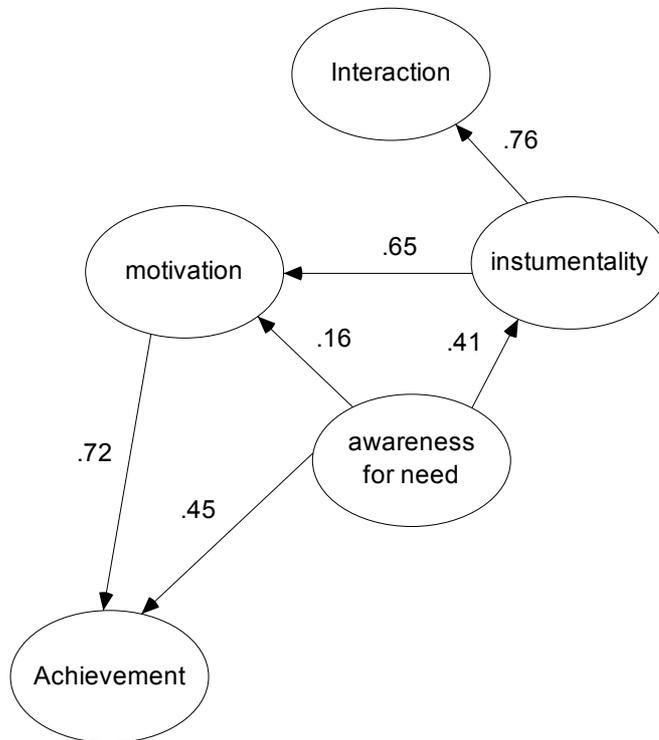
Figure 17 The schematic representation of the final model with standardized estimates between the latent variables.

5.5 MANOVA- investigation of the relationships between external variables and factors

In this section, I will present the results pertaining to further analyses investigating the relationships of several external variables to the four factors identified. A MANOVA test was performed to further understand the differences in the examined constructs: *Motivation and Enjoyment, Instrumentality, Awareness for Need, and Interaction with L2 people/culture*. These constructs were used as dependent variables, while gender, age, mother/father level of education, type of school and district were used as independent variables. First there will be a brief description of the distribution of parents' academic level in accordance with the other variables (section 5.5.1). Then, in section 5.5.2, before presenting the actual MANOVA analysis, there will be a brief explanation of the tests run to check whether the data conforms to the various MANOVA assumptions. Finally, the MANOVA results are provided in section 5.5.3 and followed by separate univariate ANOVAs for each of the dependent variables (section 5.5.4).

5.5.1 Distribution of mother/father's level of education

Before examining the relationships among the father and mother's level of education and the other variables, a brief introduction to the general distribution and percentages of the data distribution is necessary. The sample used for this analysis consists of dataset one (n=649). Taking a look at table 15 we can observe the general distribution of mothers and fathers according to the academic level from the sample.

There are four levels of education: primary, secondary, Tawjihi, and university level. By taking a general look at the whole sample, we can see that the percentage of fathers and mothers at each of the academic levels are quite similar expect for primary

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education. It is also surprising to see that the percentage of fathers at the primary level is higher than that of the mothers; a similar observation to the one made in the pilot study, which only consisted of a sample from the Jerusalem district.

Table 15 General distribution of mothers and fathers according to academic level- dataset 1

		Primary	Secondary	Tawjihi	University	TOTAL
Mother	n	92	142	198	217	649
	Percentage	14%	22%	31%	33%	100%
Father	n	167	125	153	204	649
	Percentage	26%	19%	24%	31%	100%

Thus, it is also important to observe the difference in the distribution of mother and father academic levels when looking at different districts. Tables 16 and 17 show the distribution of parents according to academic level from the four districts presented in this study.

Table 16 Mother academic level x district

			District				Total
			Jerusalem	Nablus	Bethlehem	Salfeet	
mother academic level	**primary**	n	6	43	14	29	92
		% within district	2.0%	19.8%	21.5%	43.9%	14.2%
	secondary	n	37	70	14	21	142
		% within district	12.3%	32.3%	21.5%	31.8%	21.9%
	tawjihi	n	109	60	16	13	198
		% within district	36.2%	27.6%	24.6%	19.7%	30.5%
	university	n	149	44	21	3	217
		% within district	49.5%	20.3%	32.3%	4.5%	33.4%
Total		n	301	217	65	66	649
		% within district	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

When comparing mothers to fathers, we see that in Jerusalem, there are only 6 mothers with only primary education and 149 mothers with university education. As in the case of the fathers, however, we see that there are 92 fathers with only primary education which is significantly higher than the number of mothers. It is also worth pointing out that in Salfeet, a smaller and more village-like area, the numbers at the primary level for both the mothers and fathers is similar, but the difference here is at the university level in which there are more fathers.

Table 17 Father academic level x district

			District				Total
			Jerusalem	Nablus	Bethlehem	Salfeet	Total
father academic level	primary	n	92	45	7	23	167
		% within district	30.6%	20.7%	10.8%	34.8%	25.7%
	secondary	n	51	45	15	14	125
		% within district	16.9%	20.7%	23.1%	21.2%	19.3%
	tawjihi	n	55	70	19	9	153
		% within district	18.3%	32.3%	29.2%	13.6%	23.6%
	university	n	103	57	24	20	204
		% within district	34.2%	26.3%	36.9%	30.3%	31.4%
Total		n	301	217	65	66	649
		% within district	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Another important observation is the distribution of mothers and fathers according to the type of school. When comparing mothers to fathers, we see that at the university level, in general the percentages of mothers and fathers are very close, 33.4% and 31.4% respectively. However, when examining the percentages according to type of school we do detect a difference. It is interesting to see that at private schools there is a great difference among mothers and fathers at the primary level of education with 38.4% of fathers and only.4% of mothers. The mothers, on the other hand, represent a higher

percentage at the university level (53.8%). Tables 18 and 19 show the distribution of parents according to level of education and type of school.

Table 18 Type of school x mother academic level

			mother academic level				
			primary	secondary	tawjihi	university	Total
type of school	public	n	91	119	105	81	396
		% within type of school	23.0%	30.1%	26.5%	20.5%	100%
	private	n	1	23	93	136	253
		% within type of school	.4%	9.1%	36.8%	53.8%	100%
Total		n	92	142	198	217	649
		% within type of school	14.2%	21.9%	30.5%	33.4%	100%

Table 19 Type of school x father academic level

			father academic level				
			primary	secondary	tawjihi	university	Total
type of school	public	n	79	88	113	116	396
		% within type of school	19.9%	22.2%	28.5%	29.3%	100%
	private	n	88	37	40	88	253
		% within type of school	34.8%	14.6%	15.8%	34.8%	100%
Total		n	167	125	153	204	649
		% within type of school	25.7%	19.3%	23.6%	31.4%	100%

After examining the relationships among the father and mother's level of education and the other variables, it can be seen that there are interesting findings that are expected to have significant impact on the motivational constructs investigated. Differences are found among mothers and fathers concerning academic level and district

as well as type of school. Such factors and differences are further assumed to determine socio-economic levels as well as attitudes and orientations in foreign language learning.

5.5.2 MANOVA Assumptions

Before proceeding with the main MANOVA analysis the data was tested to check if it conforms to the MANOVA assumptions mentioned previously in section 4.8 even though some of the tests are not strictly necessary since the sample size is large. Having a larger sample can also help with getting away with violations of other assumptions (e.g. normality). Significance tests of MANOVA are based on the multivariate normal distribution; nonetheless, it is usually robust to violations of normality except those due to outliers (Pallant, 2001). In the next sections, the tests run included the assessment of normality and outliers (univariate and multivariate), multicollinearity and singularity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. The final assumption is generated as part of the MANOVA analysis.

Normality and outliers

Screening continuous variables for normality is regarded as an important data screening process (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The factors were examined for skewness, a measure of distribution symmetry, and kurtosis, a measure of whether the distribution is peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution. Most of the items were normally distributed with skewness and kurtosis values close to zero. No extreme nonnormal distribution was found. Skewness and kurtosis for the four dependent variables are reported here: *Motivation and Enjoyment* (skewness = -.928; kurtosis = .822), *Instrumentality* (skewness = -.573; kurtosis = .118), *Awareness for Need* (skewness = -.916; kurtosis = 1.605), and *Interaction with L2 culture/people* (skewness = -.619; kurtosis = .279). Awareness for Need was the only variable with kurtosis above the

absolute value of 1. An examination of the histogram of these variables showed that all these variables were slightly negatively skewed, which means there was a pileup of cases to the right for those variables.

Although data transformation was considered as an option to remedy nonnormality, the data remain not transformed for the following reasons. First, data transformation increases the difficulty of interpretation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Second, according to Waternaux (1976) (cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), underestimation of variance disappears with samples of 100 or more cases for positive kurtosis, and with samples of over 200 with negative kurtosis. In the present study, the sample size was over 550 cases. Third, all of the variables were considered as important aspects that would influence the students' English performance. Fourth, West, Finch, and Curran (1995) suggested that as long as the distribution of the measured variables is not severely non-normal (i.e., skew> 2, kurtosis >7), model evaluation methods (e.g., maximum likelihood) will function reasonably well.

SPSS also provides a table labeled Tests of Normality which gives the result for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic. A non-significant result indicates normality. The Kolmogrov-Smirnov statistic for all four variables was well over the significant value of .000, thus violating the assumption for normality. However, this is expected of large samples.

In addition to these various statistics the output also contains a variety of graphs to examine normality. The first is the histogram. Histograms for all four variables exhibited a bell-shaped curve. Other graphs such as Normal Q-Q plots, Detrended Q-Q plots, and boxplots also showed reasonable normality for all four dependent variables.

When examining for normality, SPSS also provides statistics on any extreme values in the data called outliers. An outlier is a case with an extreme value on one

variable (univariate outlier) or a strange combination of values on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) that distorts statistics (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Among continuous variables, univariate outliers are detected with standardized scores larger than the absolute value of 3.29 ($p < .05$, two-tailed test). All factor values were transformed into z-scores. Twelve cases had factor values with z-scores slightly over 3.29. Specifically, they were 3 cases on *Motivation and Enjoyment* (z =-3.89, -3.79, -3.35), four cases on *Awareness for Need* (z = -3.99, -3.74, -3.42, -3.39), three cases on *Instrumentality* (z = 3.46, -3.31, -3.31), and two cases on *Interaction with L2 people/culture* (z = -3.88, -3.51) that exceeded this value. Since the number of cases with values exceeding 3.29 was minimal there was no concern for a large decrease in the sample size after deletion. Hence, it was decided to omit these twelve cases from the MANOVA analysis.

The 649 cases were screened for multivariate outliers by calculating the Mahalanobis distances using SPSS Regression menu. Multivariate outliers were detected using Mahalanobis distance at $p < .05$. Mahalanobis distance is evaluated as chi-square with degrees of freedom equal to the number of dependant variables; in this case, 4. By consulting the chi-square table, any case with a Mahalanobis distance greater than 18.47 is a multivariate outlier. The table provided in the regression output provided the maximum value of 17.24 for Mahalanobis distance among the cases. This implies that there are no substantial multivariate outliers in the sample and that the data does not violate this assumption.

Multicollinearity and singularity

MANOVA assumes and works best when the dependent variable, in this case the four factors identified are only moderately correlated. When the variables are highly

correlated it is referred to as multicollinearity. This can occur when one of the variables is a combination of other variables, known as singularity. Multicollinearity can be checked by simply running a correlation. Correlations above .8 or .9 are reason for concern. However, in our case, correlations have already been investigated while constructing the SEM model. Correlations were moderate ranging from .16 to .76, thus conforming to this assumption.

Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices

The test used to assess the assumption is Box's M Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. The Sig. values produced in the output were larger than .001 (shown in Appendix 11). Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) (as cited in Pallant, 2001) warn that Box's M can tend to be too strict when you have large sample size. The next test observed was Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance. All the variables had significant values at .000 (p<.001). This assumption was also violated.

5.5.3 MANOVA analysis

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the impact of various external variables on motivation and attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language. Four dependent variables were used: *Motivation and Enjoyment, Awareness for Need, Instrumentality,* and *Interaction with L2 people/culture*. The independent variables were grade level, gender, type of school, district, and parents' academic levels. Significant results are provided and clarified in table 20. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, univariate and multivariate outliers, multicollinearity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance

matrices. No serious violations were noted except concerning the final assumption. Nonetheless, any violations to the MANOVA are counterbalanced by the large size of the sample.

To check if there are any significant differences among the groups a series of multivariate significance tests are generated. The Wilks' lambda statistic is recommend for general use, however in cases where the data has problems and there are violations to assumptions, the Pilia's trace is more robust with the alpha level set at .05 (Pallant, 2001). Due to the numerous relationships to be examined, for the analyses to follow, the type I error was set at a more stringent level at p>.001 unless otherwise stated.

Table 20 Significant results for the independent variables on the four combined dependent variables

Independent Variables	F	$\eta p.^{2}$	Pilai's trace
District	3.53	.034	.103
gender x grade level	4.44	.043	.129
mother x father's level of education	2.15	.047	.187
mother's academic level x father's academic level x grade level	1.92	.10	.401

Note: p< .001

A statistically significant effect was found concerning district as well as three significant interactions among gender x grade level, mother x father's level of education, and mother's academic level x father's academic level x age on the combined dependent variables. Further description of differences between the groups for each significant relatiuonship is provided in the following section.

5.5.4 Univariate ANOVA analyses

The multivariate analysis was followed with univariate analyses for each of the four dependent variables (the motivational constructs). For the analysis of variance

(ANOVAs) all post hoc tests were conducted using Tukey's honestly significant difference test. ANOVA results are presented in table 21. Similar to what was noted in the MANOVA above, at the univariate level, among the four dependent variables significant differences were found in *Motivation and Enjoyment* and *Interaction with L2 people/culture.* An additional effect, however, was found in *Instrumentality*. As indicated in table 21, no significant effects or interactions were observed in *Awareness for Need*.

Table 21 Univariate ANOVA summary results for *Motivation, Need, Instrumentality,* and *Interaction*

	Motivation and Enjoyment		Awareness for Need		Instrumentality		Interaction with L2 culture/people	
	F	$\eta p.^2$	F	$\eta p.^2$	F	$\eta p.^2$	F	$\eta p.^2$
level	1.08	.016	1.61	.024	2.46	.036	1.20	.018
gender	2.79	.007	.982	.002	.444	.001	.006	.000
type of school	7.95	.020	.373	.001	.852	.002	.041	.000
district	**6.65***	.048	3.72	.027	2.46	.018	3.06	.023
mother	.587	.004	3.72	.027	.156	.001	1.08	.008
father	1.98	.015	4.01	.029	.343	.003	1.21	.009
level x gender	6.01	.044	4.18	.031	2.03	.015	**6.14***	.044
level x type of school	.561	.001	.138	.000	1.84	.005	4.86	.012
level x district	.598	.003	.506	.003	2.53	.013	.667	.003
level x mother	1.14	.044	2.35	.087	1.35	.052	1.59	.060
level x father	1.55	.062	1.06	.044	.781	.032	1.55	.062
gender x type of school	.448	.001	.483	.001	1.31	.003	3.60	.009
gender x district	.638	.002	3.07	.008	.949	.002	.362	.001
gender x mother	1.24	.009	1.05	.008	.032	.000	1.96	.015
gender x father	.500	.004	1.03	.008	2.03	.015	1.10	.008
type of school x district	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
type of school x mother	.165	.001	.608	.003	2.17	.011	1.02	.005
type of school x father	.895	.004	.606	.003	**8.05***	.039	2.31	.012
district x mother	.527	.012	.684	.015	1.94	.042	3.01	.064
district x father	2.03	.044	.991	.022	1.94	.042	.589	.013
mother x father	2.95	.063	1.64	.036	.784	.018	**3.13***	.066
level x gender x type of school	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
level x gender x district	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
level x gender x mother	.049	.000	.517	.005	1.78	.018	1.55	.015
level x gender x father	1.40	.011	.474	.004	1.55	.012	4.12	.030
level x type of school x district	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
level x type of school x mother	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
level x type of school x father	1.88	.005	.301	.001	4.59	.011	2.10	.005
level x district x mother	2.99	.015	2.63	.013	1.53	.008	2.20	.011
level x district x father	4.01	.010	.025	.000	2.40	.006	.052	.000
level x mother x father	2.06	.107	1.72	.091	2.11	.109	1.58	.084
gender x type of school x district	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
gender x type of school x mother	.113	.000	.073	.000	.491	.001	4.40	.011
gender x type of school x father	.518	.001	.132	.000	.063	.000	1.40	.004
gender x district x mother	.170	.000	.011	.000	.293	.001	4.97	.012
gender x district x father	2.72	.007	.176	.000	.472	.001	3.46	.009
gender x mother x father	3.17	.046	.949	.014	2.42	.035	1.81	.027
type of school x district x mother	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
type of school x district x father	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000	.	.000
type of school x mother x father	1.40	.004	.730	.002	.121	.000	.191	.000
district x mother x father	1.37	.034	1.87	.045	.758	.019	2.16	.052

Note: p< .001

Concerning the first factor, we can observe the significant main effect of district on *Motivation and Enjoyment*. Subjects were divided into four groups according to their district of residency as shown in table 22). The actual difference for this factor can be considered between moderate and small ($\eta p.^2=0.048$). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated a significant mean difference between Jerusalem and Nablus (M=.218 and -.280 respectively). In addition another significant mean difference was observed between Bethlehem and Nablus (M=.266 and -.280 respectively). Individual means for the four districts are provided in table 22.

Table 22 Significant results and means for the districts on *Motivation and Enjoyment*

District	Mean	Std. deviation	N
Jerusalem	.218	.792	301
Nablus	-.280	1.06	213
Bethlehem	.266	.861	64
Salfeet	.225	1.11	60
Total	.015	.957	638

Note: p< .001

As for *Instrumentality*, a significant interaction was found between type of school and father's level of education. The actual difference for this factor is considered small ($\eta p.^2=0.032$). Post-hoc test on the type of school x fathers' level of education (see figure 18) indicated that private school *Instrumentality* shows no significant differences across the four levels of the father's education. Public school *Instrumentality* is significantly higher when the father's academic level is at tawjihi (M=-.234) and university (M=-.011) than at primary (M=-.398) and secondary (M=-.386). There is also a significant difference between the two types of schools at total levels of the father's education (public M=-.233, private M=.368). Means are provided in table 23 and the interaction is shown graphically in figure 18.

Table 23 Means for father's academic level x type of school interaction in *Instrumentality*

type of school	father academic level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
public	primary	-.398	.972	74
	secondary	-.386	1.07	86
	tawjihi	-.234	.998	110
	university	-.011	.936	115
	Total	-.233	1.00	385
private	primary	.345	.839	88
	secondary	.362	.846	37
	tawjihi	.242	.604	40
	university	.452	.822	88
	Total	.368	.800	253
Total	primary	.006	.973	162
	secondary	-.161	1.06	123
	tawjihi	-.107	.932	150
	university	.190	.916	203
	Total	.005	.972	638
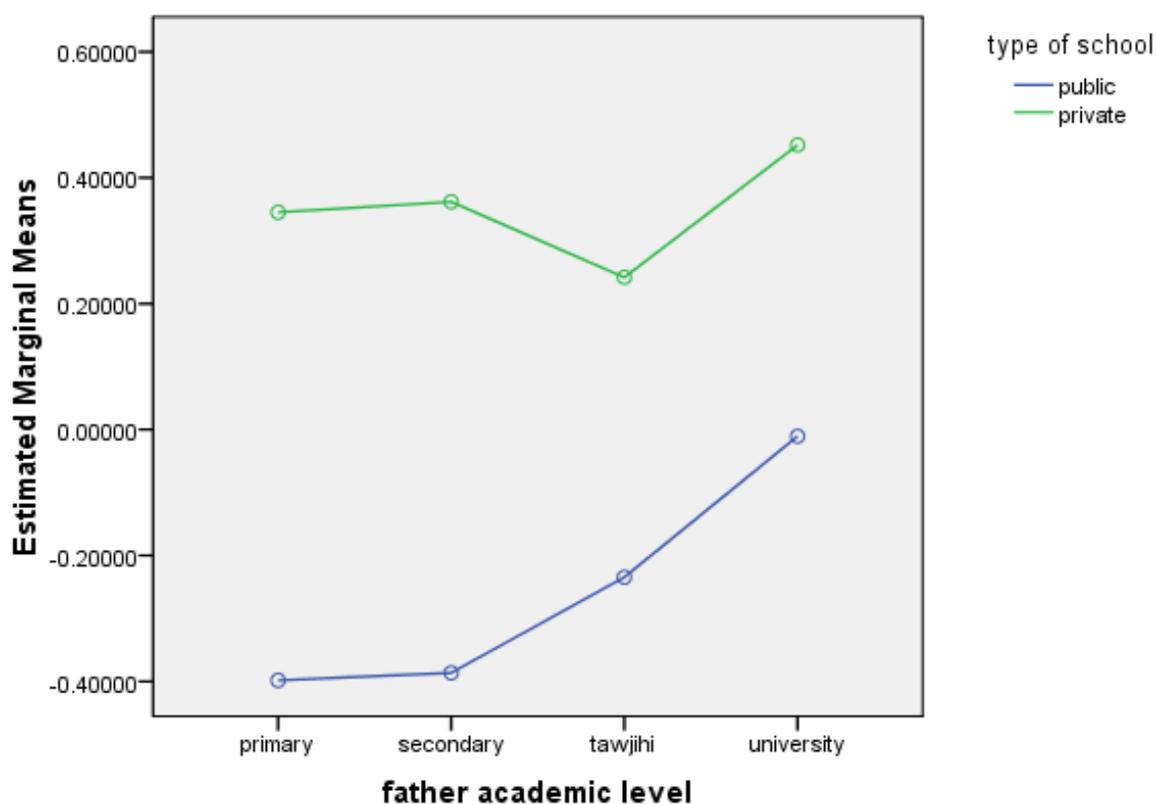
Figure 18 Effect of father academic level x type of school on *Instrumentality*

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Concerning the *Interaction* factor, significant interaction was found between the two parents' levels of education as well as level and gender. The significant interactions among mothers and fathers can be observed graphically in figure 19. Significant measures and means for the different groups are presented in table 24. Post Hoc tests on the mother academic level x father academic level interaction (shown in figure 19) indicates that *Interaction with L2 people/culture* among groups with mother at primary is significantly higher when the father's level is at tawjihi (M=.495) than the other three levels of fathers: primary, secondary, and, university (M=-.506, -.328, -.521) respectively). Another significant difference is observed when the mother is at university where means are significantly higher among fathers at the university level (M= .405) than at primary and secondary (M= -.271, -.238, respectively). In addition, when mothers are at secondary, means are higher among groups with fathers at secondary and tawjihi (M=.184, .310 respectively) than primary and university (M= -.211, -.193).

The second significant interaction is found between grade level and gender. The ANOVA results are shown in table 21; the corresponding means are shown in table 25. Post hoc tests on the gender x grade level interaction (shown in figure 20) indicated that *Interaction with L2 people/culture* among females is lowest in the twelfth grade (M=-.198) and highest in the tenth grade (M=.347). As for males, the lowest mean was among eighth graders while the highest was observed in the twelfth grade (M=.208). Generally means are inconsistent across the grade levels among both males and females; however, the inconsistency was greater among males. It can also be seen that the largest difference between males and females was in eighth grade (M=-.614, .336 respectively) and the least in the nineth grade (M=-.152, .008 respectively).

Table 24 Means for the father's academic x mother's level in *Interactionwith L2 people/cutlure*

father academic level	mother academic level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
primary	primary	-.506	1.32	37
	secondary	-.211	.912	43
	tawjihi	-.118	.946	47
	university	-.271	.793	35
	Total	-.264	1.01	162
secondary	primary	-.328	.979	18
	secondary	.184	.884	40
	tawjihi	.041	.818	38
	university	-.238	1.13	27
	Total	-.028	.946	123
tawjihi	primary	.495	.586	16
	secondary	.310	1.07	35
	tawjihi	-.155	.924	55
	university	.089	.953	44
	Total	.094	.958	150
university	primary	-.521	.844	15
	secondary	-.193	1.38	23
	tawjihi	.145	.921	55
	university	.405	.732	110
	Total	.199	.924	203
Total	primary	-.285	1.12	86
	secondary	.033	1.05	141
	tawjihi	-.023	.911	195
	university	.151	.888	216
	Total	.013	.973	638
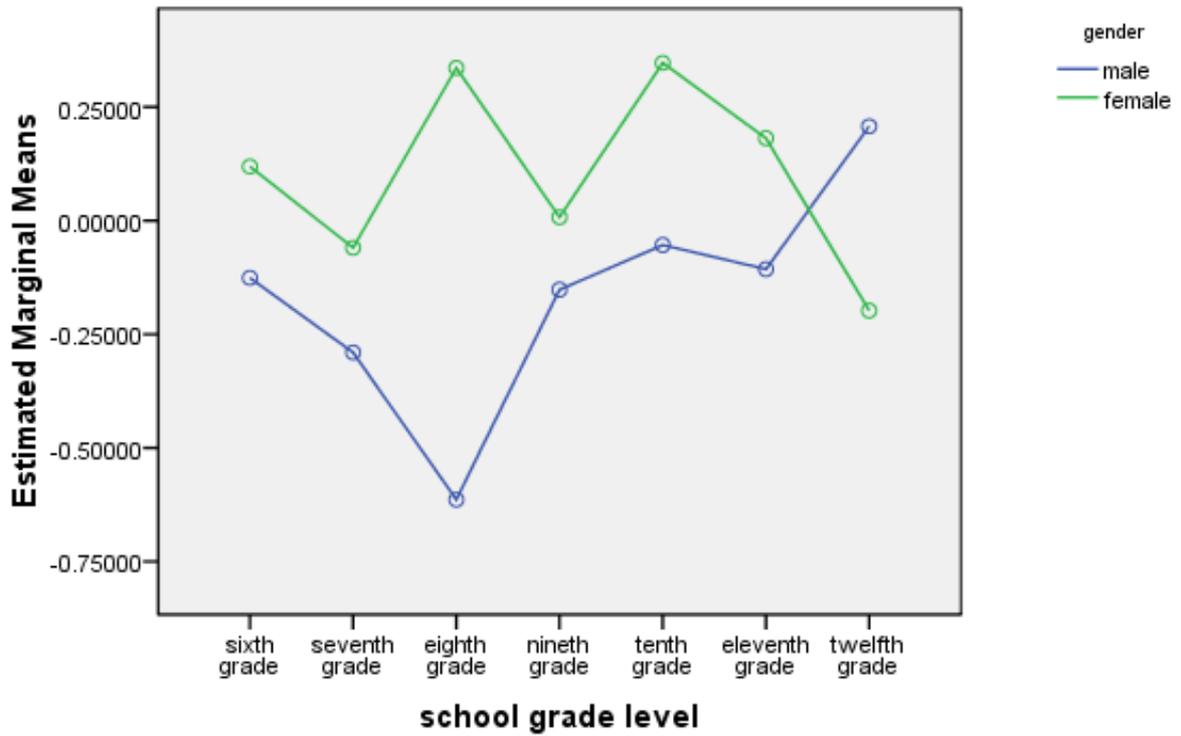
Figure 19 Effect of grade level x gender on *Interaction with L2 people/culture*.
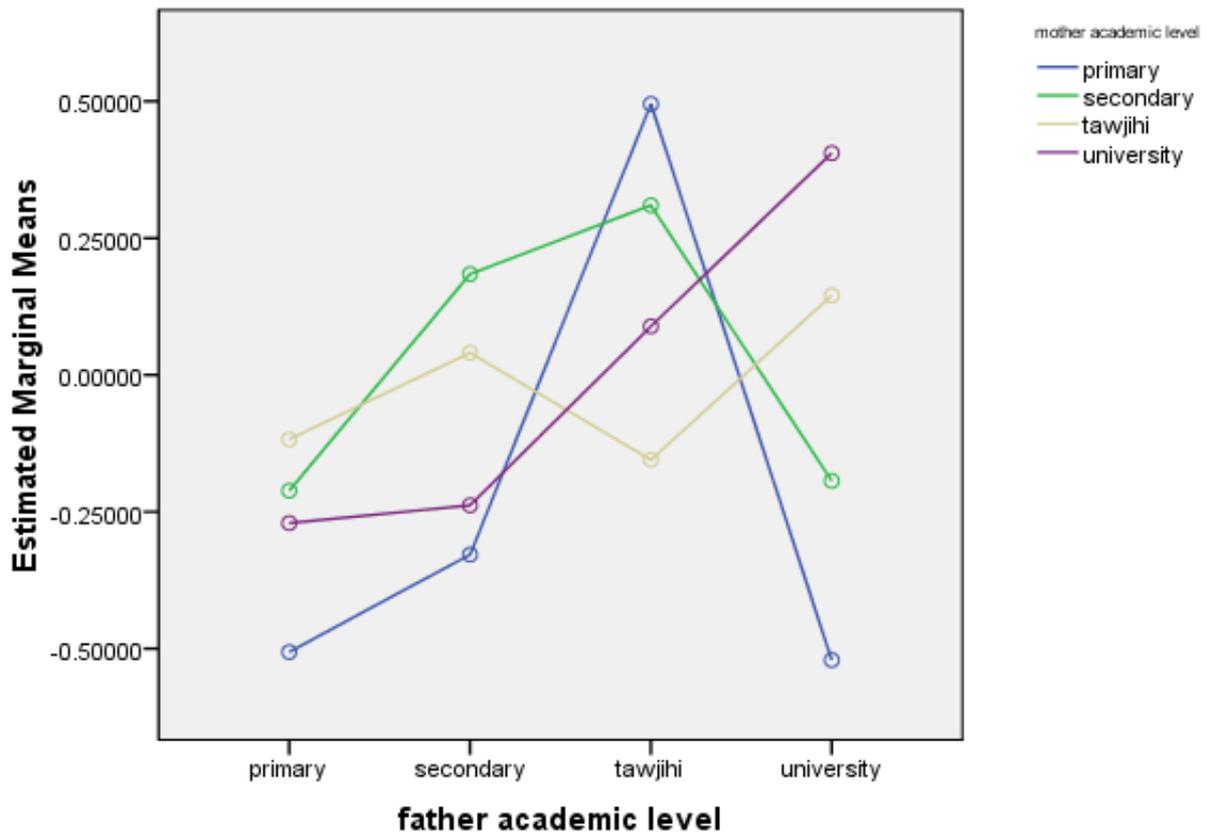
Figure 20 Effect of parents' academic level x type of school on *Interaction with L2 people/culture*.

Table 25 Means for grade level x gender in *Interactionwith L2 people/cutlure*

Gender	School grade level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
male	sixth grade	-.126	.887	13
	seventh grade	-.290	.978	33
	eighth grade	-.614	1.20	16
	nineth grade	-.152	.961	59
	tenth grade	-.054	.845	118
	eleventh grade	-.107	1.01	79
	twelfth grade	.208	.826	31
	Total	-.110	.941	349
female	sixth grade	.119	.	1
	seventh grade	-.060	1.20	15
	eighth grade	.336	.917	30
	nineth grade	.008	1.03	45
	tenth grade	.347	.986	84
	eleventh grade	.181	.921	80
	twelfth grade	-.198	1.02	34
	Total	.161	.991	289
Total	sixth grade	-.109	.855	14
	seventh grade	-.218	1.04	48
	eighth grade	.006	1.11	46
	nineth grade	-.083	.990	104
	tenth grade	.113	.925	202
	eleventh grade	.038	.976	159
	twelfth grade	-.005	.945	65
	Total	.013	.973	638

5.6 Qualitative analysis of responses to semi-structured questions

This section reports on the research findings of the data collected from responses to the ten semi-structured questions (see appendix 4 for the questions). The sample used for this part of the analysis consisted of a selection of 15 students whose responses to the

questions were rich. Initially a larger sample of responses was collected; the responses were sorted according to age and proficiency. A set of 30 cases were selected from the upper grades (10th, 11th, and 12th grades). Another selection of 15 students was made from this smaller sample containing answers that were representative of the group.

The findings are presented in key areas of motivation that emerged from the data. This section provides a detailed discussion of student responses on each of the emergent themes, and then presents a summary of the key findings. The themes presented include motivation and orientations (section 5.6.1), external influences (section 5.6.2), and global awareness (section 5.6.3).

5.6.1 Motivation

With regards to motivation in English learning, the fifteen students under analysis unanimously deemed that "English is very important" (F1_12a), and that English ability is "one important kind of competition ability" for the country and for their personal development (F6_10c). The same student (F6_10c) noted that being able to learn English well brought her joy. Another student also mentioned that being able to travel abroad was one of the reasons for her to learn English well (F7_11b).

Three interrelated instrumental orientations in learning English were also identified: mark orientation, job orientation, and further-study orientation. Most students acknowledged that English is "a major subject in school," as it constituted a lot of class time per week (F6_10c). If the students were competing, marks on English tests were among the important evaluation criteria (M4_12a). In addition, high English marks were required for university studies (M4_12a) because all universities ask for good marks in English as one of the prerequisites for admission. Students stated that future employers

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value job applicants' English abilities (e.g., F1_12a; M2_11b; M3_10a; F2_106). With the current economic situation in Palestine, finding a desirable job needed "an extra card" in the students' hands. In many cases, according to one student, this extra card could be the ability to communicate in English (F6_10c).

The concept of integrating with English-speaking people seemed to be a very remote idea. A student explained that it was difficult to integrate because different ethnic and cultural backgrounds kept a distance from the two worlds – the Middle Eastern world and the Western world (F3_11c). Only 2 of the 15 students had previous direct encounters with English-speaking people. One student (M1_11c) had a friend from Italy, but the inability to communicate easily with his Italian friend in English made him very frustrated. Another student (M4_12a) had two English-speaking school teachers toward whom he had mixed feelings. Even though he agreed that English-speaking teachers could offer a lot that domestic English teachers could not, he said he did not like one of the teachers because he obviously did not take into consideration the cultural differences.

The other 13 students commented that they had not had direct contact with English-speaking people so far. Their impression of English-speaking people was indirectly obtained from mass media, including movies, TV, and Internet. The concept of English-speaking people was more like a singular concept to them, and it was represented mostly by Americans so far. From their indirect experiences, they stated that English-speaking people were generally friendly and honest. In spite of the positive impression, students maintained that it was an "other" culture, and they would not consider integrating themselves into it, at least not now (M6_10c). One student (F2_10b) stated that being able to use English helped her "open a wider window," enabling her to get information from more resources and understand more. She thought that if a person could

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not speak the language of a certain country, his/her understanding of that culture would be indirect and limited. English was the bridge that led her to a wider world. She mentioned that her long-term goal was to make friends from all over the world and to have a deeper understanding of the issues happening in the world and people from different backgrounds.

Different opinions were voiced as to the necessity of offering English classes to every school student. Some students pointed out that, for some of them, there would be no need to have English proficiency in their future jobs, so students should have the option of not taking English as a compulsory subject (M2_11b). Some students felt they should have more choices instead of being blindly guided; they all agreed that, even though English might not be needed in their future jobs, English skills could help them secure a good job.

Students were asked to give suggestions/comments regarding the students' reasons (goals), interest, and effort in learning EFL. The students' responses accounted for the ensuing reasons for learning English as a foreign language:

- It is an international language (or widely spoken)
- To communicate with foreigners
- To work in NGOS
- To improve the four language skills
- To communicate with world people
- To increase understanding capacity
- To talk with friends in English
- To gain more knowledge

- To understand English books, films, music, etc.

- To know about the English language

- To know about world events

- To gain a good academic rank

- To continue education

- To enjoy speaking English

- To get information from the internet

- To cope with political, special, and economic changes in the world

Some of them reported doing the following out of their interest in learning English:

- Listening to English media

- Reading various materials in English

- Speaking with friends or foreigners outside the class

- Writing many things in English, especially using the internet (chatting)

- Going to language schools to learn additional English

5.6.2 External Influences

Aside from being self-motivated for various reasons, the students were motivated by external influences. These influences that drove students to learn English and to work hard to achieve well in English were viewed from the perspectives of society, teachers, parents, and peers. The students realized that all these external factors were correlated to some extent but in various degrees (M5_10b; M4_12a).

Students' interests in learning English were influenced by current social and political affairs. In the past 15 years, there were a few important events in Palestine that caught the world's attention. For example, peace negotiations, the conflict in Gaza, and elections for a new government. Most students' interests in learning English were greatly triggered by these social/political events. They wanted to read the overseas news reports on these events (e.g., news from CNN and BBC) to be able to understand the differences between domestic reports and overseas reports to make their own judgments (M2_11b). Since, however, some of the reports in English were beyond their English levels, they therefore felt, more than ever, that they should be equipped with good English abilities, so that they would not be limited or paralyzed because of language barriers (F7_11b). Some students noted that websites like CNN and BBC were good channels for being updated, especially when they had read reports of the same or similar events on Arabic websites. They mentioned that "The Middle eastern and Western cultural clash" was sometimes reflected in these news reports, and felt that to understand these clashes was a good reason for them to keep on learning English (M1_11c). In addition, some students also explained that there were more and more international companies in Palestine that offered relatively higher salaries and better opportunities than the domestic ones. One student, who wants to major in computer engineering, commented that all programming codes were written in English and the best books in this area were written in English. Therefore, learning English for him was a must rather an extra asset for such students (M4_12a). He regarded his responsibility as an English learner was to be able to communicate with foreigners using English. Sharing the same opinion, another student (F7_11b) said that even though one could resort to translations, the information would be weakened or sometimes distorted if the translation was not accurate. She pointed out that translated

books usually were delayed, and if students could truly grasp English, they would be able to access things without delay by reading books directly in English.

Although the fifteen students recognized that the fundamental force to learn English well was within themselves, rather than in teachers, the teachers' influence was important for them. One student stated, "Whether I am motivated to learn English or not is partly dependent on the kind of teacher I get" (M4_12a). A student (F7_11b) with a speaking disability commented that her interest in learning English was largely dependent on the sensitivity of the teacher to her situation. If the teacher was sensitive and considerate to her situation, she would get certain accommodations in the class, and she would feel she was well attended to in a class of over 40 students. This feeling of being accommodated made her attached to the teacher and to the subject he/she was learning – English. Whether the teaching style suited the students' learning style was sometimes critical in motivating their learning in the case of some students (M4_12a). The factors that were deemed important included the teacher's personality and whether or not there was an emphasis on oral English in the class. One student (F5_11a) mentioned that she has had three English teachers so far. The three of them were quite different in terms of their teaching styles and that seemed to make an effect on that student attitude toward the English class. The first teacher did not give lots of homework. She focused on oral [English] practice which is a skill perceived by students as essential when learning a language. Oral practice also fosters mastery goals in students rather than focusing on homework and grades. The second teacher didn't impress her because the teacher was very traditional in her approach; students were not given the chance to engage in a variety of activities. The third teacher gave her new ways to learn English, including introducing her to different sources for learning English. She taught important language structure and

knowledge, but tried hard not to bore the class with that. She used a combination of novel classroom organization and some traditional ones. This combination increased student interest in the language as well as their attitude towards the learning environment. In general the students agreed that the teachers should provide them with more flexibility in class activities, such as group discussion, oral presentation, and drama. This classroom flexibility enabled them to gather information from different sources, including the Internet, English magazines, and movies, which, in turn, increased their engagement with English learning (F7_11b). On the other hand, if students felt uninterested in either the teacher or the content of his/her class, they would sometimes use the class time to sleep or do other work (M6_10c). Whether the teacher was strict with the students or not also played a role in influencing their motivation to learn English. On the one hand, they preferred teachers who were friendly, outgoing, and easy to get along with. On the other hand, they realized that if the teacher was loose with classroom discipline, they would have less self-control and spend less time on English. If the teacher was strict enough, they felt the pressure from the teacher could push them to have more incentive (F7_11b). The teachers' professional qualifications also impacted on students' motivation in learning. If the students felt their teacher was very knowledgeable and completely qualified, they would be more willing to attend the class and participate in classroom activities (F2_10b). One of the students had a teacher who had a Master's degree from an English-speaking country; according to this student, this teacher was often preferred to other teachers who had a Master's degree or sometimes even a Doctoral degree from domestic universities (F2_10b).

Parents' influence was relatively weak compared to other external influences. Only 2 of the 15 students commented on their parents' influence. One student reported

that her motivation to learn well was more of her responsibility not to disappoint her parents rather than her responsibility to the country or society (F3_11c). This student, who had low English proficiency, maintained that her responsibility to the country or society seemed very remote to her, and the way she saw students' contributions to society was to do well in school. Another student, who also had low proficiency, reported pressure from his parents. He said his father was a high school English teacher who was concerned with his English development and constantly reminded him to pass the Tawjihi as soon as he could (M2_11b).

Students expressed that they were more or less forced by the school curriculum and the upcoming Tawjihi examination to learn English. English classes are offered almost every day, and the way they learned English was mostly dominated by the content of the Tawjihi examination which determined whether it is possible to continue university studies or not. Achieving a high score on that exam was the major impetus (M2_11b). Students recognized that in the Tawjihi test, there was no component that tested listening comprehension and speaking English. Therefore, the students spent less time on listening and speaking. Their ultimate goal was achieving highly on the exam rather than learning the language for communicative purposes.

5.6.3 Global Awareness

In this study, the concept of global awareness refers to the awareness, possessed by EFL students, of the important role English plays in the globalized world. This global awareness concept is reflected by the unanimous understanding of the importance of English in current Palestinian society. In the context of globalization, English is deemed

as an international language (F5_11a) and as the "the lingua franca in the world" (F3_11c), as one student stated.

Generally speaking, it was not considered a bad thing that every student was learning English. A student commented that, even though the Palestinian economy was developing very fast, "we are still behind some developed countries in many aspects, especially in terms of technology" (M4_12a). It was considered realistic and beneficial for students to learn English well and use it as a communicative tool to be able to understand and be understood. The same student also noted that English was the bridge in linking Palestinian traditional culture and Western technology. Students sensed that a balance was needed between maintaining the Arabic language and culture and encouraging every student to learn English well (M5_10b). Under the current global circumstances, it was believed to be more important to introduce advanced technologies and good values from outside the country than to simply preserve the Middle Eastern language and culture (M4_12a).

While recognizing the importance of internationalization, five of the students commented that, because Arabic was the mother tongue, its influence was deep rooted and would not easily fade away. Since everyone who was born and grew up in Palestine had been immersed in the Arab culture and language, its status was solid (M5_10b). He also stressed the importance of the English language for cultural exchange to take place (M5_10b). Another student, however, had a contrary opinion, arguing that "it [internationalization] went too far." He asserted that English was important but that it was not necessary for everybody to learn it (M1_11c).

5.6.4 Summary

This section has presented the data from 15 students' responses. These fifteen were chosen due to their rich content. The analysis of the response has been grouped into three major themes: motivation and reasons for learning the language, external influences, and global awareness. Findings gleaned from the student data revealed that all of the students considered English very important. The importance that they attached to English gave them a variety of motivations to learn English. The motivations ranged from broad reasons such as contributing to Palestine's globalization with the rest of world to very specific personal reasons. They also acknowledged that there were strong instrumental orientations that motivated them to learn English well. For example, future employees might value higher English abilities; further study (e.g., going to university either in Palestine or in overseas universities) required them to be highly proficient in English; since English was a major course that had a very high credit, and was the language of instruction used in the majority of majors in all Palestinian universities. Referring to instrumental orientations, no gender differences were found in this respect, but students with higher proficiency were more inclined to be concerned with further study. All students acknowledged the value of English in their future job search, but some of them doubted whether the English abilities they had developed so far could be applied to their future work. In addition, students with higher proficiency were more competitive and determined, and they regarded learning English well as one of their social responsibilities. On the contrary, students with lower proficiency, while also talking about being competitive, regarded their classmates as their major competitors. They were mostly concerned with being able to pass the class and Tawjihi exams in the future.

When talking about their attitudes toward English-speaking people, the students brought up mixed feelings. Some considered English-speaking people as friendly and nice – from their indirect experiences of them through the mass media, but very few thought it would be of interest to them to integrate with an English-speaking person or community. The students' attitudes could also be shaped by their limited direct contacts with English-speaking people, or the social political events that were happening in the world at the time.

Students also expressed their interest in learning English as a foreign language, mostly among female students. On the other hand, male students felt there was not enough of an encouraging learning atmosphere among them, and they thought they had higher pressure because they tended not to prepare for the test as carefully as their female counterparts. Aside from their personal interests and orientations in learning English, the students reported that their interests were also dependent partly on the English teacher they had and partly on some external influences from society, peers, and parents. They stated that motivations from other agents were related but varied in degrees. Their motivation intensity, desire to learn English, and attitudes toward learning English were greatly influenced by external influences, and they perceived the influence from the teacher as critical. While much learning occurred outside the classroom, they thought the English learning atmosphere that the teacher and classmates created was vital in shaping, boosting, or maintaining their interest in learning English. In the context of English testing, the students believed that the Tawjihi (which was based on the Palestinian curriculum) was not a test that could best differentiate test-takers' English abilities. It was designed to measure how much the student has memorized rather than their skills in using the language to communicate whether orally or written. Global awareness was identified

as an important concept in influencing school students to learn English in the context of globalization. Even though this concept might fall into the broader context of motivation, it was singled out in the analysis I singled for a detailed discussion because it emerged as a prominent category among these students. They recognized that globalization required them to learn English well because it was an international language and it could act as the bridge between their knowledge and knowledge from overseas sources especially through internet. They felt it was a must for them to be equipped with English skills to communicate freely in their future, but some of them also advocated that this facility should not be accomplished at the expense of losing the values of the Palestinian language and culture.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I will first discuss the findings concerning the present study including the components identified within the model created and the significance of their relationships with other external variables (section 6.1). In section 6.2, I will be making a comparison of the Palestinian motivation model to other models developed by Csizer and Dörnyei (2005), Pae (2008), Al-Shehri (2009), Csizer & Kormos (2009), Ryan (2009), Taguchi et al. (2009), Tragant et al. (2009), and Papi (2010).

6.1 Identification of constructs

In this section, I will first discuss the factors identified as underlying components of language learning motivation in comparison to the original scales/factors of the questionnaire. Then, I will discuss each of these constructs in light of previous research by a number of authors. Significant relationships between each of the factors and the external variables involved in the MANOVA analysis will also be discussed.

Earlier in section 4.5 (p.120), we saw that the questionnaire originated with seven initial scales; after running exploratory factor analysis using the larger Palestinian sample of learners, items were redistributed resulting in four factors: *1- Motivation and*

Enjoyment; 2- Awareness for Need; 3- Instrumentality; 4- Interaction with L2 People/Culture. Regarding the first factor, the majority of the items (6 out of 9) were initially included in scale 2 labeled 'Positive Attitudes towards the Learning Environment.' It also included two items (1 and 3) from scale 1 (Motivation, Interest and Attitudes towards the English Language) which make reference to enjoyment in learning the English language. Two additional items came from the fourth scale (Interest in Foreign languages) both referring to a positive attitude and determination toward learning English. Items loading on the second factor came mostly from the third category (Perceptions of English Language Skills and Use). These items make reference to what students' perceptions are concerning the need for English and its importance. As for the Instrumentality factor, most of the items that were found in the initially independent categories 'Importance of English and Its Modern Uses' and 'Career and Academic Orientations' (scales 5 and 6) have proven to load on one same construct (Factor 3). Regarding the final factor, Interaction with L2 people and culture, all four of the items loading on this factor are from scale 7, the pleasure and entertainment orientation.

When considering the level of endorsement of each of the factors. It can be seen that students are motivated and have positive attitudes towards learning English; however, the reasons for learning the language are more instrumental in nature and for utilitarian purposes more than for pleasure or interaction with L2 people/culture. A lower endorsement level for the *interaction* factor indicates the existence of varied opinions concerning this desire to interact with the L2 people/culture. The Palestinian learning context reinforces these behaviors and attitudes as English plays an essential role in their educational system throughout all grade levels including university, hence influencing the type of career the students will have in the future. Recent developments in the role English plays in the educational system especially at the university level have obligated

school students to learn the language in order to be successful. Thus, English has become a language needed for future practical and utilitarian purposes on the most part. It has developed into a need and requirement for future success. Research in similar EFL contexts (eg. Bombay, India, Hungary, Spain) has shown similar results concerning the existence of an instrumental orientation (Lukmani, 1972; BrajKachru, 1977; Dörnyei, 1990; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2005; Cid et al., 2009).

The structural components of foreign language motivation found in this study through factor analysis can be compared with those identified in other recent studies of language learning motivation in foreign language contexts. In comparison with other authors' findings, a number of similarities and differences are revealed. Table 25 gives a summary of factors identified in this study and studies carried out by other authors in other EFL contexts in which there is limited contact with the L2 target group/community.

Factor one, Motivation and Enjoyment, is similar to a number of constructs identified in the studies presented in table 26. The first and most similar factor, Motivation to learn English and appeal to the language, was found by Cid et al. among Catalonian students. In Egypt, Schmidt et al. (1996) had identified three separate components, determination, intrinsic motivation, and enjoyment that were closely related to Factor one of the present study.

A constructs similar to Factor two, Awareness for Need, was identified by Dörnyei (1990) among L2 learners in Hungary. In this study, questionnaire items under the Awareness for Need factor indicated the necessity of the English language in future studies, occupations, school, and understanding movies in the English without translations. In the Hungarian context, Dörnyei (1990) identified a construct interpreted and labelled as *Need for Achievement* which reflected a similar *need* component.

Table 26 Comparison of factors identified in six studies involving the investigation of language learning motivation

	Present Study	Cid et al. (2002)	Gardner (2001)	Schmidt et al. (1996)	Dörnyei (1990)	Julkunen (1989)	Dörnyei and Csizer (2005)
Factor 1	Motivation and enjoyment	Motivation to learn English and appeal to the language	Motivation	Enjoyment	Values associated with language	Latent interest in English	Milieu
Factor 2	Instrumentality	Instrumental/Professional– Academic' orientation	Instrumental Orienation	Instrumental orientation	Instrumentality	Communicative orientation	Instrumentality
Factor 3	Interaction with L2 people/culture	Popular culture/Functional use orientation.	Integrativeness	Attitudes to foreign culture	Interest in foreign cultures	Integrative motivation	Cultural interest
Factor 4	Awareness for need	Interpersonal Communication orientation:	Language Anxiety	Foreign residence	Spend time abroad	Intrinsic orientation	Integrativeness
Factor 5		Attitudes towards instruction	Attitudes towards the learning situation	Determination	Need for achievement	Attitudes toward teacher/method	Vitality of the l2 community
Factor 6		Linguistic self-efficacy		Sociability	Bad learning experiences	Anxiety	Self-confidence
Factor 7				Anxiety	Language learning as a challenge	Criteria for success	Attitudes towards speakers.
Factor 8				Beliefs about failure		Helplessness	
Factor 9				Intrinsic motivation			

According to findings from a study carried out by Julkunen (1989), a contradicting construct called *helplessness* was found among Finnish students, indicating a passive and hopeless attitude towards the language.

The third factor, *Instrumentality* has been a major factor identified by many researchers in various EFL contexts as mentioned earlier. According to table 25, all the studies presented have identified an instrumental factor except for Julkunen. In his study the questionnaire did include items indicative of an instrumental orientation towards English, but in the factor analysis these emerged as a cluster of items that Julkunen labeled as *communicative orientation*. According to Dörnyei (1990), in mastering an intermediate target language proficiency, the Instrumental Motivational Subsystem and Need for Achievement especially, play a significant role, whereas the desire to go beyond this level is associated with integrative motives. Results in the present study concerning factor level of endorsement show that student responses to items associated with practical and utilitarian orientations are the highest. In general, Palestinian students study English in order to continue university studies and get a job, in addition to surfing the internet and other daily usage of the English language.

The fourth factor, *Interaction with L2 people/culture,* may be considered an integrative orientation in some contexts, however, considering the Palestinian context, these interactive reasons for learning the language are not considered as the desire to integrate into the L2 community. This construct contains items that reflect the desire to interact with target language speakers as well as aspects of the culture such as movies and songs. Another questionnaire item, which was also a part of what Julkunen labeled *integrative orientation,* indicates an interest in travelling abroad. In addition, the study by Schmidt et al. and that of Dornyei both identified a factor concerned with positive

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attitudes towards and interest in foreign cultures with separate factors indicating the desire to travel to England or America (*foreign residence* and *spend time abroad*, respectively). Csizer and Dörnyei also identified a similar component labeled *cultural interest*.

Results in the present investigation as well as others have shown that findings from second-language acquisition contexts are not applicable to foreign-language learning contexts. For example, research has shown that Gardner's conception of integrative motivation is not readily applicable to contexts in which the L2 is taught as a foreign language. Dörnyei (2002) subsequently redefined "integrativeness" as "a broad positive disposition towards the L2 speaker community, including an interest in their life and culture and a desire for contact with them" (p. 147). The factors identified in this research were similar to those of EFL contexts as explained throughout this section. There is an emphasis on instrumental orientations and the need for learning English in order to be successful. In light of these components, the Interaction factor may also be perceived as instrumental rather than an integrative orientation.

It is also important to point out that although there were questionnaire items in the present study referring to the learning environment and self-perceptions and self-confidence in English, they did not emerge as individual factors. In contrat, the pilot study which was restricted to the Jerusalem district, items clustered to form both of these constructs labeled: *Perceptions of Language skills* and *Positive attitudes towards the learning environment* (see table 6). It can also be seen in table 26, that all the other studies did identify constructs similar to these.

When considering the impact of external independent variables on the four factors identified in the present study, analyses revealed that district, grade level (age), gender, and the parent's education level have significant influences on the combined factors. When considering these factors separately, there is a significant difference among the various districts when considering *Motivation and Enjoyment*. The highest means were found in Bethelehm, Salfeet and Jerusalem while the lowest was in Nablus. If we were to take a look at the demographic size of these areas (refer to Appendix 1), we will notice that Nablus is the largest district among the four with a bigger population, while Bethlehem and Salfeet are smaller areas with a smaller population. According to Burstall (1980), the size of the school and its location, urban or rural, do have an effect on student attitudes and achievement in the classroom because in small rual schools there tens to be a close student-teacher relationship at an early stage, thus having higher levels of achievement and developing positive attitudes towards learning.

Another significant relationship found was between gender and grade level in relation to the Interaction with L2 people/culture factor. From grade seven to eleven, there is a higher relationship among females than males indicating that females have a stronger desire to interact with L2 people and aspects of their culture. This coincides with Clark and Trafford's (1995) qualitative data which suggests that teachers of modern languages perceive girls as maturing earlier than boys and consequently being more serious about their studies than boys with respect to school work. However, at grade twelve we see that the mean for males is higher than that of females. This may be to the critical role the tawjihi exams in determining their futures. It an also be that in grade twelve males become more independent from their families and think of travelling abroad, while females at this stage are less dependent and are thinking to get married.

When considering the different grade levels among the two gender groups, the tenth grade had the highest mean among the females and the twelfth grade among the boys; as for the lowest means, among females at the twelfth grade and at eighth grade among the boys. This again reflects the fact that the society is a paternal one with the role for the female as a housewife and the male as the provider. In the Palestinian society in general, as girls grow older, parents as well as the girls begin to think of marriage. As a results, a girl's concern is no longer in learning but in finding a suitable husband and becoming a mother. Males, on the other hand, are aware of the fact that as they grow older they need to become more responsible and consider the importance of learning English for their futures.

The third significant relationship was that between parents' education level and interaction with L2 people/culture. This finding is in line with the relationship between father's and mother's academic level and the Pleasure and Entertainment factor in the pilot study (Musleh, 2006). In this study, the strongest relationship considering both the mothers' and fathers' education level in total is at the university level and the lowest at the primary level. It is assumed that the education level of the parents will have impact on the socioeconomic level of the family, thus impacting interest and desires of learning English in order to interact with L2 people and activities such as watching movies and listening to songs in English. Learning English for these reasons is again for leisure and entertainment purposes which probably exists more at a higher socioeconomic level. In a closer examinination of the differences in means in the different levels of education, we can see a more complex pattern. When the mothers' primary and secondary levels are compared with fathers' academic level at Tawjihi and university levels, the mean is unexpectedly lower when the father's level is at university. This may be due to the

significant influence of the mother's level of education on student's attitudes and orientations towards interaction with L2 culture/people. If the mother is at a lower level and the gap between the two parents is large, then means decrease. As the mothers' level increases this unexpected pattern is resolved and is consistant with expectations that the mean increases as parents' education levels advance.

Further univairate analyses revealed yet another significant interaction between father's level of education and type of school for *Instrumentality*. This finding is not difficult to interepret in the Palestinian context in light of the significant effects presented in the previous paragraphs. Leading back to our main idea of a paternal society, the father's role and impact on attitudes of members of the household is expected. His education level is expected to determine the socio-economic level of the family and thus further determine what type of school the children go to. It is also assumed that an increase in the father's education level also sets his perception of which type of school provides a better education for the childrens' future.

6.2 Comparison of findings from distinct milieus

In this section I will present a comparison of the SEM model specified in this study and the models proposed by Csizer and Dörnyei (2005), Gardner et al. (1997), and Tragant et al. (2009). It is also important to mention other models (eg., Pae , 2008; Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizer and Kormos, 2008a; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; and Papi, 2010) incorporating the L2 self system that emerged as a result of the research done by Csizer and Dörnyei and the potential of using these concepts to interpret the findings in the present study and future research.

The initial comparisons will be made between the schematic models from the present study and Tragant et al. (2009) presented in figures 21 and 22. It is worth noting that the questionnaires used in both of these studies have been adapted from the questionnaire developed by Cid et al. (2002) which was based on the collection of qualitative responses to open-ended questions in a study carried out by Tragant and Muñoz (2000). Although both share many of the same questionnaire items, it is proposed that the factors identified will differ in structure, importance, and relation due to the different contexts examined.

The first observation to be made is the number of factors identified. In the present study only four factors were identified with Interaction with L2people/culture as the weakest. Victori et al. identified six factors underlying motivation: *Motivation to learn English, Self-efficacy, Attitudes towards FL instruction, Interpersonal communication orientation, Popular culture orientation,* and *Professional/academic orientation.* The first factor was similar in both studies dealing with interest and positive attitudes towards learning the English language, however, in the present study this factor also includes items from *self-efficacy* and *attitudes towards FL instruction*. The *Interaction* factor in the Palestinian model contains questionnaire items that are also part of the *Interpersonal communication orientation* and *Popular culture orientation* in the Catalonian model. Questionnaire items about the desire to learn English for academic and career purposes are part of the *Instumentality* construct in the Palestinian context, and in the Catalonian context similar items clustered to form a factor labelled the *academic/professional orientation.* Furthermore, the items containing the word 'need' clustered to form a separate component, a*wareness for need,* in the present study while some of these same items (such as, 'to have more possibilities to find a job', 'because I will need it in that job

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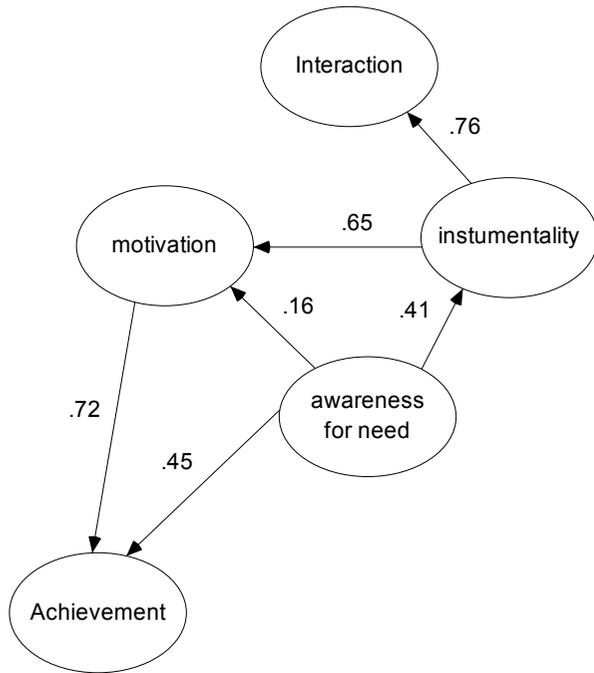
Figure 21 Schematic model from the present study based on the Palestinian context.
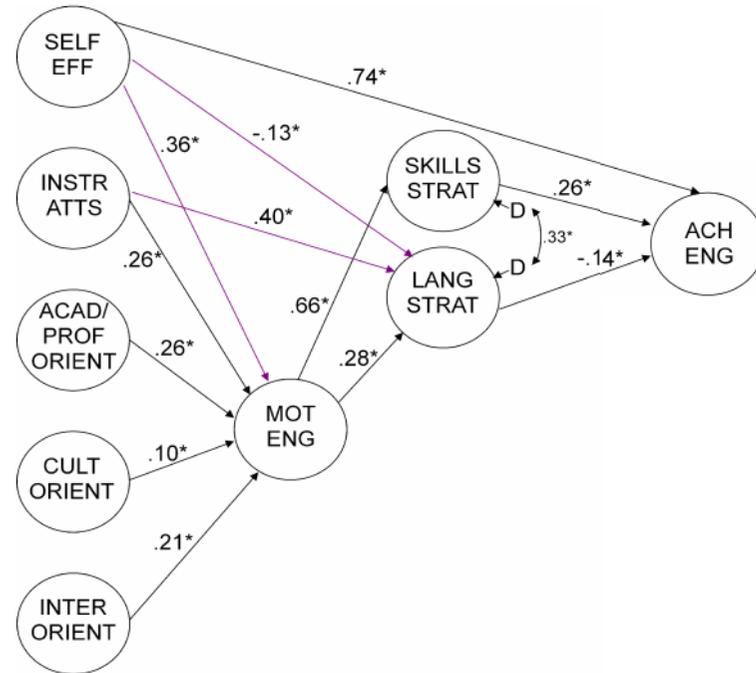
Figure 22 Schematic model by Tragant, Victori, and Thompson (2009) based on the Catalonian context.

that I would like to have', 'because I will need it to continue studying') were also classified under the *professional/academic orientation* in Tragant et al. (2009).

According to the Palestinian model developed in this study, the *awareness for need* factor had a direct path to achievement indicating that it directly affects achievement. Other factors were linked with achievement via the motivation construct. In both contexts, motivation was the cause of achievement rather than achievement casuing motivation. This finding coincides with other research in the field of language learning motivation in which motivation was also found to be the cause for successful achievement rather than achievement being the source of motivation (e.g. Gardner, 1979; Gardner, 1985; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Skehan, 1989). Furthermore, in the present,*Instrumentality* was found to be directly linked to *Interaction* coinciding with Gardner's (2001a) statement that the relationship between integrative and instrumental motivations was not mutual independency but rather an interactive relation with a relatively high correlation. Integratively motivated students also endorse instrumental reasons for learning an L2, and vice versa.

Another similarity when comparing paths between the factors in both models is the strong direct link between self-efficacy and achievement in the Catalonian model (.74) and the direct link between motivation and achievement in the Palestinian model (.72) respectively considering that the motivation factor in this model contains self-efficacy items from the Catalonian model.

In general the present study correlations between the constructs are higher than those in the Catalonian model. This may be due to the different contexts and the difference in importance of English. In the present study, the strongest links among the

factors were between the Interaction→Instrumentality, Instrumentality →Motivation, and Motivation → Achievement. The emphasis on Instrumentality can be explained by the role English plays in Palestinian lives. English has entered the lives of all people in Palestine through everyday things like food labels, shop signs, and advertisements. In addition, English is also used through computers and the internet, which has developed into an important means of communication today. As mentioned earlier, English also plays an essential role in the Palestinian educational system. Although the importance of English in Catalonia and its role in the educational system is increasing, it has yet not entered into their everyday lives to the extent it has in Palestine.

In another study, Gardner et al. (1997) developed a causal model using structural equation modeling that involved the investigation of the impact of language learning motivation and other underlying factors on achievement. The model is presented in figure 23. The major findings of this study suggested that language attitudes caused motivation, motivation caused both self-confidence and language learning strategies, and motivation, language aptitude, and language learning strategies caused language achievement. Although the Palestinian model in the present study did not include constructs concerning language learning strategies or self-confidence, results in both studies show that motivation causes achievement rather than achievement being the cause of motivation. Similar to the purpose of the model proposed in this study, Gardner et al.'s model provided one way of understanding how affective variables interrelate and complement one another in predicting L2 achievement.
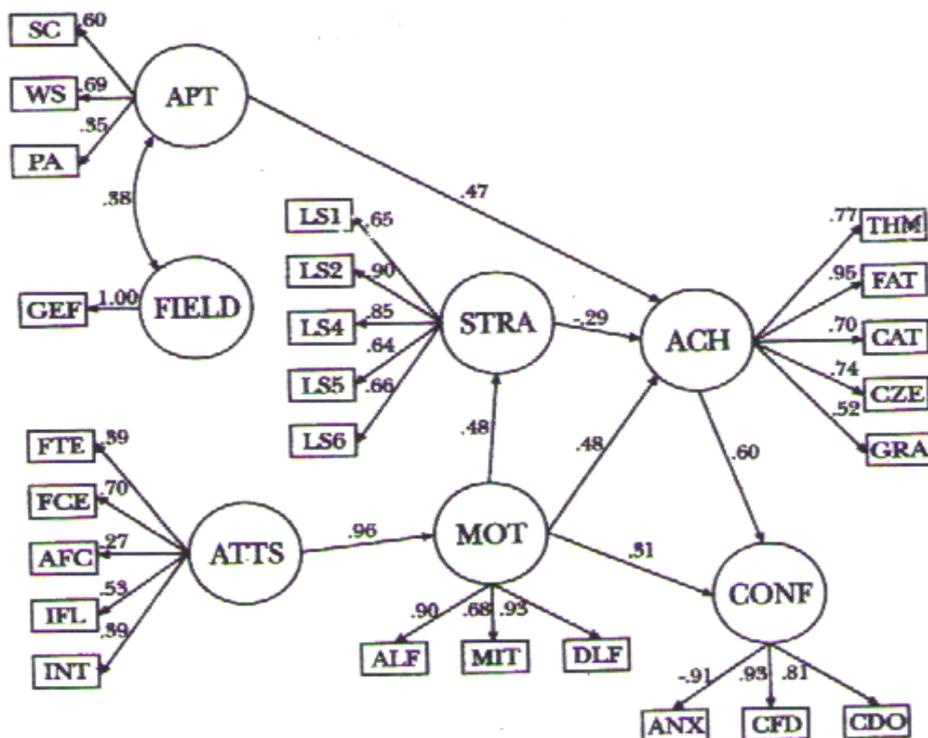
Figure 23 Schematic model by Gardner et al. (1997) based on the Canadian context.

Another study applying SEM towards the development of a model has been
carried out by Csizer and Dörnyei (2005). The purpose of their study was to use structural
equation modeling to evaluate a proposed theoretical model concerning the internal
structure of the second language motivation complex and its impact on motivated
behavior, in addition to identifying interrelationship of these components. As can be seen
in the figure 24, in their study the outcome/behavioral factor was language choice rather
than achievement. As mentioned in the previous section their study also included factors
that were similar to those in the present study such as: instrumentality and cultural
interest (similar to *Interaction* component in the present study). Other similarities include
the direct links between *Instrumentality* and *Integrativeness* which resembles in the
present study the link between *Instrumentality* and *Interaction*. Their main finding,
however, was that *integrativeness* appears to be the single most important factor,

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subsuming or mediating the effects of all the other responses to questions asked. In light of this finding, they analyze and interpret what this component is like in different contexts. In addition, this study began another line of studies with the interpretation of *Integrativeness* as an Ideal self (refer to section 3.10 for explanation of Dörnyei self system). These concepts can be used to interpret the significance of the interaction component in the present study as well.
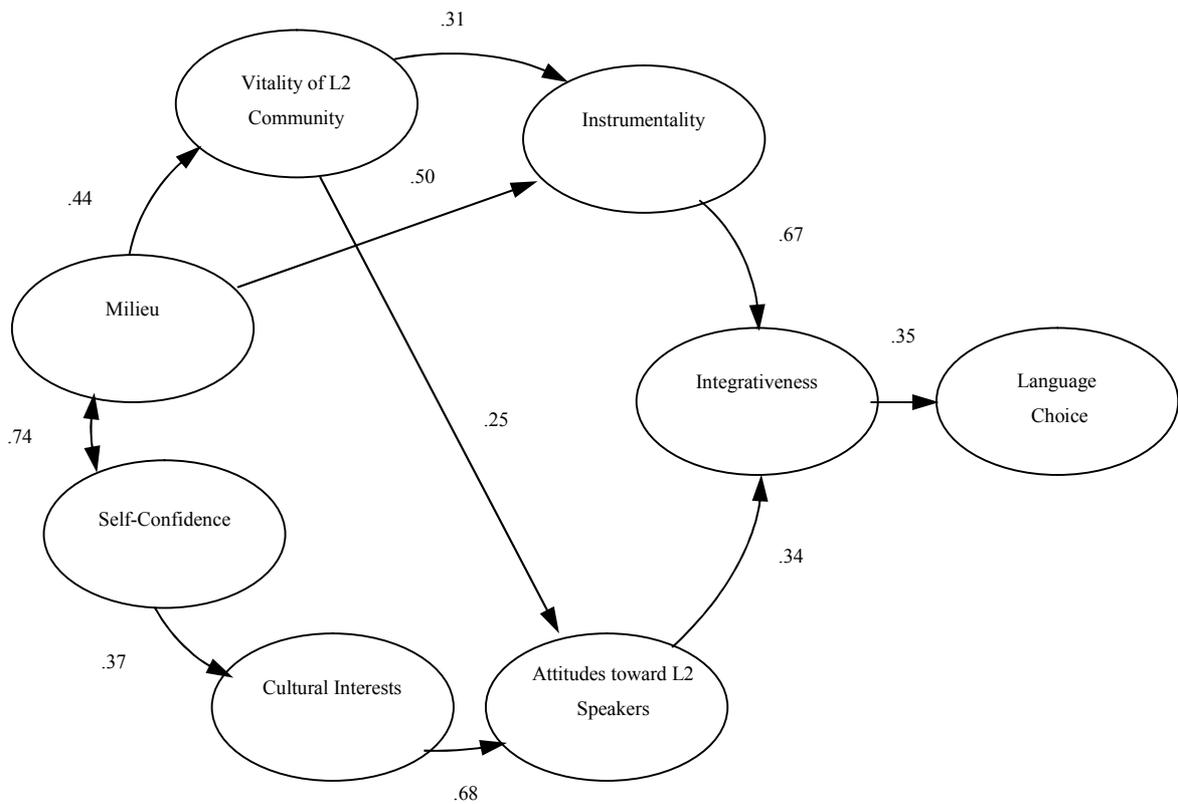
Figure 24 Schematic Representation of the final model by Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) in the Hungarian context (Based on Csizer and Dörnyei, 2005, p.27)

In the present study, the link between *Instrumentality* and *Interaction* was based on Csizer and Dörnyei's (2005) proposed relationship between *Instrumentality*, which is a component identified in both studies and *Integrativeness*. They ststed that the antecedent of Integrativeness—and thus the counterpart of Attitudes toward the L2 Speakers/

Community—was Instrumentality, a component that is associated with utilitarian benefits and goals. Thus, this result in both studies can be interpreted as an indication that integrativeness is closely associated with two very different variables, "faceless" practical incentives and "personal" attitudes toward L2 people and culture. In their study, Csizer and Dörnyei ask, "How can we interpret the content of integrativeness so that it can accommodate both aspects?"

They believe that the solution lies in interpreting *Integrativeness* in a broader sense than has been done before suggesting that that the motivation dimension captured by the term may not be related so much to any actual, or metaphorical, integration into a L2 community as to some more basic identification process within the individual's selfconcept. A useful theoretical framework for examining such an internal identification process has been provided by past research on *possible selves* (e.g., Markus & Nurius, 1986; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004; Ruvolo & Markus, 1992). *Possible selves* represent "individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming, and thus provide a conceptual link between cognition and motivation" (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954).Motivation, therefore, can be seen as the desire to reduce the perceived discrepancies between the learner's actual and possible self. Csizer and Dörnyei's (2005) results triggered many other studies in EFL settings that also incorporate the L2 self system (Pae , 2008, Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizer and Kormos; 2009; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; and Papi, 2010).

Hence, in the present study we can probably interpret that Palestinian students may see their possible selves as representing what they would like to become as L2 speakers in order to be successful in their future careers and studies. Considering the

unique situation in Palestine and the growing relations with foreigners and the outside world, English language learners perceive the English language as the key to success and identify with the ideal L2 self with the ability to communicate using the L2. In light of these findings and interpretations, it is recommended that further research in Palestine is carried out to elaborate on the existence of the possible selves.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

In this concluding chapter, I summarize the significant results of the study. Then, I highlight the significance of the investigation and its implication and recommendations. In the end I discuss the limitations confronted.

7.1 Summary of results

The first research question in this thesis is an inquiry into language learning motivation and its underlying components among Palestinian learners of English in the context of Palestine. The first phase of this investigation allowed for the identification of these constructs. Results revealed four constructs underlying motivation in learning English among Palestinian school children. The two constructs identified for part one of the questionnaire are concerned with *Motivation and Enjoyment* as well as an *Awareness for Need* of the English language in Palestine. As for part two of the questionnaire, the two constructs identified are concerned with reasons for learning the English language. In factor three these reasons are instrumental in nature with academic and career orientations as the highest loadings. Factor four, on the other hand, refers to interactive reasons for

learning English. In addition, results show a relatively strong endorsement of the first three factors with factor three as the highest. Factor 4 has the lowest endorsement level indicating varying perspectives concerning the desire to interact with L2 people/culture.

The next pahse deals with the second research question about how these underlying constructs relate to each other and to achievement. This involved the development of a complete structural model which was tested for goodness of fit. Results revealed a good fit with strong positive relations between Instrumentality →Interaction, Instrumentality→Motivation, Motivation and Achievement, Awareness for Need →Achievement, and Awareness for Need →Instrumentality.

Finally, the third research question was an inquiry into how 'other variables' (independent variables) impacted motivation and the constructs identified. MANOVA results revealed that other impacting variables such as district, grade level, and parents' education level have shown significant differences on two of the four factors, *Motivation and Enjoyment* and *Interaction with L2 people/culture*. Further univariate ANOVAs revealed another significant interaction between *Instrumentality*, father's level of education and type of school. This conforms to research findings in the field of language learning motivation which has shown that individual and demographic differences have an impact on attitudes towards learning an L2.

7.2 Conclusions and recommendations

Results support that English certainly has a great impact on Palestinian learning and thus motivating students to learn. According to factor analysis and level of endorsement, *Instrumentality* and *Awareness for the need* are found among Palestinian

students to be strongly endorsed. Although the *Interaction* construct, related to an integrative orientation may exist, it is apparent that it is not as strongly supported. It could be that the frame of reference for integrativeness and integrative orientation in this context like in many EFL contexts continues to change as the status of the English language becomes more global. According to the model in this study, *motivation* and *need* have a direct impact on achievement and this is not the case for *interaction* or *instrumentality*.

According to descriptive data, Palestinian students seem to generally show high motivation and appear to show some interest in foreigners and L2 cultural aspects. However, further research is still needed to deeply observe if this type of integrative motivation is towards the actual desire to integrate into English speaking communities and their cultures (USA and Britain), or is the English language seen as "a window on the world " and the language of an international community outside of Palestine.

Nevertheless, education will remain very important to Palestinians. Due to the continuous conflict generation after generation, they are motivated to work hard and be successful hoping to open new and more hopeful opportunities for the future. Results revealed that one of the most important reasons for learning the English language is to continue studies at the university level. Again this is a result of the large role English plays in the education system, which continues to grow and develop. Yet further research is still needed as the status of English continues to change in Palestine; in order to get a more complete picture more qualitative data should be collected using interviews to provide essential information to form a complete picture and understand the types of motivation and attitudes Palestinian students have towards learning English. The responses to the semi-structured questions provided a deeper insight into student's

attitudes and reasons for learning the language. This emphasizes the importance and need for more qualitative data in further research.

As the situation in Palestine continues to change for the better and sometimes for the worse, attitudes towards learning and especially towards the languages taught in the schools will continue to be affected. The Palestinians continue to develop their own English curriculum and educational system thus constantly changing learning conditions, always leaving room for more and more research in the field of motivation. It would be interesting to carry out further investigations examining the tripartite construct of self: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience of Palestinian students as related by their integration into the imagined global world.

Concerning the implications of this study, I have learned that this type of research is vital to second language instructors as well as curriculum designers. Taking into consideration motivation and its constructs can help in creating a learning environment that is specific to the context the language is used in. Having knowledge of student attitudes, orientations, concerns and interests will therefore increase our understanding as instructors and as a result increase student motivation. According to research and the findings in this study this increase in motivation will have a positive impact on achievement.

Moreover, results revealed that influential variables such as district, age, and the parents' academic level also have an impact on the motivational constructs identified. Parents' attitudes and the socio-economic level in the end have a significant effect on the students' attitudes and reasons for learning English, hence either enhancing or impairing

motivation and achievement. With this knowledge educators can work with a better understanding of L2 motivation within the Palestinian context.

7.3 Limitations of the study and further research

The present research has some limitations associated with sampling, the survey method, in addition to conceptual and measurement issues. As described in chapter 5, the study began with the intention and plans to have a representative sample of the Palestinian student population of the various grade levels and districts. However, due to many physical obstacles and difficulties of movement among the different districts in the West Bank, a convenience sample was used.

Another limiting factor was confronted in the development and adaptation of the questionnaire items. The original questionnaire is in the Catalan language; the English translated version of this questionnaire was used for the pilot study (Musleh, 2006) and further translated into Arabic for use with Palestinian students. For reporting purposes, the modified questionnaire was translated once again into English however the validity of the translated form was not assessed prior to the administration of the questionnaire. It has been assumed that the researcher was capable of accurately translating with these languages.

The third limitation was the reliability level for factor four, *Interaction with L2 people/culture*, which was low (probably influence by the fact that the scale contained few items). In future research in Palestine, this factor is worthy of further investigation.

Another important limitation was the use of a questionnaire that has been developed in a different context in which English plays a different role than in Palestine.

Review of recent literature and the findings in the present study have shed light on constructs that may exist in Palestine, but have not emerged. It is suggested that in future research in the Palestinian context, the same steps followed towards the development of FLAGS (Cid et al., 2009) be applied to develop a questionnaire that may reveal different and more accurate findings.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Distribution of Palestinian students in the two datasets and total population of districts studied

Description of Foreign Language Learners in Two Samples and Target Population

Demographic category		SamplePopulation *N*= 1,133	Population[a] *N*=219,502
Gender	Male	546 (48%)	50%
	Female	587 (52%)	50%
Grade level	Grade 6	52 (4.6%)	6.7%
	Grade 7	75 (6.6%)	7.3%
	Grade 8	96 (8.5%)	5.9%
	Grade 9	216 (19.1%)	5.5%
	Grade 10	308 (27%)	6%
	Grade 11	276 (24.4%)	4.3%
	Grade 12	110 (9.7%)	4%
School type	Public	823 (72.6%)	92%
	Private	310 (27.4%)	8%
Province	Nablus	465 (41%)	43%
	Jerusalem and suburbs	379 (33.5%)	26%
	Salfeet	147 (13%)	23%
	Bethlehem	142 (12.5%)	8%

[a]Population estimates based on academic year 2005-2006.

Appendix 2 Letter from the Ministry of Education

Appendix 3 Questionnaire (back-translation from Arabic) with overall means and standard deviations

A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**
Strongly agree	agree	Slightly agree	Slightly disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree

Part One

25 items (α=0.86)	Mean	S.D.
1. I like learning English.	4.09	1.358
2. When I grow up, I want to know how to speak English.	4.16	1.286
3. I like it when the teacher talks to us in English.	3.17	1.595
4. In general, I find it easy to learn languages.	3.22	1.363
5. You don't need to speak English in order to find a job.	3.48	1.638
6. In general, I find learning English fun.	3.53	1.518
7. I don't think you need to speak English because nowadays almost everything is translated or dubbed.	3.50	1.689
8. I am not interested in learning English.	3.95	1.498
9. In general, I do very well in English.	3.30	1.500
10. I don't think I need English when I grow up.	3.96	1.496
11. I think English is a nice language.	3.63	1.598
12. For me it's not important to speak another language other than Arabic.	3.87	1.593
13. I can notice that my level of English is improving.	3.61	1.440
14. I find it difficult to understand the English tapes that we listen to in class.	2.44	1.647
15. In the English lesson I pay close attention to the activities that the teacher tells us to do.	3.79	1.344
16. When I see something in English I try to understand it.	4.22	1.107
17. I would like to learn more languages apart from English.	3.85	1.514
18. I don't think that I will ever know enough English to understand movies.	3.10	1.652
19. I really want to learn English.	4.23	1.374
20. English is the sign of an educated person.	3.32	1.697
21. I study English only because it is an obligatory school subject.	3.29	1.827
22. I would like to travel and visit England or the USA.	4.03	1.597
23. I would like to be able to speak with English people.	4.28	1.341
24. I would like to meet people who speak English.	4.03	1.382
25. I am not interested in the English language.	4.03	1.452

Part Two

	A	B	C	D	E	F
	Very important	Important	Quite important	Slightly important	Not important	Not important at all

13 items (α=.76)	Mean	S.D.
26. I want to learn English to travel abroad for touristic reasons during vacations.	3.32	1.590
27. I want to learn English to be better trained for the future.	4.13	1.215
28. I want to learn English because I will need it in the job I would like to have.	4.01	1.315
29. I want to learn English to use computers and surf the net.	4.08	1.229
30. I want to learn English because I am interested in being able to interact with people from other countries.	2.58	1.748
31. I want to learn English because I want to read books in English.	3.33	1.639
32. I want to learn English so I can watch movies without translation in original version.	3.12	1.771
33. I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies.	4.45	1.074
34. I want to learn English to have more job opportunities.	4.18	1.223
35. I want to learn English to understand things written in English from everyday life like notices, advertisements, t-shirts, brand names, etc.	3.98	1.280
36. I want to learn English to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English.	4.14	1.271
37. I want to learn English because English is a language that many people in the world speak and nowadays you must be able to speak it.	3.90	1.318
38. I want to learn English to be able to sing and understand the songs that I like.	2.68	1.867

Appendix 4 Semi-structured questions- English and Arabic

Dear Student,

- **Please answer the following interview questions honestly giving your own opinion.**

- **The questions should be answered by Palestinian students from ages 12-18.**

- **Your answers will remain anonymous (that is your name will not be used).**

Thank you for your cooperation.

Interview Questions

1. **Do you like English? why?**

2. **Do you like learning English? Why?**

3. **How long have you been learning English? Where?**

4. **Do you think English is an important language?**

5. **Are you good at English?**

6. **Do you need English now?**

7. **Do you think you will need English when you grow up? For what?**

8. **Tell me about your English class….what do you think about it?**

9. **What activities do you like doing in English class? What do you dislike?**

10. **Do you use English outside school? In which situations?**

عزيزي الطالب ،

- الرجاء الاجابه على الاسئلة التالية بصدق و برأيك الخاص.
- الإجابة سَتظل مجهولة الهوية (أي أن اسمك لن يُسْتَخْدَم).

1. هل تحب الانجليزية؟ لماذا؟

2. هل تُحب تعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟ لماذا؟

3. منذ متى تتعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟ و أين؟

4. هل تعتقد ان اللغة الانجليزية هي لُغة هامّة؟

5. هل انت جيد في الانجليزية ؟

6. هل انت بحاجة إلى اللُغة الانجليزية الآن؟

7. هل تعتقد انك ستحتاج الانجليزية عندما تكبر؟ لماذا؟

8. أخبرني عن حصةِ اللُغةالانجليزية .... ما رأيك بها؟

9. ما هي الأنشطة التي تحب عملِها في حصةِ اللُغةالانجليزية ؟ و التي لا تُحِب عملِها؟

10. هل تستخدم الانجليزية خارج المدرسة؟ في اي الحالات؟

Appendix 5 Student background information sheet

<div dir="rtl">

معلومات شخصيةِللطالب

المدرسة: _____ الصَّف: _____

تاريخ الميلاد: _____ مكان الولادة: _____

علامة الفصل الأوّل في موضوع اللُّغة الإنجليزية: _____

العائلة

تَحصيل العِلمي الأب:

☐ إبـتـد ائـي   ☐ ثـــانـوي   ☐ توجيهي   ☐ جامعة

تَحصيل العِلمي الأُم:

☐ إبـتـد ائـي   ☐ ثـــانـوي   ☐ توجيهي   ☐ جامعة

عَمَل الأُم: _____ عَمَل الأب: _____

</div>

Appendix 6 Development and adaptation of questionnaire items

Catalan Questionnaire	Pilot Questionnaire	Final Questionnaire Present Study
1. M'agrada aprendre anglès.	1. I like learning English.	39. I like learning English.
5. De gran voldré saber anglès.	2. When I grow up, I want to know how to speak English.	40. When I grow up, I want to know how to speak English.
6. M'agrada que el professor/a ens parli en anglès.	3. I like it when the teacher talks to us in English.	41. I like it when the teacher talks to us in English.
8. En general, tinc facilitat per aprendre idiomes.	4. In general, I find it easy to learn languages.	42. In general, I find it easy to learn languages.
9. No cal saber anglès per trobar feina.	5. You don't need to speak English in order to find a job.	43. You don't need to speak English in order to find a job.
12. En general, trobo que aprendre anglès és divertit.	6. In general, I find learning English fun.	44. In general, I find learning English fun.
13. No crec que calgui saber anglès, ja que avui dia gairebé tot està traduït o doblat.	7. I don't think you need to speak English because nowadays almost everything is translated or dubbed.	45. I don't think you need to speak English because nowadays almost everything is translated or dubbed.
15. No m'interessa aprendre anglès.	8. I am not interested in learning English.	46. I am not interested in learning English.
16. En general, l'anglès em va molt bé.	9. In general, I do very well in English.	47. In general, I do very well in English.
19. No crec que l'anglès em faci falta quan sigui gran.	10. I don't think I need English when I grow up.	48. I don't think I need English when I grow up.
20. L'anglès em sembla una llengua maca.	11. I think English is a nice language.	49. I think English is a nice language.
21. Per a mi no és important saber una altra llengua a part del català i/o el castellà.	12. For me it's not important to speak another language other than Arabic.	50. For me it's not important to speak another language other than Arabic.
25. Noto que el meu nivell d'anglès va millorant.	13. I can notice that my level of English is improving.	51. I can notice that my level of English is improving.
26. Em costa entendre els vídeos o les cassets que el/la professor/a ens posa a classe.	14. I find it difficult to understand the English tapes that we listen to in class.	52. I find it difficult to understand the English tapes that we listen to in class.
27. A la classe d'anglès poso molt d'interès en les activitats que ens fa fer el/la professor/a.	15. In the English lesson I pay close attention to the activities that the teacher tells us to do.	53. In the English lesson I pay close attention to the activities that the teacher tells us to do.
28. Hi ha altres idiomes que m'agraden més que l'anglès.	16. There are other foreign languages that I like more than English.	deleted

29. Quan veig alguna cosa en anglès m'hi fixo per veure si l'entenc.	17. When I see something in English I try to understand it	54. When I see something in English I try to understand it.
30. M'agradaria aprendre més idiomes, a part de l'anglès.	18.I would like to learn more languages apart from English.	55. I would like to learn more languages apart from English.
32. Crec que mai <u>no</u> sabré prou anglès per entendre pel·lícules.	19. I don't think that I will ever know enough English to understand movies.	56. I don't think that I will ever know enough English to understand movies.
36. Realment vull aprendre anglès.	20. I really want to learn English.	57. I really want to learn English.
	21. English is the sign of an educated person.	58. English is the sign of an educated person.
	22. I study English only because it is an obligatory school subject.	59. I study English only because it is an obligatory school subject.
	23. I would like to travel and visit England or the USA.	60. I would like to travel and visit England or the USA.
	24. I don't need to learn English.	deleted
	25.I would like to be able to speak with English people.	61. I would like to be able to speak with English people.
	26.I would like to meet people who speak English.	62. I would like to meet people who speak English.
	27.I am not interested in the English language.	63. I am not interested in the English language.
37. Per viatjar a l'estranger i fer turisme durant les vacances.	28.I want to learn English to travel abroad for touristic reasons during vacations.	64. I want to learn English to travel abroad for touristic reasons during vacations.
49. Perquè algun dia m'agradaria anar a viure o estudiar en un altre país.	29. I want to learn English because I want to live abroad when I grow up.	deleted
38. Per estar més ben preparat pel al futur.	30.I want to learn English to be better trained for the future.	65. I want to learn English to be better trained for the future.
41. Perquè el necessitaré en la feina que m'agradaria fer.	31.I want to learn English because I will need it in the job I would like to have.	66. I want to learn English because I will need it in the job I would like to have.
42. Per navegar per Internet.	32.I want to learn English to use computers and surf the net.	67. I want to learn English to use computers and surf the net.
43. Perquè m'interessa poder comunicar-me amb gent d'altres països.	33.I want to learn English because I am interested in being able to interact with people from other countries.	68. I want to learn English because I am interested in being able to interact with people from other countries.

44. Perquè a la vida s'ha d'aprendre de tot.	34. I want to learn English because in this life you must learn a bit of everything.	deleted
45. Perquè quan sigui gran m'agradarà llegir llibres en anglès.	35. I want to learn English because I want to read books in English.	69. I want to learn English because I want to read books in English.
46. Perquè algun dia m'agradaria poder veure pel·lícules en versió original.	36.I want to learn English so I can watch movies without translation in original version.	70. I want to learn English so I can watch movies without translation in original version.
47. Perquè em farà falta per continuar estudiant.	37.I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies.	71. I want to learn English because I will need it in university studies.
48. Per tenir més possibilitats de trobar feina.	38.I want to learn English to have more job opportunities.	72. I want to learn English to have more job opportunities.
51. Per entendre coses en anglès de la vida diària (rètols, noms de marques, anuncis, samarretes, etc.)	39.I want to learn English to understand things written in English from everyday life like notices, advertisements, t-shirts, brand names, etc.	73. I want to learn English to understand things written in English from everyday life like notices, advertisements, t-shirts, brand names, etc.
52. Per poder respondre si un turista se m'adreça en anglès.	40.I want to learn English to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English.	74. I want to learn English to be able to answer if a tourist talks to me in English.
53. Perquè l'anglès és una llengua que parla molta gent al món i avui dia cal saber-la.	41.I want to learn English because English is a language that many people in the world speak and nowadays you must be able to speak it.	75. I want to learn English because English is a language that many people in the world speak and nowadays you must be able to speak it.
54. Per poder entendre i cantar les cançons que m'agraden.	42.I want to learn English to be able to sing and understand the songs that I like.	76. I want to learn English to be able to sing and understand the songs that I like.

* New items added to pilot questionnaire based on suggestions from Palestinian English teachers.

** Items deleted because of overlap in content with other items and based on pilot study results of tests for reliability and vaildity.

Appendix 7 Arabic Questionnaire

✎ **إستفتاء عن المواقف نحو تعلّم الإنجليزية في المدرسة**

الجزء الأول

اختار وأكتب الحرف للجواب الذي يعبر عن رأيك الجدي فيما يلي، جاوب بحسب الميزان التالي:

F	E	D	C	B	A
لا أوافق جداً	لا أوافق	قليلاً لا أوافق	موافق قليلاً	موافق	موافق جداً

F	E	D	C	B	A	
○	○	○	○	○	○	1. أنا أحب أن اتعلم اللّغة الإنجليزية.
○	○	○	○	○	○	2. عندما أكبر أريد أن أتقن اللّغة الإنجليزية.
○	○	○	○	○	○	3. أحب عندما تتكلم معنا المعلّم/ة بالإنجليزية.
○	○	○	○	○	○	4. بشكل عام, أتعلّم اللّغات بسهولة.
○	○	○	○	○	○	5. **لا** أحتاج أن نَعرف الإنجليزية لِنَجد عَمَل.
○	○	○	○	○	○	6. بشكل عام, أجد تَعَلّم اللّغة الإنجليزية مُمْتِعاً.
○	○	○	○	○	○	7. **لا** أظن أننا نحتاج تكلّم اللّغة الإنجليزية لأن تقريباً كلِّ شيء مترجم أو مُدبْلج هذه الأيام.
○	○	○	○	○	○	8. أنا **لست** مُهتم بتعلّم الإنجليزية.
○	○	○	○	○	○	9. بشكل عام, دراسَتِي جيّدة في موضوع الإنجليزية.
○	○	○	○	○	○	10. **لا** أظن أنني سَأحتاج الإنجليزية عندما أكبر.
○	○	○	○	○	○	11. أنا أظن أن الإنجليزية لُغة جميلة.
○	○	○	○	○	○	12. **ليسَ** مهماً تكلُّم لُغة أُخرى غير العربية.
○	○	○	○	○	○	13. أُلاحظ أن مستواي في الإنجليزية يتحسَّن.
○	○	○	○	○	○	14. مِن الصَعْبِ أن أفهم الكسيتات التي نَسْتَمِعُ إليها في الصَّف.
○	○	○	○	○	○	15. في الحصة الإنجليزية أنتبه جيداً إلى النشاطات التي تَطْلُب المُعلّمة مِنا أن نفعلها.
○	○	○	○	○	○	16. عندما أرى أشياء في اللّغة الإنجليزية أُحاول أن أَفهَمُها.
○	○	○	○	○	○	17. أحب أن أتعلّم لُغات أكثر بالإضافة إلى اللّغة الإنجليزية.

F	E	D	C	B	A	
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	18. أظن أنني **لن**أعرف أبداً إنجليزية بشكل يَكْفي لِفَهْم الأفلام.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	19. حقاً أريد أن أتعلَّم الإنجليزية.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	20. الإنجليزية هي عَلامة الإنسان المُثقف.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	21. أدرس الإنجليزية فَقَط لأنها مادة مفروضة علينا في المدرسة.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	22. أتَمَنّى أن أسافر وأزور إنجلترا أو أمريكا.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	23. أحب أن أكون قادر على التَّكَلُّم مع الإنجليز.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	24.أحب أن أتعرَّف على أشخاص يَتَكَلَّمونَ الإنجليزية.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	25. أنا**لست**ُ مهتم في اللُغة الإنجليزية.

الجزء الثاني

في هذا الجزء نَتَعامَل مع الأسباب التي تَجْعَل الشخص يتعلَّم الإنجليزية. اختار وأكتب الحرف للجواب الذي يعبر عن رأيك الجدي فيما يلي ، جاوب بحسب الميزان التالي:

F	E	D	C	B	A
قطعاً غير مُهم	غير مُهم	مُهم قليلاً	مُهم نوعاً ما	مُهم	مُهم جداً
👎👎👎	👎👎	👎	👍	👍👍	👍👍👍

أريد أن أتَعَلَّم الإنجليزية ....

F	E	D	C	B	A	
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	26لِلسَفَر إلى بلاد أجنبية لأِ سباب سياحية في العطلة الصَيْفية.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	27. لأكون جاهز أكثر لِلمُسْتَقْبَل.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	28. لأنني سأحتاج الإنجليزية في الوَظيفة الذي أريدها.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	29. لِلبحثِ في الإنترنَت و استعمال الكمبيوتر.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	30. لأنني مهتم بالإتصال مع أشخاص من بلاد أجنبية.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	31. لأنني أريد أن أقرأ كُتُب بالإنجليزية.
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	32. لأنني أريد أن أشاهد الأفلام الإنجليزية بدون تَرجمة.

○	○	○	○	○	○	33. لأنني سأحتاج اللُغة الإنجليزية في الجامِعَة.
○	○	○	○	○	○	34.لِلحُصول على فُرَصٍ أكثر للعمل في المُستقبل.
○	○	○	○	○	○	35. لِفهم أشياء مَكتوبة بالإنجليزية من الحياة اليومية مثل الإعلانات, المار ْكات, الكِتابة على المَلابس, ألخ.
○	○	○	○	○	○	36. لِكي أسطتيع أن أجاوب إذا تكلَّم معي شخص أجنبي.
○	○	○	○	○	○	37. لأن كثير من الناس في العالم يتكلَّمون اللُغة الإنجليزية و اليوم يجب أن نعرفها.
○	○	○	○	○	○	38. لِكي أسطتيع أن أفهم و أُغَنّي الأغاني الذي أُحِبُها بالإنجليزية.

النهاية

شكراً على تعاونك.

Appendix 8 FLAGS (Catalan Questionnaire)

<u>**ENQUESTA D'ACTITUDS SOBRE L'APRENENTATGE DE L'ANGLÈS**</u>

Aquest qüestionari consta de dos apartats amb una sèrie de preguntes que hauràs de respondre segons una escala del A (molt d'acord o molt important) al F (gens d'acord o gens important). Marca <u>una</u> opció per cada pregunta al full de respostes. Tingues en compte que les teves respostes es tractaran confidencialment i que el teu professor/a no les tindrà en compte. Abans de començar, fixa't en els següents exemples de resposta d'una persona a qui agrada anar al cinema:

---

1. M'agrada anar al cinema.

   A molt d'acord   B d'acord   C una mica d'acord   D poc d'acord   E no d'acord   F gens d'acord

2. <u>No</u> m'agrada anar al cinema.

   A molt d'acord   B d'acord   C una mica d'acord   D poc d'acord   E no d'acord   F gens d'acord

---

Gràcies per la teva col·laboració.

APARTAT 1
Posa una creu per indicar quina és la teva opinió sincera sobre les <u>afirmacions</u> següents. Contesta segons l'escala següent:

| A	B	C	D	E	F
estic molt d'acord	estic d'acord	estic una mica d'acord	estic poc d'acord	no estic d'acord	no estic gens 'acord

1. M'agrada aprendre anglès.

2. En general, les classes d'anglès sempre se m'han fet llargues.

3. L'anglès és un idioma que m'atreu.

4. A la classe d'anglès estic menys atent que a la resta de classes.

5. De gran voldré saber anglès.

6. M'agrada que el professor/a ens parli en anglès.

7. No m'agrada com sona l'anglès.

8. En general, tinc facilitat per aprendre idiomes.

9. No cal saber anglès per trobar feina.

10. Si no es fes anglès a l'escola i pogués triar, m'agradaria fer-ne en algun altre lloc.

11. M'agrada com ensenyen l'anglès a l'escola.

12. En general, trobo que aprendre anglès és divertit.

13. No crec que calgui saber anglès, ja que avui dia gairebé tot està traduït o doblat.

14. M'agradaria arribar a parlar l'anglès igual que parlo el castellà i/o el català.

15. No m'interessa aprendre anglès.

16. En general, l'anglès em va molt bé.

17. Sempre m'han agradat els idiomes.

18. Si pogués triar les assignatures que més m'agraden, probablement no triaria anglès.

19. No crec que l'anglès em faci falta quan sigui gran.

20. L'anglès em sembla una llengua maca.

21. Per a mi no és important saber una altra llengua a part del català i/o el castellà.

22. De vegades no entenc els deures d'anglès.

23. Quan marxi de l'institut no voldria continuar estudiant anglès.

24. M'agrada la classe d'anglès perquè és més distreta que les altres.

25. Noto que el meu nivell d'anglès va millorant.

26. Em costa entendre els vídeos o les cassets que el/la professor/a ens posa a classe.

27. A la classe d'anglès poso molt d'interès en les activitats que ens fa fer el/la professor/a.

28. Hi ha altres idiomes que m'agraden més que l'anglès.

29. Quan veig alguna cosa en anglès m'hi fixo per veure si l'entenc.

30. M'agradaria aprendre més idiomes, a part de l'anglès.

31. Normalment el que fem a classe és avorrit.

32. Crec que mai <u>no</u> sabré prou anglès per entendre pel·lícules.

33. Normalment a casa repasso el que hem fet a la classe d'anglès.

34. <u>No</u> em costa entendre el/la professor/a quan parla en anglès.

35. Trobo difícils la majoria de regles en anglès.

36. Realment vull aprendre anglès.

APARTAT 2

En aquest apartat trobaràs possibles raons per voler aprendre anglès. N'hi ha alguna que fa que vulguis aprendre anglès i que, per tant, sigui important <u>per a tu</u>? Respon segons l'escala següent:

A	B	C	D	E	F
És molt important	És important	És bastant important	És poc important	No és important	No és gens important
👍👍👍	👍👍	👍	👎	👎👎	👎👎👎

Vull aprendre anglès...

37. Per viatjar a l'estranger i fer turisme durant les vacances.

38. Per estar més ben preparat pel al futur.

39. Perquè m'agrada aprendre coses noves.

40. Per entendre notícies en anglès a la televisió quan sigui gran.

41. Perquè el necessitaré en la feina que m'agradaria fer.

42. Per navegar per Internet.

43. Perquè m'interessa poder comunicar-me amb gent d'altres països.

44. Perquè a la vida s'ha d'aprendre de tot.

45. Perquè quan sigui gran m'agradarà llegir llibres en anglès.

46. Perquè algun dia m'agradaria poder veure pel·lícules en versió original.

47. Perquè em farà falta per continuar estudiant.

48. Per tenir més possibilitats de trobar feina.

49. Perquè algun dia m'agradaria anar a viure o estudiar en un altre país.

50. Perquè vull saber una llengua més, a part del català i el castellà.

51. Per entendre coses en anglès de la vida diària (rètols, noms de marques, anuncis, samarretes,
    etcètera).

52. Per poder respondre si un turista se m'adreça en anglès.

53. Perquè l'anglès és una llengua que parla molta gent al món i avui dia cal saber-la.

54. Per poder entendre i cantar les cançons que m'agraden.

55. Per poder conèixer gent d'altres països.

Appendix 9 Instruction Letter to Teachers

To whom it may concern:

With this letter I am sending instructions about how the data should be collected for my study. I am also sending two sheets: one containing the questionnaire, and the other list of questions for the students to answer. Both can be completed in the time of one class period. Instructions for how the questionnaire (الإستفتاء) and the questions are to be presented to the students are attached to this letter. I will also be sending a sheet for teacher observations with the instructions (لِملاحظات المُعَلِمة).

After the students are finished with the questionnaire and list of questions, please have them fill out the student personal data sheet (للطالبمعلومات شخصية).

It would be convenient if the data was collected and the questionnaires were completed at one time. Someone will come by to pick up all the papers once they are completed.

Finally, I would like to thank you for your cooperation. Once the data has been collected and analyzed for all the participating schools, I will send you the general observations and results and an individual brief summary about the students at your school.

If you have any questions about the information sent to you please feel free to contact me by email.

Thank You,
Rana Al-Surkhi
Ra.omar@gmail.com

Instructions

Please have the students complete the questionnaire first, then the list of questions, and finally the personal data sheet. Start by **only** handing out the questionnaire first.

Questionnaire (الإستفتاء عن المواقف نحو تعلّم الإنجليزية)

Estimated time needed (from 15 o 20 minutes according to age of students).

1) Begin by asking the students to write their names, date, name of school, and grade at the top of the questionnaire.

2) *Answering the questionnaire.*

   – Before the students start answering, please read the information on the questionnaire and how to answer the questions in a loud voice in front of all the students in the class.

   – Make sure the students make a clear answer to each item on the questionnaire.

   – Use pencils, so the students can erase if they make a mistake.

   – During the time of the questionnaire the students should remain quiet without making any comments out loud.

   – If the students have a problem with comprehension or reading of any of the items, they can ask the teacher for help.

   – Give the students the time they need to answer all the questions.

   – It is very important that once a student is finished, that you take a look at the questionnaire and make sure that all the questions are answered.

   – Please collect the questionnaire sheets before beginning with the questions.

Questions:

   – The students should answer these questions after completing the questionnaire. They are to answer with short answers on the same sheet. In cases of yes/no questions, the student should provide a short explanation for his/her answer.

Finally, the students should fill out the personal data sheet (معلومات شخصية لِلطالب).

Thank you again for your cooperation.

مُلاحظات المُعَلِّمة

المَدرسة: الصَّف: الشُعبة:

الوَقت الذي أخَذَ الطُلاب إستغرق الإستِفتاء : _____

هَل حَصَلَ أي مُشكلة ؟

الإستفتاء عن المواقف نحو تعلّم الإنجليزية في المدرسة

هل يوجَد سؤال سَبَّبَ أي مُشكلة أو صُعوبة؟ أي سؤال؟ ولِماذا؟

إذا تَظُن أن يوجد في هذا الصَّفِ أي طالب/ة عِندها/مُشكلة في القِراءةِ أو مُشكلة جَدَّيّة في الفهمِ , أو يوجد طالب/ة لم يُجاوب بشكل جَدّي على الإستفتاء , و لِهذا سَيُأثر على النتائجِ , أكتب/ي إسمه/ها هنا :

شكراً جَزيلاً على تعاونك.