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An Investigation of Arab Students’ Motivation for Learning English

Abdul Rahman Omar, BA (Hons), MA.

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)

November 2019
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Abstract

This study investigated what factors motivate L1 Arab learners of English at the University of Huddersfield, whether Arab students’ motivation changes during their university course, and, if there is any change, how it influences students’ second language proficiency level. In particular, this study aimed to examine the relationship between students’ level of motivation and their proficiency level in English. In order to investigate these factors, I adopted the mixed method represented by the quantitative and qualitative research techniques which have been applied sequentially at two points (1) at the start of their English language course (2) and at the end of the course. The data were collected from Arab students enrolled on the ESUS Course, English Skills for University Study, at the International Study Centre at University of Huddersfield (N=42). The findings showed that of the multiple factors which motivate L1 Arab students to learn English, the first among them are an interest in foreign languages and instrumental motivation to find a job and pass exams. This research introduced a new definition of Integrativeness. The traditional concept of integrativeness states that the L2 student learns English because they have a positive attitude towards the native speakers or want to be a part of the native community. This was not reflected in the research as the students were learning English to become a part of the international community (whose members speak English). Students in this research were learning English to become a part of the international community whose members speak English. The data collected in this research showed that there was no correlation between students’ L2 motivation and their proficiency level. Students’ motivation scores at the beginning and the end of their English course were compared to their entry and final exam results and no statistically significant correlation was found. In addition, students’ change in motivation was compared with their entry, final and change in exam performance and no statistically significant correlation was found here either. This suggests that the traditional role of L2 motivation in learning a target language has changed over the last few decades. The traditional role played by motivation in learning a second language has been minimized during the last few decades. The considerations of more important factors such as the personal differences, teaching style in schools and universities and the openness of some closed regions to the English civilization and lifestyle have limited the influence of motivation on the L2 learning process.
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Acknowledgements

I would like to start by thanking Almighty Allah for many things He bestowed me with, among which is completing this research study. I acknowledge gratitude to the many people who stood by me during this journey of carrying out research and writing a PhD dissertation, among whom is my supervisor, Dr Jim O’ Driscoll, who guided me throughout this research. I would like to thank my supervisor without whose support, valuable feedback and guidance, this thesis might not have been completed. I consider Dr Jim O’ Driscoll to be my academic parent who has been a true inspiration to me during my study journey at Huddersfield University. I would like also to thank the academic staff at Huddersfield University who supported me and believed in my research and allowed me to collect data from Huddersfield University students.

I am also so grateful to my supportive parents, Mr Bashir Omar and Mrs Shukria Hassan, who always stood by my side in my difficult times and who showed great encouragement during my study. Their unconditional love and support kept me motivated during my study and enabled me to finish my PhD research. I also thank all my family members who believed in me and supported me to finish this research. Special thanks are due to all my friends within and outside the UK who also supported and encouraged me during my study.

Very special thanks to Dr Zoltan Dörnyei and Dr Robert Gardner, who inspired me throughout this study by introducing me to their valuable books and articles about L2 motivation.
Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 The Origins of this Thesis

My first formal English lesson was given in the year 2000 during 6th grade in Damascus. By then, I had already been watching British television programmes, such as the cartoon the Crystal Maze, Sharky and George and the U.S. comedy Friends and had developed some basic English proficiency. I hoped the English lessons in school would help me improve further. Unfortunately, the teaching quality was poor, and the subject was given little time and attention in the curriculum. This is how I started a journey of independent studying, because no other subject held my interest quite like the English language did. I began by tackling short stories written in English, immersing myself in the language by watching television and finally I decided to enroll in a private institute that was dedicated to teaching English as a second language. This journey of self-study and perseverance helped me graduate high school with excellent grades in my best subject, English.

In 2006, I decided to continue pursuing my interest in English and fortunately was admitted onto the Bachelor’s (Hons) programme in English Literature at Aleppo University. During my undergraduate degree, I began tutoring English to high school students. This first-hand teaching experience gave me key insights into the differences between individual students, in particular how my students had both different kinds and different levels of motivation for learning English. My students came from diverse backgrounds, from both urban and rural areas of Syria. The majority wanted to learn English in order to pass their high school exams with the grades necessary for successful university applications. On the other hand, there were other students who had more than this instrumental motivation. like me, they liked the English language per se. This experience was when I started to think more deeply about the role of motivation in learning a language.
My undergraduate degree taught me how to read a text critically, appreciating the different layers of meaning that can be captured by the words we choose, and the way we arrange those words into sentences, paragraphs and ultimately stories. I relished the opportunity to explore the works of Jane Austen, William Shakespeare and Thomas Hardy in my undergraduate degree, but I also enjoyed learning about the life stories and motivations of the students whom I continued to tutor. Together, this motivated me to travel to the UK in 2011 in order to do a Master’s degree in English Language Teaching (ELT) at Leeds Becket University. I choose England as my study destination because after so many years of watching the British lifestyle on television, I wanted to finally experience it in real life.

I chose to pursue English Language Teaching because I had thoroughly enjoyed my previous tutoring experience. Sharing my passion and knowledge for English with others and helping English language learners improve is a fulfilling task, and I wanted to learn how to become a better teacher. Upon entering this university course, many questions came to my mind. As a second language learner myself, I wanted to know what affects my language learning process, what hinders me from achieving my aim of gaining a native-like proficiency level and how to use this knowledge to improve my skills and to better help future students. On a more theoretical level, I was interested in the impact of different teaching and learning styles on the process of learning English. Our tasks during the MA course included designing lesson plans to teach English as a second language. A key take-away from this was that a good teacher should take their students’ needs and goals into consideration. The difficulty, however, was in understanding these needs and goals, and how exactly they would impact on second language learning.

During my MA, I was introduced to the fields of social psychology and applied linguistics giving me the opportunity to further study the role of motivation in second language learning. I was delighted to find that understanding L2 motivation and its role in second language learning was a central research aim in those fields, with
formal designations such as ‘motivation’ and ‘attitude’. The continuous development of L2 motivation from its historical beginnings brought a strong argument that it has a role to play in learning a second language, with prominent researchers, such as: Gardner and Lambert (1972), Chambers (2001), Dörnyei (2005), Lamb (2007), Ushioda (2009).

After reading carefully through the background to L2 motivation research and convinced by its importance in L2 learning, I decided to undertake my dissertation in L2 learners’ motivation towards learning English. Focusing on those students studying English in an English-speaking country (UK). The findings of my dissertation encouraged me to extend my research on L2 motivation further, and so I pursued a Ph.D., in order to further explore the role of motivation in L2 learning and to fulfill my personal interest in this area.

1.2 From Master’s to a PhD

My MA dissertation was based on a small sample of English language learners and I employed a mixed method of analysis, quantitative and qualitative, with the collected data. The study provided me with a strong theoretical and research background and helped me develop my skills as a researcher. Furthermore, the study provided me with some important findings in understanding English language learners’ motivation in an English speaking context. The students had a mixture of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Encouraged by interesting findings, I decided to take this further by starting PhD research on this topic from a wider aspect and with a larger sample. In 2013, after being accepted as a PhD student at Huddersfield University, I moved from Leeds to live in Hudderfield (which was not massive geographical change as the distance between cities is almost 20 minutes by train). I started my PhD study with many questions in mind about L2 motivation, such as the importance of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations in learning an L2 and the interaction (if any) between them. This work is the result of those enquiries.
1.3 Scope of the Study

The phenomenon of learning a language is still a mysterious process that requires further study and examination. Consequently, a continuous research process has been launched and an intensive number of studies are being conducted each year to answer questions raised in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Theories in L2 Motivation (Motivation in Second Language Learning) mostly seek to explain why second language learners select a language, and how they perform it, and the extent to which they persist in various activities and in learning that language per se. In addition, the continuous research to understand the role of L2 Motivation is expected to provide insights and answers to educators and teachers who will in turn benefit from those insights and improve the educational system in general and the process of teaching/learning a target language in particular. Language educators and teachers are more concerned with finding out what hinders their students from learning a target language and how to overcome the difficulties their students face during the process of learning a target language. SLA theories such as L2 Motivation shed light on serious questions about what affects the second language learners’ proficiency level – questions which are yet to be answered.

1.4 The Arabic Context

A study which investigates second language learners’ L2 Motivation should also consider the distinctive educational and socio-political contexts of those learners in order to provide readers with a general clarification of the context of the study. Thus the first section of this study summarized briefly the significant and historical events that characterized the Arabic-speaking region. This review was followed by a brief discussion of ELT (English Language Teaching) in the Arabic world. Before going into more depth, I would like to mention that English Language Teaching (ELT) style differs slightly from one Arabic-speaking country to another, but generally, the ELT system is roughly similar in all Arabic-speaking contexts.
The Arabic-speaking world covers a vast and highly important geographical and economic region which extends from Morocco in the west to Iraq in the east, best known as the Middle East and North Africa. The Arabic world borders Iran and Turkey in the east, central Africa in the south, the Atlantic Ocean in the west and the Mediterranean Sea in the north. The estimated overall population of the Arabic-speaking nation is approximately 363 million, altogether accounting for 5% of world population (Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia, 2013). The Arabic-speaking world is divided into 22 different countries, namely: Syria, Bahrain, Lebanon, Algeria, Tunisia, Egypt, Qatar, Sudan, Djibouti, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Iraq, Jordan, Libya, Morocco, Palestine, the Comoros Islands, Oman, Somalia, Mauritania, and Yemen. The Arabic-speaking world is ethnically and doctrinally heterogeneous (Kurds, Bedouins, Druze, Jews, Armenians, Nubians), and the Arabic language is the dominant language over other spoken languages in the Arabic world, and Islam is the dominant religion.

Figure 1.1 The Arab World Map

After World War I and according to the Sykes–Picot Agreement, a secret agreement signed on 16 May 1916, the Arab world was divided outside the Arabic peninsula (Barr, 2011). The Arab nation was divided politically into 22 countries, some of which were controlled by France and by Britain, while others declared their independence,
such as Saudi Arabia. For instance, Lebanon and Syria were controlled by France, whereas Iraq and Egypt were controlled by Britain.

In late 2010, the uprising and demonstrations that took place in Tunisia caused a dramatic, political and historical change across the Arab region. These protest movements extended to reach the other Arab countries such as Jordan. Jordan experienced a considerable number of waves of protest, but without bloodshed, in what is known as “The Arab Spring”. The Jordanian government could deal with the protest waves successfully and prevented any violent incidents. In January 2011, the protest movements started again in Jordan, as a response to protest waves in Tunisia. The Jordanian government responded directly and pledged $283 million to reduce price hikes as increasing costs of food, petrol and other commodities were among the protesters’ concerns.

1.5 Why Arabic Context? Is this Relevant to Non-Arabic Learners?

This research targeted a specific group of second language learners, Arabic-speaking learners, and investigated their L2 Motivation in learning English. The results obtained in this research are not confined to the Arabic context, a specific context, but rather have wider implications. The Arabic context can be considered as an ideal example in which a certain and longer-term tendency took place with intensive efforts made by Arab governments to improve the process of teaching/learning the English language and to understand the different factors affecting this process. More specifically, the selection of Arabic-speaking learners to investigate their L2 Motivation was established on three facts: 1- the remarkable progress in terms of improving the style of teaching and learning in general and the growing concern about the English language in the Arabic world, 2- the high proportion of Arab learners learning English as a second language in English-speaking countries, 3- the lack of studies investigating Arab-speaking learners’ motivation towards studying English.
1.6 Language Acquisition as a Subject of Inquiry

The phenomenon of acquiring/learning a language is still a controversial question in terms of the various factors which influence this process. Particularly, the process of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is a vague issue which requires further study to specify the potential role of each factor in regard to its influence on acquiring/learning a Second Language (L2). It is important to understand the relationship between the different factors which affect the process of learning a second language and the proficiency level achieved by its learners. Understanding this relationship is to build a new vision in the education field determining the different factors that affect learning an L2, rating from the most influential to the less influential. The study of a second language learner’s motivation role in SLA is one of the most examined subjects, with dozens of research articles and several books concerned with it. Yet in spite of this well-examined area of SLA, the role of L2 Motivation, it is surprising how deficient and incomplete our knowledge of this subject is. This research explicated and shed light on the varied factors which determine the proficiency level of second language learners.

A successful process of second language learning requires many conditions and procedures to be applied, but most researchers and linguists would agree on the significant role of motivation as one of the key factors that affect the success and rate of second language learners. Motivation is widely considered as a prime impulse to initiate and sustain learners’ efforts through the process of learning a second language. Therefore, exploring L2 learner’s motivation in learning a target language has occupied a prominent position on language researchers’ and applied linguists’ agenda. The gap in our knowledge about the exact nature of motivation in determining learners’ achievement is continually widening. This, of course, is due to the fact of unreasonable concentration on motivation in L2 learning as a theory which attempts to explore nothing but how learners act and why, regardless of the contextual factors that affect learners’ behaviour (cognition and achievement).
Because of its important role in learning a second language, researchers and practitioners alike targeted L2 Motivation as subject of interest and done a great deal of theorizing and empirical research. Until the 1990s, the nature of motivation was completely dominated by the social psychological approach affected by the influential studies conducted by Robert Gardner and associates (Gardner, 1985). After the 1990s, critical questions were raised in the literature concerning the exact role played by L2 Motivation and the proficiency level achieved. For instance, some linguists and researchers presumed different hypotheses and approaches in order to renew interest in Second Language Acquisition Theory and shed new light on the subject. However, this new concern led to an increase in empirical research in conjunction with theorizing on motivation in L2 learning. Additionally, this new shift and interest broadened the experimental and theoretical scope and adopted a new set of scientific concepts and terms.

1.7 The Significance of the Study

It was important to conduct a research in this area because of the continuously increasing number of L2 Language learners. Therefore, it was advantageous to highlight the role of each factor (motivation, attitude, gender, educational background, geographical background and the number of languages spoken) which influences the process of learning a second language. Shedding light on the diverse approaches of SLA can allow teachers and educators to understand properly the L2 learners’ needs, which affect both the practical and theoretical style of teaching. As a second language learner myself, I wanted to know the other influential factors which affect the competence and performance level of my L2 and the extent to which those factors such as L2 Motivation can hinder me in reaching a proficiency level equal to that of native speakers. I aimed to define types of motivation among Arab learners in learning English as a second language, and whether this factor influences the proficiency level achieved by Arab learners. Themes represented in this study, of course, are properly relevant to the recent debates raised by English language teachers, educators and
researchers, since these themes focus on second English language learners as a case study, and other factors which affect L2 achievement.

1.8 Purpose of Study

The main aim of this study was to investigate the different types of motivation Arab learners of English had at the beginning of their English course and at the end of it and investigate whether motivation can predict L2 learners’ proficiency level. In addition, this research aimed to detect any change in students’ L2 motivation during their English course, and to examine the extent to which Arab learners’ L2 motivation could affect their proficiency level in learning English.

1.9 Research Questions:

1. What are the factors that motivate L1 Arabic learners of English at a UK university at the start of their university course to learn English as a Second Language? Is there any difference in Arab students’ motivation in learning English depending on their varied backgrounds?

2. How are these motivational factors related to examination results?

3. Does the Arab students’ motivation change during their university course? And if there is any change, how does it influence students’ second language proficiency level.
Chapter 2: English Language (Spread and Globalization) and ELT in the Arabic Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides details about the Arab world. It begins with general information on its geography, population, literacy rate, and sociolinguistic profile. It briefly discusses the educational system and the status and role of English in the pre and post-independence era of the Arab world. It then proceeds to discuss the current issues in the entire education and English Language Teaching (ELT) system in the Arab world. The aim is to provide an overview of participants’ educational background and the ELT system in the Arab world. This will help in understanding the difference in students’ motivation for learning English depending on their varied geographical and educational backgrounds.

2.2 ELT and the Educational System in the Arabic World

After the end of World War I and the end of the western guardianship over the Arabic countries, there was a need to build nationhood and improve the old educational system. The attempt to build a new educational system aimed, in essence, to follow the international development in the educational field. Since Syria was one of the French colonies in the 20th century for approximately twenty-six years (Syria declared its independence in 1946), the Syrian educational system was completely influenced by the French curricula as the French intermediate schools prevailed throughout Syria, as in Lebanon. For instance, in Lebanon, in 1926, the French language was introduced by a new constitution as a language of instruction alongside the Arabic language, and the French Baccalauréat was introduced as an official exam on a par with the Lebanese national Baccalauréat (Bou Jaoude and Ghaith 2006). In addition, France expanded its dominance in Lebanon to reach the official schools when the French mandate powers in Lebanon decided to make the French language a major language at schools on a par with the Arabic language (Shaaban and Ghaith 1999).
After independence in 1943, the Lebanese government declared Arabic to be the official language in the country while French became the second language, and also the language of instruction of sciences and math after being the medium of instruction for years under the French mandate (Shaaban 2005). The English language, on the other hand, was introduced into the official curriculum at Lebanese schools as a third language to meet the increasing demand in the global and regional workplace for English language proficiency and to meet the global trend towards English as a first international-global language. English was an attractive option for Muslims in Lebanon, who resented the French educational system. Shaaban states that: “[the] newfound status of English and the fact that it was dissociated from Lebanon’s colonial heritage made it an attractive option, especially for Muslims.” (2005, p 104). Nonetheless, the French language was the major language of education in Lebanon until the 1960s, when the global-international English language surfaced as the first language in the world.

Table 2.1: Student Distribution in Public, Free Private, and Paid Private Schools

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium of Instruction</th>
<th>Public schools</th>
<th>Free Private Schools</th>
<th>Paid Private Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>100,412</td>
<td>43,819</td>
<td>187,681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>224,329</td>
<td>7,1435</td>
<td>283,728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>324,651</td>
<td>115,254</td>
<td>471,409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NCERD 2005-2006)

As Syria was one of the French colonies, or what are known as francophone countries, Arabic had to share its influential position in education with French. Moving into details, the educational structure in Syria, the compulsory education at the Syrian schools starts at the age of six and ends at the age of eighteen. In 2002, the Syrian
government merged the elementary and primary stages together as one basic education stage in which education is compulsory and free from grades 1 to 9. In Syria, after finishing compulsory education at primary level students have a choice of following mainstream education if their scores in the national primary exam allow them to do so or to choose between vocational and technical education if not (See table 2). After passing the national exam at the secondary level students have to choose either to apply for a scientific or literary-Secondary educational school.

Table 2.2: Education Indicators

<table>
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<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt**</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran **</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon**</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco***</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WBG***</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UNESCO 1997)

By the end of the first year of secondary education, grade 10 (secondary education: grades 10, 11 and 12, and the age group is between 15 to 18 years old), students have a choice of following either the Humanities/Arts Track (best known in Syria as the Literary track) or the Scientific Track. At the end of the secondary education school in the 12th grade, students are subjected to a national secondary school exam which is administered by the Syrian Ministry of Education, best known in Syria as Baccalauréat exams (see table 2.3). A notable reduction in dropout rates has clearly been seen in Syrian schools in recent decades. The dropout rate from schools at lower and upper secondary education level in Syria was reported as approximately 7%.
However, it should be noted that the ongoing civil war in Syria has affected the dropout rate from schools. There is no accurate percentage figure for this, due to the war situation in Syria and the difficulty of running surveys.

<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students Number</td>
<td>138,303</td>
<td>136,061</td>
<td>136,223</td>
<td>144,777</td>
<td>155,792</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Syrian students’ overall results in the National-Secondary exams determine which faculty the students can join. Thus students are differentiated according to the scores they obtain in the Baccalauréat exams. In other words, the overall result of the General Secondary Education Exams (GSEE) of the 12th grade or Baccalauréat determines a list of the possible specialization, colleges and universities that the Syrian student can apply for. For instance, in 2003 at Damascus University, the minimum required score to join the faculty of medicine was an average of 96.7% or 232/240. To join the universities in Syria, students have to apply through a complicated system called “Mufadalah”, and each student passing the secondary national exams is eligible to apply for the “Mufadalah” and eligible for a place in the higher education system.

As mentioned above, students have to choose between the Scientific and Literary track. Students in secondary school who have chosen the Scientific course are able to apply to Scientific Institutes and Faculties in the tertiary phase such as Engineering, Dentistry and Medicine. Conversely, students who chose the literary course are only able to apply to Human Science faculties such as Journalism, Education and Literature (Al-Fattal 2010). The required score to join Syrian universities has risen dramatically in the last decade due to the continual increase in the number of students passing the General Secondary Exams in Syria while the number of available places at universities has remained the same (see table 2.4).
Table 2.4 Distributions of Students Passing the General Higher Education Exam in the Syrian Higher Education Institutions from 2001 to 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of Students passing the GSEE</td>
<td>96,524</td>
<td>104,426</td>
<td>114,298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Students accepted in Universities and Higher Institutes</td>
<td>38,776</td>
<td>46,101</td>
<td>52,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Students accepted in Intermediate Institutes</td>
<td>57,543</td>
<td>56,760</td>
<td>57,610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Students accepted in the Higher Education System</td>
<td>96,319</td>
<td>102,861</td>
<td>109,923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Students not accepted by the Higher Education System</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>1,565</td>
<td>4,375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In this section, I have summarized the educational system, the status of English and the state of English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Arab world. These concepts are necessary prerequisites for my study investigating Arab learner’s motivation for learning English. It is important to understand the educational background of the Arab students who participated in this research in order to understand their motivation and attitudes towards learning English and the relationship between these variables and students’ proficiency level.

2.3 Globalization and English Language

Globalization is a relatively new concept that influences all conceivable aspects of economic, social and cultural life. In the Globalization era, a smaller world has been created, best described as a village, where people can visit more than one country within the same day. For instance, an English teacher is in Dubai. After flying for a couple of hours he reaches Cairo. Six hours later, he enters one of the UK cities. Consequently, the English teacher has reached three different countries located in three different continents within a single day (Asia, Africa, and Europe). Therefore, in the era of globalization, meeting people from different countries and backgrounds is
perfectly possible, which makes the need to communicate using a specific language as a lingua franca or global language an urgent need.

Whereas globalization has played an essential role in the spreading of “World Englishes”, there still a problem often arguable whether globalization is primarily a product of the recent world development of financial markets and the technological advancement in travel and information. While Giddens concludes that Globalization is a new and revolutionary concept in many respects, Mignolo has a longer historical perspective. He traces it back to the beginning of transatlantic expeditions in the 16th century: “On a larger scale, globalization at the end of the twentieth century is the most recent configuration of a process that can be traced back to the 1500s, with the beginning of crossatlantic explorations and the consolidation of Western hegemony” (Mignolo 2000: p 236). Both previous perspectives viewed the historical imperialistic era of America and other European countries, and pointed out the importance of acknowledging the role played by the diversity of other influential empires and global forces such as Russia, China, Japan and the Islamic empire (Rodrick 2007). According to Modelski (2008), Globalization is partially a product of a long historical process.

Considerable benefits may flow from the existence of a global language, but several scholars have pointed to the possible risks of using a particular language as a lingua franca. The existence of a global language might pave the way for an elite monolingual linguistic class to appear, self-complacent with more dismissive attitudes towards other languages. Globalization is not entirely a positive term with completely beneficial advantages. A global language will reduce people’s opportunity to learn a new language, since an individual needs just one language to communicate with others: “It is all too easy to make your way in the world linguistically with English as your mother tongue . . . We become lazy about learning other languages . . . We all have to make a greater effort” (Ramphal 1996).
Globalization, as defined by Mohammadi, is a “way in which, under contemporary conditions especially, relations of power and communication are stretched across the globe, involving compressions of time and space and a recomposition of social relationships” (1997, p 1). In the era of globalization, Americanization or what might also be known as McDonaldsization, the U.S.A is the absolute superpower in the world in terms of economic, military and scientific progress. As the United States is the ultimate economic power and became (after the end of the Cold War) the only global superpower, English as a language became the essential survival communication tool between nations around the world (Elyas, 2008). English has been extensively used as an international tool of communication between people with different mother tongues and from different backgrounds. Graddol claims that English is no longer the absolute language all over the world, and a new hierarchy has manifested itself, at the top of which the Mandarin language is gaining ground and jostles with the English language as a lingua franca (2006).

2.3.1 English as a Global Language (English as a Lingua Franca ELF)

“Language has always been the consort of empire, and forever shall remain its mate” (Nebrija’s plan presented to Queen Isabella of Spain in 1492, as cited in Phillipson 1992, 5.) The dominance of English over the other spoken languages in the world is clearly described by Crystal: “English (...) has come to be spoken worldwide by a large and ever-increasing number of people. It has official status in over 60 countries. In India, China, and most of the countries of Western Europe, the presence of English is noticeable or rapidly growing. English is also the language of international air traffic control, and the chief language of world publishing, science and technology, conferencing, and computer storage” (1992, p 121).

English is not just an international language – it is world global language. The term ‘international language’ can be defined as a language which is used by people from different backgrounds and countries for international communication purposes. For
instance, Arabic is an international language, but it is not considered to be a global language.

In the era of globalization, the need for a particular language as a global tool of communication with people from different backgrounds and with different mother tongues became important out of necessity. Several factors account for the dominance of the English language over other languages, such as French and Spanish, best explained by Alphonse de Candolle: “To understand [why English is the dominating language], one has to think about the reasons for which a language is preferred. Because of America, the use of English has increased dramatically. Science is more and more present in Germany, England, Scandinavia and Russia. Given these new conditions, a language can become dominant only if two conditions are satisfied: (1) it contains enough Germanic and Latin words and forms to be understood by those who know a Germanic or a Latin language; (2) it is spoken by a large majority of civilized (sic) people... English is the only language that satisfies both conditions. The future supremacy of the Anglo-American language is evident: it will be imposed by the growth of populations in both hemispheres.” (1983, pp. 341-352).

In addition, the current dominance of English language is explained by two factors: the era of British expansion of colonial power in the nineteenth century, and the emergence of America as the leading political and economic power of the twentieth century. The linguist Braj Kachru (1985) has conceptualized a new model known as “expanding circles”, which has been significant and successful in helping us to categorize and understand the spread of English around the world into three concentric circles (inner, outer and expanding). Through these three circles, Kachru brought to worldwide attention the existence of dynamic forms of world Englishes (WEs). Each circle represents different ways in which English has been acquired and is currently used. Before proceeding, it should be noted that not all countries fit perfectly into Kachru’s model.
Kachru’s model consists of three circles: the Inner, the Outer and the Expanding circles.

1- The Inner Circle: The Inner circle comprises countries such as Australia, the USA and UK in which English is the primary language.

2- The Outer Circle: English plays a less dominating role in the Outer circle countries such as Nigeria and Singapore, where English is amongst a plethora of other languages, but often sharing co-official status.

3- The Expanding Circle: Countries within the Expanding circle such as China and Saudi Arabia regard English as a foreign language (EFL) (Crystal 2009).

Figure 2.1: Karchu’s Model (Three Circles of English) (Crystal, 2003, p 61)
2.3.2 The Spread of English Language around the World

Scholars concur that the exercising of power and language spread are intimately correlated (Canagarajeh 1999; Crystal 2003). In the earlier era, the British colonization of other territories was the essential tool to spread English around the world (Crystal, 2003). The first British vanguards settled in the American continent with the purpose of finding a new land where they tried to spread Christianity. Other groups of English speakers came to the American continent in search of new markets where they could trade successfully. The English language then expanded continuously to reach the west and south of the Indies (Rohmah, 2005). The influence of the English language has spread around the world and thus English language has become “the main language of books, newspapers, airport and traffic control, international business and academic conferences, science technology, diplomacy, sport, international competitions, pop music and advertising” (as cited in Graddol, 1997, p 2). Undisputedly, the English language is currently the most supreme language all over the world and thus has become the predominant tool of global communication in a shrinking world described recently as a small global town. English supremacy over other languages can be explained by several direct and indirect propelling reasons.

In this section, I discussed the era of globalization, its impact on the Arab world and its role in establishing English as a global language. The status of the English language was an important factor to consider in this study because it could influence students’ attitudes and motivation towards learning the language.

2.4 Second Language Learning

Before going into more depth, it is worth providing some background information about the complex issues addressed in this research, which offers a comprehensive review of the theoretical topics investigated.
Language is extremely a complex communication system which consists of sets of sounds, words, phrases and grammatical rules that combine all together to produce a language. The phenomenon of second language acquisition-learning and how this process takes place is still an ambiguous issue that requires further study and research in regard to varied factors which characterize this process (SLA). In the first few years of their lives, children learn how to conjoin sentences, using appropriate pronouns and start asking questions. In general, children have the creative ability to understand and produce a limitless number of sentences, and further, children can produce and understand sentences they may never have uttered or heard before. The study of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) focuses on two aspects: the people that learn a different language (L2) after learning their L1 during childhood and the process of learning that language.

As we are going to discuss how adults learn or acquire a second language, we should take the opportunity to review briefly the basic first and second language acquisition theories. Theories and studies conducted in the field of language acquisition help teachers and educators to understand their first and second language learners, but yet neither the first nor second language acquisition process is accurately explained or fully understood. As a result, many disagreements and controversies prevail among linguists and researchers about the exact nature of second language learning, the various concepts which influence this process and the extent to which they affect the proficiency level of L2 learners.

Looking at this in greater depth, we see that different theories and hypotheses have been put forward in an attempt to understand the varied mechanisms and stages which characterize this creative process, language acquisition. The incompatible and countless hypotheses and theories such as The Innateness Hypothesis (UG), Behaviourism theory, and the Comprehension hypothesis suggested by linguists and researchers do not have a single, agreed idea or vision about "how" and "when" the
process of acquiring a language occurs. For instance, a group of linguists, early proponents of Behaviourism theory, argue that individuals learn a language by imitation, reinforcement, and a response to stimuli. Littlewood explained the essence of the Behaviourism approach as a “process of habit-formation” and, according to Littlewood, the components of the Behaviourism approach are:

“1-The child imitates the sounds and patterns which he hears around him. 2- People recognize the child’s sounds as being similar to the adult models and reinforce (reward) the sounds, by approval or some other desirable reactions. 3- In order to obtain more of these rewards, the child repeats the sounds and patterns, so these become a habit. 4- In this way the child’s verbal behavior is conditioned (or ‘shaped’) until the habit coincides with the adult model.” (Littlewood 2006, p 5).

Behaviourism Theory presumes that people acquire languages by imitating and repeating the sounds or language they hear, and when a learner is reinforced, learning occurs. In other words, “practice makes perfect” is the implication of this theory. Behaviourists entirely ignore any internal role and totally concentrate on the external milieu of the second language learners, Johnson criticized the ignorance of the eternal role in the Behaviourism theory “Behaviorism undermined the role of mental processes and viewed learning as the ability to inductively discover patterns of rule-governed behavior from the examples provided to the learner by his or her environment” (2004, p 18). In addition, Behaviourists’ theory could not explain typical ungrammatical child utterances such as “Him don’t say it right,” which is obviously not an imitation or repetition of adult speech.

Noam Chomsky was strong in expressing his concerns about the validity of the Behaviourism approach (1959). In clear contrast to the Behaviourist view, Chomsky and his followers argue that children are equipped with *innate boxes* that enable them to extract the grammatical rules of their first language from the language they hear
around them. Chomsky based his arguments on two facts: 1- children are not given any explicit or direct information about the rules of their L1, either by correction or instruction, but they come to know the grammatical aspects of a language about which they obtain no information. 2- Observations revealed that children go through the same developmental stages of acquiring a language regardless of their social and cultural circumstances. Chomsky claims that infants come into the world possessing universal *innate boxes* (biological-genetic-grammatical template) which enable them to extract the intricacies of their L1 and construct gradually the grammatical rules of their mother tongue (1959). Additionally, Chomsky claims that the human species is endowed with innate universal knowledge to help it acquire any language, which Chomsky calls “the language faculty”, which is “a component of the human mind, physically represented in the brain and part of the biological endowment of the species” (Chomsky 2002, p 1).

There are, however, questions about language acquisition which the Innateness Hypothesis has not yet been able to explain. One of the most important issues that Chomsky did not explain in his Universal Grammar Approach (UG) is whether this genetic knowledge about languages’ grammatical system is still available for individuals who are acquiring additional languages or not, and about the role played by parents and the linguistic environment of the infants. Gardner criticizes Chomsky’s Innateness Approach “[it is] too dismissive of the ways that mothers and others who bring up children help infants to acquire language.” (Gardner 1995, p 27). In his turn, Gardner argues that “while the principles of grammar may indeed be acquired with little help from parents or other caretakers, adults are needed to help children build a rich vocabulary, master the rules of discourse, and distinguish between culturally acceptable and unacceptable forms of expression.” (Gardner 1995, p 27). I would like to conclude that it is obvious that experts do not yet have a unified vision about the language acquisition process, and how children acquire their linguistic competence and the role of parents and caregivers are still questions that require further study and research.
As the nature of SLA is still far from clear, with different experts and researchers explaining this process very differently, controversial questions have been raised recently in the literature about the exact nature of SLA and whether adults acquire/learn their second (third or fourth) language in the same way they acquire their mother tongue. In conjunction with a growing theoretical interest in this amorphous field, SLA, an enormous amount of empirical research and study has been conducted to describe L2 learners’ characteristics and the various factors influencing the SLA process. The paragraphs below highlight the main theories which have attempted to explain the language learning process.

The principles of the Behaviourist Approach prevailed first in the 1960s and influenced the style of teaching the second language in many ways. Behaviourists’ principles changed the teaching methods towards an audio-lingual way in many classrooms in different regions around the world. The audio-lingual method is one the most popular teaching methods adopted by behaviourists. Students are taught in the same natural sequence, listening, speaking, reading and writing, on the assumption that this is the same order in which the L1 is acquired. Angela Carrasquillo explained the behaviourism theory and its implications in teaching English as a second language “Grammar was learned through drilling in substitution, expansion and conversion of elements in the language patterns. Reading was introduced systematically, beginning with the reading of what has been learned orally, with careful attention to sound-symbol correspondence. Writing was seen as a supportive exercise to oral learning in the early stages.” (1994, pp 7-8). Behaviourists based their L2 teaching method on imitation, repetition and reinforcement. According to behaviourists, errors must be corrected immediately by the teacher to avoid the forming of any bad grammatical or pronunciational habits that would be difficult to re-correct later.

In 1982, Krashen in his turn created five hypotheses in an attempt to explain how second language acquisition occurs, 1- The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis 2- the
Monitor Hypothesis 3- the Natural Order Hypothesis 4- the Input Hypothesis, and 5- the Affective Filter Hypothesis. Each one of these hypotheses is discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

**The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:** Krashen’s argument is based on a distinct difference between second language acquisition and second language learning. According to Krashen, SLA takes place naturally when language is used as an instrument to communicate with individuals, in a way that is similar to first language acquisition. The SLA process is a subconscious one, in which the acquirer develops their competence and generates language, which accounts for language fluency (Gregg, 1984). In contrast, in Krashen’s view, language learning is a conscious process which is far less important than language acquisition. It occurs through a formal study of language’s rules and patterns, which enables the target language learners to perform and to consciously apply their gained competence about language, "There are two independent ways of developing ability in second languages. Acquisition' is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language, ... [and] 'learning' ..., [which is] a conscious process that results in 'knowing about' [the rules of] language" (Krashen 1985 p 1). Krashen claims that learning a language cannot be acquisition, and language acquisition is the only natural way which guarantees fluent communication ability (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). Krashen’s distinction between language learning and acquisition needs a finer explanation and definition to be a subject of empirical research experimental study.

**The Natural Order Hypothesis:** one of the most important discoveries in the Second language Acquisition field in recent decades has been the finding that the language acquirers tend to acquire certain grammatical rules of a target language in a predictable sequence. Some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early and others later. The process of acquiring a language is not 100% identical among
acquirers, but there are clear statistical and important similarities that assure the validity of Krashen’s Natural Order Hypothesis. The English language is one of the most studied languages in regard to the principles of the Natural Order Hypothesis, and morphology is one of the most studied aspects of the English language. Brown states that English children acquire specific grammatical morphemes earlier than others (1973). For instance, 1- The progressive marker (*ing*) as in “she is playing football” and the plural marker (*s*) as in “two cats” are acquired early, whereas the third person singular marker (*s*) and the possessive (*s*) are acquired later. In his Natural Order Hypothesis, Krashen confirms Brown’s results, showing that certain grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order and certain morphemes or functional words are acquired earlier than others (1981). It is important to note that the implications of Krashen’s Natural Order Hypothesis are not that second language teaching style or materials should be designed according to the same specific sequence of first language acquisition. In other words, first language is subconsciously acquired and free from conscious influences (Lightbown and Spada, 1993).

**The Monitor Hypothesis:** The Monitor hypothesis explains the difference between formal language learning and uninstructed language acquisition. Krashen claims that acquisition and learning are used in very different ways, and that formal language learning develops the internal grammar editor or monitor. While acquisition is responsible for our fluency in the second language and initiates our utterances, language learning’s only function is to monitor or watch our output to ensure the correctness, either grammatically or phonetically, of our performance in L2. Three conditions are necessary for a second language learner or performer to use the monitor: 1- sufficient time: a second language learner needs sufficient time in order to apply and use the conscious knowledge of rules effectively. Normally, daily conversation, for most people, does not allow the second language performer to have enough time to think about or use rules, but the over-use or the over-monitoring in normal conversation can cause trouble for L2 performers. 2- Focus on grammatical form: in conjunction with sufficient time conditions, a second language performer
needs to focus on and think about the form to use the Monitor effectively. 3- An explicit knowledge of the rules: This is an essential condition for second language performers to use the Monitor effectively. In addition, Krashen explains that it is easier for an L2 performer to apply the three conditions in writing than in speaking (1982).

Krashen explained further when he stated that the variations in adult SLA and performance account for the differential use of Monitor. He claims that there are three different types of Monitor users: 1- Over-users: these people are so concerned with the correctness of their utterances, that they attempt to monitor “watch” their output all the time and continuously apply their conscious knowledge of L2 as they perform. As a result of being over-concerned about performing correctly, over-users of grammar may speak hesitantly and have no fluency as they speak. 2- Under-users: these are people who are not concerned about using their conscious knowledge about the rules of a given language, even when the three conditions of Monitoring are met. 3- The optimal-users: the main pedagogical tendency recently is to produce optimal users of Monitoring who monitor their utterances only when it is appropriate and when it does not influence their communication (Krashen 1982).

The Input Hypothesis: The Input hypothesis is the central point in Krashen’s approach to second language acquisition. This hypothesis attempts to answer the extremely complex question in the SLA field: How do we acquire language? If what Krashen claims in his Monitoring Hypothesis is correct – that conscious learning or formal rules play only a limited role in second language performance and that acquisition is central and learning is marginal – our pedagogical target should be to encourage language acquisition over learning. This, of course, raises a crucial question of how we acquire language. The key element of this hypothesis is that the language input should contain elements which are a bit beyond our current level. Therefore Krashen states that language acquirers can meet this challenging level by using
context and extra-linguistic information, such as pictures, gestures and general background knowledge. In other words, the Input Hypothesis, according to Krashen, is a focus on communication as the best method to encourage second language acquisition. The Input Hypothesis states that language is acquired and not learnt by understanding the language input which includes a challenging linguistic level that is a little beyond the acquirer’s current level. Speaking fluency emerges gradually, on its own. The only way to teach speaking, according to Krashen, is when the acquirers are ready as they hear and understand more language input (1982).

The Affective Filter Hypothesis: The fifth hypothesis in Krashen’s theory is the Affective Filter Hypothesis, in which he addresses how the affective factors or social-emotional variables are linked directly to the process of second language acquisition. Theoretical and practical studies over the last decades have confirmed that success in second language acquisition is related to a variety of effective variables, such as low anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence. Krashen urges teachers to focus on listening and speaking as the key factors for successful language acquisition. He argues in second language acquisition “People acquire second languages when they obtain comprehensible input and when their affective filters are low enough to allow the input in” (Krashen, 1981a, p 62).

To summarize, in his view, Krashen in his five theories about second language acquisition promotes the idea that second language teachers should focus on communication rather than on grammatical form, create a low-anxiety environment in the classroom (low-anxiety is a conducive factor to acquire the second language successfully), avoid forcing their students to produce speech immediately, and allow them a silent period during which they can acquire knowledge about the target language. Many teachers and experts agree with Krashen’s assessment of communication as the best method to teach a second language (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Oller, 1993).
In summary, this section offers a comprehensive review of the theoretical topics related to learning a second language and its relationship with motivation and proficiency level. For example, I have given an overview on Behaviourism, the Comprehension hypothesis, and Krashen’s hypotheses on explaining how L2 learning occurs (1982).

2.5 Summary

This chapter has presented an overview of the educational system and English language teaching in the Arab world. The pre- and post- colonial period of the Arab world and its influence on the education and administrative systems is significant. In recent years, the educational focus in the Arab world has moved from the French language towards English, acknowledging the importance of English as a global language (BouJaude, S. and Ghaith, G, 2006). Depending on the schooling system in Arabic education, there are divided opinions in terms of language policy. For example, in the Arab world, students from private schools are believed to have a better education. In contrast, state schools, especially in rural areas, lack the expertise and resources to teach English efficiently and this has consequences for the students. Overall, this chapter relates to the study of L2 motivation for learning English in the UK by providing a general overview of the participants’ educational and geographical background, their contact with English before travelling to the UK to pursue an English language course and the current status of English in the Arab world.
Chapter 3: L2 Motivation (The Psychological Perspective)

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets up a theoretical framework for my research on L2 motivation for learning English. It discusses motivation from the psychological perspective and presents a critical review of the L2 motivation and related empirical research which has formed this study. This is followed by the different definitions of L2 motivation in the literature which helped to highlight the selected L2 motivational variables for my study. It provides a brief chronological account of the main theoretical developments and key empirical studies in L2 motivation research to date. Furthermore, it sheds light on the different types of L2 motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic, and provides a detailed account of learners’ attitudes towards the English language, its native speakers and communities. This is followed by a discussion on the individual’s motivational dispositions and behaviours. The theoretical background, as well as key studies exploring L2 learners’ individual differences, the L2 Selves Markus and Nurius (1986), Self Determination (Deci and Ryan, 1995), Goal theory (Locke and Latham, 1996), and Willingness to Communicate theory (MacIntyre1998) are discussed in depth in this chapter. Presenting the different L2 motivational factors and understanding second language learners’ L2 self and psychology help in understanding their goals in learning a target language. This allows us to address one of the main questions of this research in understanding what motivates students to learn English and the potential influence of L2 motivation on their proficiency level.

3.2 L2 Motivation in the Psychological Perspective

Since one of the major purposes of this study is to examine the extent to which motivation can predict L2 learners’ proficiency level and whether it plays a role in achieving near-native level, it is worth reviewing the intricate phenomena, motivation and attitudes, in some detail.
The attempt to explore the role of motivation in L2 learning is not new, yet it is important to restate that learning a second language differentiates in many ways from learning other subjects at school. As L2 is a “learnable” subject in terms of the discrete elements it has, such as lexical rules and grammatical rules, it is still culturally and socially bound, which makes L2 a deeply social behaviour, which entails the incorporation of different elements of L2 culture (Gardner, 1979; Williams, 1994). Motivation is assumed to be one of the most effective factors which have long been coupled with the rate of success and achievement in second language learning, supported by countless empirical research studies focusing on various variables to establish and probe this relationship. Motivation, therefore, is frequently cited to demonstrate why some second language learners are more successful in learning L2 than others. Motivation, of course, determines the level of efforts expended by L2 learners at various stages during their L2 development, a key to ultimate proficiency level.

The main question raised recently in the literature about the potential influence of motivation on the proficiency level of L2 learners and how it contributes to the success of learning a target language is still a controversial issue. Most researchers agree that there is a solid correlation between motivation and the proficiency level achieved by L2 learners (Lightbown and Spada, 1999), and agree that attitudes towards an L2 and its culture influence the motivation to learn that language (Burt and Krashen 1982; Gardner 1985). Therefore, the role of L2 motivation and attitude in second language learning has been widely accepted by both researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of the second language learning process. L2 Motivation provides the essential impetus which initiates the process of learning a second language and later the driving force to sustain the potential difficulties which L2 learners may face during their learning process.
3.3 Historical Development and Expansion in the L2 Motivation Studies

Many studies have been conducted to investigate motivation and how it affects the rate of success of L2 learners. Dörnyei describes the massive amount of research and study conducted in this field: “The field is indeed characterized by a variety of theoretical approaches and research traditions” (2003, p 2). Gardner (1985), in his turn, argues that motivation and attitude are the key factors for successful language learning. Among all factors which determine the process of learning a second language, L2 motivation has demanded the most attention in this field of research, especially since Lambert and Gardner’s empirical and theoretical studies on the exact role of motivation and attitude in SLA from 1959 to 1962. Ellis (1994) reviews Gardner’s studies and provides a comprehensive discussion of other research findings explaining the correlation of L2 motivation and attitude with the success in language learning. In addition, Long and Larsen-Freeman widely discussed the role of motivation and attitude in L2, and provided a comprehensive demonstration of several research findings conducted by different researchers about motivation and attitude in SLA, some of which support Gardner’s prior findings and his motivational hypothesis in language learning and some of which do not (1991).

One of the most recent studies in SLA was conducted by Ortega (2009) in which he elaborated the role of L2 learners’ motivation in learning a second language and the influence of motivation on the L2 proficiency level. Affective factors in learning a second language were always coupled with in the proficiency level achieved, which resulted in countless empirical theoretical and research studies which focused on different variables of learning an L2 to establish and probe this relationship. Undoubtedly, the most controversial study was conducted by Gardner in 1985 (AMTB, Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery), in which he claims that students with higher motivational and attitudinal scores achieved higher scores in language proficiency tests (1985). Drawing from what Gardner claimed in his AMTB, numerous questions were raised by other researchers about the validity of AMTB and
whether or not motivation and attitude can influence learners’ attained proficiency level in language learning.

3.3.1 Motivation and Attitudes towards English Language and English Community

Many scholars and researchers agree that L2 motivation and attitudes towards a target language are key variables in language learning because they influence how successful and fast the L2 learning process is (Gardner and Lambert 1972; Gardner 1985; MacIntyre and Gardner 1994; Ellis 1994; Norris-Holt 2001). W.R. Jones was one of the first researchers to conduct a study through which he established an inverse relationship between attitudes towards learning the Welsh language and the attained proficiency level (1949-1950). The terms ‘motivation’ and ‘attitude’ often overlap and are sometimes used interchangeably, without a clear segregation. This is because motivation to learn an L2 is assumed to be influenced by attitudes towards the target language community and the desire to integrate with that community. There is no consensus on the constituents of motivation or a integrated vision about the differences between motivation and attitudes (Ellis 1985, p 117). Therefore, it is important to define and distinguish between factors affecting L2 motivation.

Gardner defined L2 motivation as the “combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language. That is, motivation to learn a second language is seen as referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity“ (1985, p 10). On the other hand, Attitudes were defined by Wenden as “learned motivations, valued beliefs, evaluations, or what one believes is acceptable” which influence the process of learning a second language (1991, p 52). In addition, Ajzan states that attitudes are: “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event” (1988 as cited in Sjöholm 2000, p 126). Sjöholm describes attitudes towards the L2 as “evaluative self-descriptions or self-perceptions of the activity of learning languages” (2004, p 687). Baker, in his turn, defi...
attitudes as “a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour” (1992, p 10). Gardner, in his socio-educational model, states that attitudes toward learning a second language are expected to influence L2 motivation, which influences the level achieved by L2 learners (Figure 3.1). Attitudes towards a language may have several directions, among which are the target language culture, target language community, the classroom and the language per se. Consequently, it is important here to make a distinction between these two terms, motivation and attitude. Attitudes towards a language are directed to objects, whereas motivation is a goal-directed (Baker 1992).

![Figure 3.1 Attitude towards L2 Influences Motivation and Achievement](image)

According to Gardner there is a relationship between attitudes and motivation and the linguistic proficiency level achieved by L2 learners: “students’ attitudes towards the specific language are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language” (Gardner 1985, p 6). Masgoret in their turn describe attitudes and motivation towards the L2 as “key factors that influence the rate and success of second language learning in the classroom” (2001, p 281).
Before going into more depth, I would say that second language learners vary in many aspects, such as the level of their L2 motivation, attitude, learning style, gender and age. Therefore, a brief review of what the term ‘second language learners’ means is worth mentioning. Wenden defines L2 learners as “The notion of learner-centred instruction in foreign and second languages grew out of the recognition that language learners are diverse, in their reasons for learning another language, their approach to learning, and their abilities” (2002, p 32).

3.3.2 Motivation and Second Language Learning

As a term, motivation is too wide and multi-layered to be defined merely by a couple of empirical studies or theories frequently used in every day life and also in many areas of educational studies and applied linguistics. As Gardner states, “Motivation is a very complex phenomenon with many facets…Thus, it is not possible to give a simple definition” (2006, p 242). Dörnyei defines the role of motivation as: “intended to explain nothing less than the reasons for human behaviour. “ (2006, p 9). On the other hand, Dörnyei describes L2 motivation as an ‘abstract concept’, ‘a broad umbrella term’ (2001, p 6). While Pintrich and Schink describe L2 motivation as a “process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (1996), Brown defines it as “an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action” (2000 p 152). Drawing from the previous definition of the nature of L2 motivation, especially what Gardner said, it is obvious that he claims that motivation is the key factor which affects success or failure in L2 learning and affects second language learning achievement (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). It should be noted that even though Gardner claims that motivation is the key factor in learning a second language, he could not provide an accurate tool to measure the influence of L2 motivation at proficiency level, but rather he concluded that students with a higher level of L2 motivation have better exam results (1985). Since each L2 learner is unique regarding their attitudinal, motivational and contextual construct and goals for learning a second language, it is extremely difficult to propose a well-phrased definition which stands clearly as a definition of the term ‘motivation’.
Additionally, the main three elements of motivation, according to Gardner, which are perceived to compose this term are: 1- Effort, the time which the L2 learner spends trying to acquire or learn the second language; 2- Desire, the extent to which the L2 learner wants to achieve the proficiency level of native speakers; and 3- Effect, L2 learners' emotions towards the process of learning a second language, - co-operate as an entire unit for achieving learners' goals (Gardner 1982). However, it should be noted that Gardner’s Three-element motivation definition is very questionable. Some L2 learners are quicker learners and do not need as much time or desire as other learners, therefore they can be better learners with less effort. It is not always applicable to link the amount of effort or desire to the proficiency level, but we rather take into account the individual differences which influence the process of learning an L2.

Sections 3.2 and 3.3 discussed the historical development of L2 motivation research and its potential role in second language learning. L2 motivation is a complex phenomenon and this brief introduction has demonstrated how the field of motivation research has shifted focus from motivation from a psychological perspective towards the context of second language learners. In addition, this chapter explored the concept of motivation and attitudes to learning a target language. These concepts are thought to be key factors in determining students’ language proficiency level. In particular, students’ attitudes towards the target language, its speakers and community are believed to influence their motivation to learn that language and subsequently their proficiency level.
3.4 Theories and Constructs Reflecting Individual’s Motivational Dispositions and Behaviors

3.4.1 Need for Competence

According to the Oxford Dictionary, competence may be defined as a quality of effectiveness, condition or ability. The competence construct has been integral to theories of motivation and personality since the advent of psychology as a scientific discipline through which human behaviours and dispositions are explained and indentified. Over the years, many psychological theorists have assumed that human beings seek to acquire competence and avoid incompetence, and many empirical studies have been conducted by researchers to investigate and clarify the exact nature of competence-motivated human behaviour (Elliot, McGregor and Thrash 2002; Spangler, 1992). Deci and Ryan’s Self-Determination Theory (SDT), in 1991, is one of the contemporary theories that has reserved a permanent place in competence motivated behaviour. Deci and Ryan in their SDT posited that all human beings possess an innate, natural appetitive motivation towards competence (a psychological need for competence). Deci and Ryan’s SDT’s view of the need for competence is based on White’s conceptualization of effectence motivation, which states that human beings are born with a natural desire to affect and master their own environment (White, 1959).

The need for competence in the L2 motivation theories and constructs is still viewed as a basic psychological need of the human being which helps individuals to adapt to their surroundings by fostering the development of their own abilities and skills in order to experience the pleasure of interaction with the environment itself (Elliot and Dweck 2005). The need for competence activates and instigates human behaviour that is directed towards competence. The need for competence is a cognitive process through which this need is organized and satisfied. Therefore individuals, over time, learn how to direct their own general motivational energy using concrete, cognitively based goals to achieve and cognitively based strategies to follow. Using these cognitively based goals and strategies helps individuals to learn how to use their self-
regulatory tools in order to direct their general desire to compete towards specific experiences and outcomes, which in turn satisfy their need for competence (Elliot and Church, 2002).

Although the need for competence is an innate and natural behaviour that is believed to be present in all human beings throughout the lifespan, the need for competence posits that there are biological-based differences among individuals in this motivational source from birth onwards (Elliot and Thrash, 2002). Life experience influences the strength, the quality and quantity, of human beings for competence, thus the need for competence is considered malleable and capable of variations throughout individuals’ lifecourse.

Deci and Ryan, 2002, clarified the distinction between “Need”, Motive” and “Goal” concepts from the motivational theorizing point of view, where they state that: “Needs and motives are similar to each other in that both represent affectively-based motivational dispositions that energize the individual and orient them toward valence possibilities. Needs differ from motives in that they are part of the individual’s inherent psychological makeup and, therefore, represent a psychological requirement, which means they must be attended to and satisfied for the individual to function in optimal fashion and experience well-being” (Deci, Ryan 2002, p 372). The “Goals” concept, according to Elliot, McGregor and Thrash, is defined as: “Goals may be distinguished from needs and motives in that the latter are affectively-based dispositions that energize behavior and orient individual in a general way, whereas the former are cognitive representations that serve a directional function for behavior by focusing the individual on more specific possibilities” (2002, p 373).

The need for competence is an essential psychological need of human beings, and primarily manifests itself in infants’ behaviour. They gain information about their
competence directly through the influence their behaviours have on the surrounding environment (Elliot & Moller, 2003). In 2002, Elliot, McGregor and Thrash distinguished between task-referential competence motivation and past-referential competence motivation. According to Elliot, McGregor and Thrash, competence is viewed in regard to the increase in present performance compared to the past performance and other-referential competence motivation in which competence is outperforming others.

3.4.2 Need for Achievement

According to the early theories of motivation, the majority of motivated instances of individual’s behaviours could be explained as an attempt to satisfy or reduce psychological and physiological needs. These needs were viewed as a constitution of an internal drive force to fluctuate in intensity and to operate either in isolation of the other needs or in conjunction with them.

According to one of the earliest definitions of the need for achievement, given by McClelland in 1958, the “goal of some individual in the story is to be successful in terms of competition with some standard of excellence. The individual may fail to achieve this goal, but the concern over competition with a standard of excellence still enables one to identify the goal sought as an achievement goal. This, then, is our generic definition of Achievement.” (p 181). Lussier and Achua, in their turn, defined the need for achievement as: “The need for achievement is the unconscious concern for excellence in accomplishments through individual efforts” (2007, p 42). Similarly, Daft (2008) stated the need for achievement is “the desire to accomplish something difficult, attain a high standard of success, master complex tasks, and surpass others” (p 233).
The need for achievement or achievement motivation is viewed as the striving to succeed or the need to perform well, and is evidenced by efforts made by individuals and by the persistence they show in the face of difficulties, and thus the achievement motivation is regarded as a central human motivation. The achievement motive consists of the desire to succeed that is associated with positive effect, and fear of failure that is associated with negative effect. Thus, the achievement motive is considered as the basis of achievement motivation, motive to achieve.

It should be noted that the need for achievement varies from one individual to another, and in the field of education in particular it varies from one student to another. Understanding the need for achievement may help teachers in planning their lesson activities and tasks and help them to know which students, for example, have high achievement needs (high in the motive to succeed, and low in the motive to fail) which students are low in motive to achieve and which students are basically motivated by a need to avoid failure. Students with high achievement needs are more likely to respond well to difficult and challenging tasks, strict grading, corrective feedback, new or unusual challenges and the opportunity to try again. On the other hand, students with the need to avoid failure are more likely to respond well to less difficult and challenging tasks, simple reinforcement for success, lenient grading, corrective feedback and protection from embarrassment.

3.5 Conceptions and Constructs of the Self (Self-concepts)

Conceptions of the self are considered as a form of diverse collections of images and cognitions about the self. They vary in terms of their elaboration and in their chronological order in the individual’s life, some of which are very detailed cognitive representations of the self, whereas others may be less detailed. Self-concepts represent current, past, and future selves. According to Markus and Nurius (1986), images and cognitions of future (Possible selves) (Hoped-for, expected and feared selves that represent possibility, images of self that have not been realized yet) and
past (Good selves that people would like to remember and the bad ones that people would like to forget) are thought to have more influence on people’s motivation than images and cognition of the current self which represent the self as it presently is. Dörnyei, and Ushioda, (2009), in their turn, defined the self-concept thus: “A person’s self-concept has traditionally been seen as the summary of the individual’s self-knowledge related to how the person views him/herself at present” (p 11). Self-concepts are views of people as they are after accomplishing or failing to accomplish particular goals. These self-concepts are assumed to have the possibility to exert an influence on the individual’s goals, therefore they are thought to provide the individual’s goals with substance. Conceptions of the self are thought “to help assess their progress, evaluate their instrumental acts, and revise their aspirations. They provide an overall consistency to the direction of people’s strivings and integrate the life tasks being pursued with other life tasks” (Cantor, Markus, Niedenthal, and Nurius, 1986, p 103).

Possible selves are often referred to as individual’s self-guides for future or representations of people’s goals in future as defined by Leary and Tangney “Possible selves…are representation of a person’s goals. They embody significant hopes, dreams or fears. They provide motivational anchors, such as the selves that one desires to avoid. Typically, they combine the representation of the directions to approach or avoid with expectations of success for those goals” (2012, p 110). They, the possible selves, are hypothetical images that represent people’s ideas of what they might be in the future, what they are hoping to become and what they are afraid to become (Carver et al, 1994). Whether individuals seek to approach these possible selves as in the case of expected or hoped-for selves or try to avoid them as in the case of feared selves, they act as incentives for future behaviour. They also help individuals to evaluate and interpret their current behaviour (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009).
Many empirical studies have evidenced that positive possible selves are a stronger resource of motivation when they are balanced by a matching feared possible self in the same domain. Positive expected or possible selves direct individuals, whereas negative feared selves provide them with persistence and energy to avoid drifting from their goals (Leary and Tangney, 2012).

3.6 Theories Reflecting Individual’s Motivational Attitudes and Beliefs

3.6.1 Expectancy-value Theories

During the last four decades, the most influential theorizations and conceptualisations in the motivational psychology field have tended towards adopting an expectancy value model, starting with Atkinson and his achievement theory (Atkinson and Raynor, 1974). Achievement motivation researchers attempt to explain how motivation influences individuals’ choice of, persistence in, and performance on achievement tasks. According to the principles of this theory, people’s choice, persistence, and performance on tasks can be accounted for by their own beliefs about the extent to which they expect themselves to do well on the task and the extent to which they value the task per se. Dörnyei explains the main principles of the Expectancy value theory, asserting that “motivation to perform various tasks is the product of two key factors: the individual's expectancy of success in a given task and the value the individual attaches to success in that task. The greater the perceived likelihood of goal-attainment the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual’s positive motivation” (1998, p119). Conversely, it is improbable that a person will make effort which in turn will be invested in a task if they are convinced that it is impossible to succeed no matter how hard they try, or if the task itself does not result in valuable outcomes. In other words, both factors are important and absence of either causes lack of desire to make an effort and try to complete the task.
Expectancy value theory is not exceptional in terms of its similarity to most cognitive
theories. The core belief of this theory is centred on the concept of considering people
as innately active learners with an urge and inherent curiosity to know their
environment and a predilection to meet challenges. Consequently, the main question
in expectancy-value theory is what shapes and directs learners’ inherent motivation
rather than what motivates them.

How do people develop their expectancy for success? Researchers focus on various
different factors which form a person’s cognitive processes. Dörnyei categorises these
factors, stating that “from an educational point of view, the most important aspects
include processing past experiences (Attribution theory), judging one’s own abilities
and competence (Self-efficacy theory), and attempting to maintain one’s self-esteem

### 3.6.2 Attribution Theory

Attribution theory occupies a unique position among other contemporary motivation
theories. Attribution theory is identified by many researchers as a unique theory in
regard to its successful challenge of Atkinson’s classic achievement motivation
theory. Therefore, it has become a reference for many researchers conducting studies
about students’ motivation since the 1980s. In addition, the Attribution theory is
considered as a unique theory because it succeeds in linking individuals’ past
experience with their future/potential achievement efforts by utilizing causal
attributions as a mediation link.

In 1992 Bernard Weiner, considered as one of the main proponents of this theory,
stated that the subjective reasons to which individuals attribute their past experiences
of failures and successes considerably characterize their motivational disposition. For
instance, if a person ascribes his past failure in a specific task to low ability on his part, the probability is that he is not going to try the same task ever again. On the other hand, if he believes that the problem lies in either unsuitable learning strategies which he used or insufficient effort made to perform the task, he is more expected to re-try the same task. On account of the high rate of failures in language learning, attributional processes are believed to play a significant motivational role, as Marion Williams and Bob Burden (1999), in their recent qualitative research, claimed.

Attributional processes, the dominant approach in research on learners’ motivation field in the 1980s, are considered to be one of the most significant influences on the formation of learners’ expectancies. Supporters of attributional processes conceptualize that the way individuals explain their own past failures and successes will significantly influence their future achievement behavior. For instance, failures which are ascribed to uncontrollable and stable factors such as the individual’s low ability reduces the expectation of success in future more than failures which are ascribed to controllable factors, such as effort exerted in the task (Weiner, 1979).

3.6.3 Self-worth Theory

According to the self-worth theory, the highest individual priority is the need for self-acceptance, consequently “in reality, the dynamics of school achievement largely reflect attempts to aggrandise and protect self-perceptions of ability” (Covington and Roberts, 1994, p 161). Drawing from what Covington and Roberts claim, it should be noted that the essential need for self-worth creates a number of unique patterns of behaviours and motivational beliefs in school settings. For instance, in the case of successfully performed tasks, people may hide the exact amount of effort they have exerted in the task in order to show others their own natural ability to perform the target task successfully, in other words to show others that they simply have high capability. Covington introduces a new concept known as failure with honor as a face-saving strategy by which students invite failure or unattainable goals, but, as
mentioned above, he uses the term ‘failure with honor’ “because so few others can be expected to succeed against these odds” (Covington, 1992, p 74).

3.6.4 Value Theory (Intrinsic, Extrinsic and Cost Values)

Value is the second constituent of expectancy-value theory. It has been categorized in a number of different ways and by various theorists, such as task value and achievement task value. Eccles and Wigfield (1995) stated that until recently the expectancy-value theorists have paid most attention to the expectancy component, while little attention was paid to measure or define the value component. As an attempt to fill this gap, Eccles and Wigfield have evolved a comprehensive approach to task values, categorizing them as four components: “attainment value (or importance), intrinsic value (or interest), extrinsic utility value, and cost” (Dörnyei 1998, p 120).

Eccles and Wigfield identified attainment value as the significance of doing well on a task with regard to the individual’s basic personal needs and values. Intrinsic value, on the other hand, is the pleasure or enjoyment the person attains from performing the task successfully or the subjective interest the person has in the task per se. The intrinsic value component is comparable to the construct of intrinsic motivation in certain respects, as defined by Harter (1981).

Extrinsic utility value stands for the usefulness of a task in achieving the person’s future goals, for example taking English classes to fulfill the requirement for an English language degree. The target task may have a positive value to the individual because it facilitates significant future plans or goals, even if they are not engaged in the task per se, for example, math learners who attend classes they do not particularly enjoy but that they are doing to achieve other goals, such as pleasing their parents or
being with their friends. Subsequently, this component moves to capture the more extrinsic reasons for performing a task (see Harter 1981; Deci and Ryan 1985). Further, it is also related directly to a person’s internalized long- and short-term goals. Cost value, the fourth component of Value concept of the expectancy-value theory, is constituted of the negative costs of a task, including factors such as expended time and effort and other emotional costs, such as fear of failure and anxiety. Therefore the interplay of these four components of the comprehensive model of task values will result in the overall achievement value of the target task, and this value is supposed to determine the intensity or strength of the behavior (the effort exerted in task completion).

### 3.6.5 Self Determination Theory

L2 motivation researchers started to utilize the cognitive motivational approaches they had for a better understanding of the exact nature of L2 motivation and the potential role it plays in L2 learners’ proficiency level. Consequently, scholars had more meaningfully sought to expand Gardner’s theory of L2 motivation rather than to question its credibility or validity (1994; Oxford 1994; Oxford and Shearin 1994; Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei 1990; Ely 1986), they thus introduced other dimensions or variables to accommodate the multidimensional nature of motivation (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). The newly introduced dimensions and approaches to the L2 motivation heritage were neither related to the social context nor Gardner’s socio-educational approach in general, but related to the immediate language learning situation and context, for example, learners’ anxiety level, the classroom, the teacher him/herself, and so on.

The new theories and approaches introduced to the L2 motivation ongoing research highlighted specific ambiguous issues and provided new features of this notion. Other theories proposed new frameworks in an attempt to explain L2 motivation (Wen 1997; Clement et al 1994; Brown 1990, 1994; Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei 1990),
which were not supposed to replace Gardner’s model. For example, Deci and Ryan (1985, 1995) shed a new light to the L2 motivational approach. They introduced a new theory called the self-determination theory which is considered to be one of the most important approaches in L2 motivation. Self-determination theory suggests that motivation can be classified into three categories, including extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. They, in this theory, distinguish between two subtypes of motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, both of which are the main terms related to the self-determination theory and have multiple levels (Deci and Ryan 1985, 1995).

Extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, within the self-determination theory, have been frequently used in the second language empirical and theoretical field without defining their relationship with established concepts in the L2 field, such as instrumental and integrative motivation (Noels et al 2000). In his discussion, Ryan states that extrinsic and intrinsic motivations reflect the motivational orientation but do not necessarily reflect the amount or level of motivation per se. He claims that an externally motivated person who acts for an external reason (reward) might be as effortful and energized as a person who acts for a self-determined reason. The difference between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, according to Ryan, lies in the different adopted attitudes as well as the possibility of engagement in the activity in the long run (Ryan 1985).

3.6.6 Goal Theories

L2 motivation research has always focused on L2 learners’ goals in studying their target language (McClelland, 2000; Belmechri and Hummel, 1998; Clement and Kruidenier, 1983). Locke and Latham in their Goal-setting theory assert that an individual’s action is made by purpose, thus goals have to be determined unambiguously in advance and pursued for the target action to take place (Locke, 1996; Locke and Latham, 1994). There are two particularly significant areas where individuals’ goals may differ, to which they are specific and the extent to which they are challenging (difficult). In their report on meta-analyses over 400 studies linked to human goals, Locke and Kristof (1996) stated explicitly that individual’s goals which
are both difficult and specific help to achieve a higher performance than ambiguous or specific but plain goals do. Another significant attribute of Goal theory is goals’ intensity, and the extent to which the individual is committed to achieving their goals. According to the Goal-setting theory, an individual’s commitment to achieving their goals is seen to be reinforced when achieving the target goals is believed to be possible and important.

There are four mechanisms, according to Dörnyei, by which goals influence performance: “(a) they direct attention and effort towards goal-relevant activities at the expense of actions that are not relevant; (b) they regulate effort expenditure in that people adjust their effort to the difficulty level required by the task; (c) they encourage persistence until the goal is accomplished; (d) they promote the search for relevant action plans or task strategies” (1998, p 120). Drawing from what Dörnyei claims, it should be noted that goals are not only results to achieve but also criteria by which to evaluate an individual’s performance. Therefore, in the case of continuous and long-lasting activities such as learning a second language where task accomplishment is a long-term goal to achieve, the setting of proximal sub-goals such as passing exams, taking tests, and fulfilling learning contracts may have a powerful motivational function. In other words, the proximal sub-goals mark the progress of learning the target language and provide immediate feedback and an incentive. Achievable sub-goals can also be seen as a significant tool to develop students’ self-efficacy (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998).

Whereas the recognition of the significance of goal-setting theory is certainly a welcome development in the L2 studies’ field, it should be noted that there is hardly any attempt in the L2 educational psychological field to adopt the other well-known and highly important theories such as the Goal-orientation theory. Pintrich and Schunk concluded that “Currently, it is probably the most active area of research on student
motivation in classrooms and it has direct implications for students and teachers” (2002, p 242).

Goal-orientation theory had been developed to serve a specific goal, which was to explain children’s performance and learning in school settings. In 1992, Ames concluded that the Goal-orientation theory sheds light upon two contrasting achievement orientations, or goal constructs which are adoptable by students towards their academic study. Dörnyei summarises how orientations and goal constructs are classified: “They can follow a mastery orientation and pursue mastery goals (also labelled as task-involvement or learning goals) with the focus on learning the content; or they can follow a performance orientation in pursuit of performance goals (or ego-involvement goals) with the focus on demonstrating ability, getting good grades, or outdoing other students” (1998, p 121). Therefore, performance and mastery goals stand for different success criteria and represent different reasons for taking part in achievement activity. The core of a mastery goal is centred on the belief that effort will achieve success and the focus is on the individual’s own growth and improvement. In contrast, the process of learning according to a performance orientation is seen as no more than a way to achieve a goal. Ames states that mastery goals are associated with a predilection for challenging work, intrinsic interest in and positive attitudes towards learning per se, and therefore they are considered to be superior to performance goals (Ames 1992).

3.7 Willingness to Communicate (WTC) Model

Willingness to Communicate represents the final extension of the motivation research, and the final psychological step before engaging in the act of L2 communication. The notion of Willingness to communicate was first introduced by McCroskey and associates to second language learning, (McCroskey and Richmond, 1987, McCroskey and Baer, 1985). They used the Willingness to Communicate Concept (WTC) in second language contexts as an attempt to describe peoples’ personality based on
predisposition toward avoiding or engaging in the act of L2 communications when free to do so. Further, while the Willingness to Communicate Concept in L1 (First language) describes personality traits, it becomes a more complicated concept when the L2 usage applies (See Figure 3.2), because the use of L2 introduces influential situational differences based on powerful modifying variations, such as an individual’s L2 proficiency level and an individual’s L2 communicative competence (Dörnyei, 1998). Drawing from the above, it should be noted that L2 communicative competence and WTC are not the same. For instance, there are many second language learners who have a very high L2 communicative competence yet they avoid engaging in L2 communication situations. On the other hand, other L2 learners with a low proficiency level might have a high tendency to seek opportunities through which they can engage in L2 communications. Therefore, WTC was defined in L2 as “a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2.” (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, and Noels, 1998, p 547).

Figure 3.2 Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC  (MacIntyre1998, p 547)
According to Figure 3.2, the various factors contributing to this model (WTC) are categorized into two different groups: situational influences and enduring influences. Situational influences are believed to be the most proximal causes to engage in L2 communicational situations. The first three layers closest to the top of the pyramid in Figure 3.2 represent the situational influences on the Willingness to Communicate model, namely (1) Communication Behaviour, (2) Behaviour Intention, and (3) Situated Antecedents. The other three layers closest to the bottom represent relatively enduring and stable influences on the process of L2 communication, namely Motivation Propensities, Affective-Cognitive Context, and Social and Individual Context. Consequently, from the top to the bottom, the pyramid and its six layers represent a move from immediate situational contextual influences in layers VI, V, IV to reach more enduring and stable influences of specific variables on second language communication situations in layers III, II, I. MacIntyre in 1998 defined and explained clearly those stable and situation-based influences in the WTC model as: “The enduring influences represent stable, long-term properties of the environment or person that would apply to almost any situation. The situational influences (e.g. desire to speak to a specific individual, knowledge of the topic, etc.) are seen as more transient and dependent on the specific context in which a person functions at a given time” (p 546).

In MacIntyre’s model (1998), WTC consists of a group of cognitive effective variables which interact with other social factors. He demonstrates the complexity of the L2 use and hypothesizes that social context and personality traits have an indirect influence on WTC through L2 competence and attitudes, whereas self-confidence and motivation directly affect L2 communication frequency (WTC). MacIntyre’s hypothesis was a response to Gardner’s socio-educational model (1985), in which Gardner stated that personality traits affect the proficiency level achieved by L2 learners indirectly. Further, MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, and Noels stated that their heuristic model of “Willingness to Communicate” can be of pedagogical and practical use in illustrating personal differences in WTC, which is significant for second
language learners to succeed in their SLA (1998). The importance of the heuristic model is due the fact that it was the “first attempt at a comprehensive treatment of WTC in the L2” as a situation-based variable (1998, p 558).

The WTC model presented by MacIntyre and his associates attempts to bring together the different transient and enduring variables which affect the process of second language acquisition and its use, resulting in a well-organized structure in which linguistic and psychological factors integrate in an exemplary manner. Baker and Macintyre (2000) conducted a study in Canada to examine the non-linguistic outcomes of a non-immersion and immersion programme by using the construct of WTC. The results of Baker and Macintyre’s study showed that language anxiety, communicative competence and motivation are predictors of WTC.

Sections 3.4 to 3.7 were grouped together as they addressed the same topic of motivation and the L2 self. In these sections, I discussed the gradual shift in L2 motivation from focusing on language teaching methods to focusing on the L2 learners themselves. This included a discussion of the recent theories explaining L2 learners’ motivational dispositions, behaviors and attitudes towards learning a target language and the different constructs of the Self, including, L2 learner’s willingness to communicate during the process of learning an L2. This shift in L2 motivation research was discussed as my research was investigating L2 learners’ motivation and attitudes from both dimensions, the psychological and the process dimensions. This chapter has addressed the former. The next chapter addresses the latter.
3.8 Summary

In this chapter, I have presented a review of L2 motivation research. I have discussed in detail the different factors which could affect L2 learners’ motivation towards learning their target language from the psychological perspective. The presented literature on motivation in L2 learning started with developmental stages of motivation research in the psychological dimension. L2 motivation research was initially constructed on the bases of psychology and measured mainly by using psychometric test batteries employing quantitative methodology. Gardner’s socio-educational model and his theory on the relationship between the influence of L2 motivation and attitudes on the proficiency level were discussed. The classical concept of integrative motivation suggested by Gardner in the 1980s has been re-interpreted in order to fit with the globalization era and the global spread of English as an international language. Integrative motivation to learn English is no longer related to having favourable attitudes towards English native speakers and community as suggested by Gardner, but rather it is a necessity to become a member of the international English-speaking community.

The gradual shift in L2 motivation research and the increased focus on the L2 learners themselves and the learning context were discussed in detail in this chapter. I discussed the shift from focusing on L2 learners’ attitudes and feelings towards the target language, its community and native speakers towards the L2 learner themselves and how they make their decision to learn the target language and attempt to achieve their goals. This chapter presented recent theories and constructs in L2 motivation research which reflect individual’s motivational dispositions, behaviors and attitudes such as the need for competence, achievement and possible selves theories. In summary, this chapter presented material necessary for understanding L2 learner’s psychology, how they make their decision to learn a target language and how they construct a plan to achieve their goals. This aimed to help in our understanding of the L2 Self of the participants in this research, their L2 motivation and its relationship with their proficiency level.
Chapter 4: L2 Motivation and Attitude in Learning a Target Language

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a critical review of L2 motivation and related theoretical and empirical studies in learning a target language. It begins with an overview of the key themes in L2 motivation and learning a second language research, covering Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model (1985), the L2 motivational self-system (Markus and Nurius 1986), and the relationship between different types of motivation and L2 learning. This is followed by the Process-Oriented Model of L2 motivation suggested by Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) and the role of L2 attitudes in learning a target language. Presenting L2 motivation in learning a target language helped to contextualise the recent debates and theories on L2 learners’ motivation, its dynamics, and its relationship with their proficiency level. This might provide a foundation to better understand the nature of L2 motivation in learning a second language and its relationship with proficiency level.

The concept of motivation in L2 learning was first examined by Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert, Canadian social psychologists in 1959. Gardner and Lambert conducted a series of researches and studies in Canada, in which they investigated Canadian language learners’ attitudes and motivation towards learning the French and English languages. The first empirical study conducted by Gardner and Lambert related to L2 motivation and aimed to identify and measure different variables that shape and affect Canadian learners’ attitude and motivation within a bilingual community in which the French and English languages are taught in schools from early ages (Gardner and Lambert, 1959).
4.2 Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model and the Concept of Integrativeness

In Gardner’s socio-educational model, motivation is a blend of how the L2 learner feels about the target language per se, the process of learning that language, the extent to which they want to learn it and how much effort an L2 learner exerts to learn the target language. In his early research, Gardner disregarded instrumentality as a pattern of motivation and limited it to a form of orientation. Therefore, a language learner may either be integratively or instrumentally oriented or integratively or instrumentally motivated. In 2001 Gardner’s point of view about integrative motivation was revised when he acknowledged that there are other factors associated with motivation, such as instrumental motivation, which is a combination of instrumental variables. The terms ‘integrative motivation’, ‘orientation’ and ‘instrumentality’ are discussed briefly in the paragraphs below, in regard to their influences on second language acquisition.

4.2.1 Integrative Dimension

The notion of integrative motivation was first introduced by Gardner and Lambert, founders of the field of the socio-educational model in second language acquisition, to L2 studies in an attempt to define and characterize the diversity in L2 multicultural environments (1959, 1972). Subsequently, Gardner’s integrative motivation became a pivotal part of his motivation theory and a reference for many other researchers. Yet in spite of the importance attached to it, the concept of integrativeness has remained an enigma without an obvious definition of its nature. As Gardner points out, “the term is used frequently in literature, though close inspection will reveal that it has slightly different meaning to many different individuals” (2001, p 1). Second language learners with integrative motivation are supposed to possess a positive outlook on the target language and its culture and they are believed to exert more efforts to learn it. Yet integrative motivation attracts massive attention and is among the most often researched concepts in the L2 field, and has continually emerged in a great number of empirical studies connecting it to different aspects of the learning process (Dörnyei 2003). Gardner’s concept of integrative motivation consists of three integrative
components: 1- Integrative orientation, 2- Integrativeness, and 3- the integrative motive (2001) (See Figure 4.1). As can be seen, integrative motivation feeds into integrativeness, which is one of the three prime components of integrative motivation.

![Figure 4.1: A Schematic Representation of the Integrative Motivation Construct (Based on Gardner, 1985)](image)

L2 learners’ attitude towards the learning situation, as in Figure 4.1, refers to the immediate language learning context, such as attitudes towards the teacher or the course per se. A student’s success in language learning, for example, could be hindered by a teacher’s bad temper. According to Gardner (2004) and as mentioned above, motivation itself is a goal-directed behaviour which consists of three factors: 1- Effort, 2- Desire, and 3- Enjoyment. In other words, the second language learner exerts effort because he or she wants to learn the language (has a goal) and enjoys
doing so (affect). Furthermore, according to Gardner, only the truly motivated language learner displays the three factors. “My feeling is that such a mixture is necessary to adequately capture what is meant by motivation,” he says, (1995, p 100), and “it is the total configuration that will eventuate in second language achievement,” he adds (1985, p 169).

Before proceeding, it should be emphasized that Gardner distinguished between orientations and integrative motive, which are both constituents of integrative motivation. Orientations in Gardner’s terminology “represent ultimate goals for achieving more immediate goal of learning the second language” (1985, p 11). Integrative motive, on the other hand, is defined by Gardner as the “motivation to learn a second language because of positive feelings toward the community that speaks the language” (1985, p 82-3) (See Figure 4.1). Most L2 researchers and studies on motivation have always stressed the relationship between integrative motivation and proficiency level. According to most L2 researchers, learners who possess integrative motivation for learning their second language are thought to be more successful in reaching a level like a native speakers' level compared to learners with instrumental motivation (Norris-Holt 2001). Since an integratively motivated learner likes the language, they learn and everything related to that language, such as the society in which the L2 language is spoken in its social situation and people who are using this language (Falk, 1978). They are expected to be more successful in learning the language than learners who are instrumentally motivated to learn a L2. However most of the studies which investigated the relationship between L2 motivation and the proficiency level did not apply accurate methods to measure that relationship, but rather linked questionnaires’ data to final exam results, which does not uncover the nature of the relationship between L2 motivation and the proficiency level.
Gardner conceptualizes that the integrative motivation “stresses an emotional involvement with another community” and “reflects a positive non-ethnocentric approach to the other community” (Gardner 1985, p 133-134). Similarly, integrative motivation subsumes openness to, and implies a respect for other cultures and different ways of life. Dörnyei, in his turn, acknowledges the importance of the social dimension but indicates that it is simply one dimension among many others which affect and characterize the process of language learning, and maybe it is not the most significant component of motivation. Clement, Dörnyei and Noels, in their discussion of Gardner’s socio-educational model, corroborate Gardner’s perception that it is a “positive interpersonal affective disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community. It implies an openness and respect for other cultural groups and ways of life; in the extreme, it might involve complete identification with the community (and possibly even withdrawal from one’s original group). Thus a core aspect of the integrative disposition is some sort of psychological and emotional identification” (1994, p 5).

Unlike learning any other subject at school, language learning requires an adaptation not only to the linguistic structures of the target language but also “behavior and cognitive features that are part of another culture” (Gardner et al 2004, p 172).

Marion Williams contends that learning a language can be differentiated from learning other subjects in various ways: “There is no question that learning a... language is different to learning other subjects. This is mainly because of the social nature of such a venture. Language, after all, belongs to a person’s whole social being: it is part of one’s identity, and is used to convey this identity to other people” (1999, p 77). Language learning entails adaptation of new behaviours and ideas which affect the learner’s identity and self-perception. Therefore the more the second language learners are open to the target language; the more they are successful in language learning (Gardner 1985). According to Gardner, integrative motivation “includes the exertion of effort in and display of resolution to learn the TL, a disposition to affiliate
with the TLC, and a favorable perception of the learning context, an interplay of self-concept, attitudes, and motivation” (Gardner et al. 2004, p 10).

**4.2.2 Instrumental Dimension**

Instrumentality has been the other most frequently highlighted term in second language motivational research beside integrativeness. It contrasts with the features and ends of integrativeness and generally refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of learning a second language and reflects the desire to obtain either a practical or a concrete benefit from it (Hudson, 2000). Instrumentality is recognised by many L2 learners as the usefulness of learning the target language. Therefore the main purpose of instrumentally motivated L2 learners is utilitarian goals such as receiving a higher salary or a better job as a consequence of mastering the second language (Agnihotri, 1984; Gardner, 2001) L2 Learners who are instrumentally motivated can also have integrative elements and be interested in L2 community or native speakers of the target language, or they can be neutral towards L2 itself and the other components of it, such as community and L2 native speakers. What is important for instrumentally motivated L2 learners is to meet their own utilitarian desires and needs, such as having a higher social status in the community they live in or passing exams.

Gardner defines instrumentality as "learning a language because of someone or a less clearly perceived utility it might have for the learner" (1983, p 203). More specifically, an L2 learner is instrumentally motivated when they want to learn a language for pragmatic reasons, for example "to pass an examination, to use it in one's job, to use it in holiday in the country, as a change from watching television, because the educational system requires it" (Wilkins, 1972, p184). Additionally, both instrumentality and integrativeness can play a significant role in terms of encouraging the L2 learner in either a negative or a positive way to learn their target language, as some learners can be instrumentally and integratively motivated at the same time (Ellis, 1994). Remarkably, integrative motivation and orientation are more important
in the second language learning field than instrumentality, according to Gardner (1985). Gardner and Lambert (1972) claimed that second language learners with integrative motivation could be more highly motivated and hence more successful in learning the L2 than instrumentally oriented learners because they would regard the target language and the target language community more positively.

4.2.3 Limitations of Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model

Even though many scholars and researchers corroborated what Gardner hypothesized in his socio-educational model about the existence of a relationship between motivation and L2 learning (Spolsky 1969; Oller 1977), Gardner’s conceptualization generated much controversy with many other scholars and researchers, who expressed their reservations about what he claimed in his theory. Some scholars questioned the credibility and validity of Gardner’s theory depending on different criteria, among which are the definition of the term ‘integrativeness’, the existence of many other kinds of motivation in learning a second language and whether the potential relationship between attitudes and language learning is casual or not. The recent research and studies suggest that there are a number of limitations to Gardner’s theory. First, the notion of causality in L2 learning is an issue at the centre of the controversial argument. Savignon states that how successful or unsuccessful you are in learning a language influences your attitudes (1972). Furthermore, Skehan questions whether motivation causes success in learning a language or is caused by it and concludes his argument that it is both (1989). On the other hand, Ushioda argues that success in language learning fuels motivation and not the other way around (1993).

Gass and Selinker argue that “it makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a great degree. Furthermore, numerous studies have provided statistical evidence that indicates motivation is a predictor of the language learning success” (2001, p 349). They then continued to validate attitude as a cause of motivation. Gardner and MacIntyre conducted a study in which they
determined that both kinds of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic, were facilitative of and significant in second language learning: “Because integrative motivation has an attitudinal foundation in favorable attitudes toward the other ethnic community, other groups in general, and the language learning context, it is reasonable to expect it to have a continuing influence on language learning and use” (1991, p 71). Therefore the causal relationship is explained thus: attitudes affect motivation which in turn affects the proficiency level.

Gardner and MacIntyre also state that the instrumental motive lasts only until the goal is attained (1991). A study in 1986 conducted by Kruidenier and Clement corroborated the causal relationship between motivation and learning a target language but contended that “the original distinction between integrative and instrumental motivations is lacking in universal relevance” (1986, p 284). They emphasized the need to investigate other kinds of learners’ motivation in different language learning contexts (other than the Canadian context) as well as the need to shed light on many other factors which could play an important role in language learning either inside the classroom or outside it, as a language learner could be driven by various goals.

The relative predictive power of each kind of motivation was found to be inconsistent (Au 1988). Even though some studies concluded that integrative motivation towards learning a second language was a good predictor of L2 variables (Gardner and Lambert 1959), others indicated that instrumental motivation was an equivalent and sometimes a better predictor than integrative motivation per se (Gardner and Lambert 1972; Hudson and Liu 1977). Gardner argues that both kinds of motivation, integrative and instrumental, are not mutually exclusive, and both kinds could sustain effort (1985).
A study conducted by Oxford and Shearin (1994) concludes that there are six different variables involved in L2 motivation and learning a language, namely attitudes, learning goals, beliefs about self, interest in the language learning process, environmental support and personal characteristics such as language aptitude, gender, and age. In a later study of American L2 learners studying Japanese, conducted in 1996, the results showed that some of the reasons for studying Japanese language were neither integrative nor instrumental. The studies resulted in twenty-one motivational categories such as showing off to relatives or friends and personal challenge, intellectually stimulation, the fascination with language aspects (Oxford and Shearin 1996), curiosity and interest (Crookes and Schmidt 1991), the need for stimulation and achievement (Dörnyei, 1990), or a desire for assimilation (Graham, 1985). Noticeably, the number of motivational categories could be countless; this, however, does not disprove the import of Gardner’s socio-educational framework.

4.3 The L2 Motivational Self System

The L2 Motivational Self System, a proposed concept in the motivational field, represents an attempt to reform the previous thinking of the nature and role of motivation in L2 by its explicit utilization of previous psychological theories in literature of the Self. Its roots are firmly set in previous theoretical and empirical research in the L2 field. L2 motivation researchers have always stated that learning an L2 is more than improving communication skills. L2 motivation researchers, therefore, have adopted paradigms that linked learning an L2 to the individual’s personal core, forming a significant part of the individual’s identity. Subsequently researchers proposed a new systematical concept which explicitly puts emphasis on aspects of one’s self which is convenient for the past theorising perspective of “the whole-person” (Dörnyei, 2006).

The L2 Motivational Self System model has resulted from the combined effect of two important theoretical developments, one of which is taking place in the L2 motivation
field, the other in the mainstream motivational psychological field. Taking a close look at the L2 field first, we can deduce that L2 motivation research in the last several decades was mainly centered around the highly influential motivational theory of Gardner’s socio-educational framework of integrative/integrativeness, first suggested by Gardner and Lambert (1959). During the last two decades, many studies have been conducted to explore the theoretical contents this concept is based on. The interest in conducting further studies on Gardner’s framework was partly because it did not present any explicit links with the recently emerged cognitive motivational theories in the motivational psychological field such as the self-determination theory or goal theories, and partly because the concept of ‘integrative’ was an ambiguous term in regard to its exact definition and role in many language learning environments. The important theoretical development in the psychology of the “Self” contributed to the genesis of the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2006). It should be noted that both theoretical developments were equally important to inform L2 motivation research.

Self-concept was traditionally considered to be the summary of the person’s self-knowledge linked to how the individual views themselves at present. Carver states that the possible Self represents the individual’s ideas of what they hope to become, what they might become and what, and what they are afraid of (1994). Markus and Nurius proposed a unique self-dimension in which they referred to future rather than current self-state (1986). Additionally, whereas the self-concept is usually expected to focus on information derived from the person’s previous experiences, the new notion of possible selves, proposed by Markus and Nurius, focuses on how individuals imagine their as-yet unrealized potential, and as such, it also draws on wishes, fantasies and hopes. Possible selves, in this sense, behave as ‘future self-guides’ representing a forward-pointing and dynamic conception which demonstrates how a person can move from the present towards the future. Looking back on the last two decades of empirical and theoretical research on possible selves, Markus sums it up as: “Focusing on possible selves gave us license to speculate about the remarkable
power of imagination in human life. We also had room to think about the importance of the self-structure as a dynamic interpretive matrix for thought, feeling, and action, and to begin to theorize about the role of sociocultural contexts in behaviour. Finally, the concept wove together our mutual interests in social psychology, social work, and clinical psychology” (Markus, 2006, p xi).

Markus and Nurius identified three main kinds of possible selves: (1) “ideal selves that we would very much like to become; (2) selves that we could become; (3) selves we are afraid of becoming” (1986, p 954). The hoped-for or ideal selves include “the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self, while the feared or unwanted selves might include the alone self, the depressed self, the incompetent self, the alcoholic self or the unemployed self” (Markus and Nurius 1986, p 954).

Dörnyei based his new concept of L2 motivation on Gardner’s Integrativeness/integrative motivation framework (2006). The new concept draws on several L2 learning and on “Self” research studies conducted in the psychological field. The new framework, L2 Motivational Self System, consists of three dimensions namely as 1- the Ideal L2 Self, 2- the Ought-to Self and 3- the L2 Learning Experience.

The first dimension, the ideal L2 self, indicates the desired attributes which an individual would ideally like to possess, for instance the representation of aspirations, hopes, or wishes. Higgins in his 1987 paper states that the Ideal L2 Self can be derived from either the person’s own or someone else’s views. In other words, the Ideal Self might include attributes which another individual would like the person to possess in the ideal self-status.
The second dimension, the Ought-to Self, refers to the attributes that a person believes that they ought to possess, for instance the representation of someone else’s sense of obligations, duties or moral responsibilities, and which therefore may resemble the person’s own wishes or desires.

Even though the Ought-to and Ideal Self are both future selves, they are different. “Ideal self-guides have a promotion focus, concerned with hopes, aspirations, advancements, growth, and accomplishments, whereas ought self-guides have a prevention focus, regulating the absence or presence of negative outcomes, concerned with safety, responsibilities, and obligations” (Csizér and Dörnyei 2005a, p 617). The last dimension, the L2 Learning Experience, is more related to the learning context, such as classroom context and teacher efficacy.

4.4 L2 Learning and the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

4.4.1 Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is known as the inherent tendency and interest to search for challenges and novelty, and developing and exercising one's capacities to learn and to explore. More specifically, intrinsic motivation is a behaviour that is energized by an internal pleasure gained from engaging in activities of learning the new language, such as enjoyment and spontaneous satisfaction. Deci and Ryan state that these feelings of pleasure and enjoyment are derived from increasing a sense of competence over a voluntarily selected activity (1985; 1995).

However, it should be taken into consideration that children, in their healthiest states and from the time of birth, are active, curious, inquisitive, and playful, even in the absence of specific external rewards (Harter, 1978). Vallerand, in his turn,
hypothesized that there are at least three different subtypes of intrinsic motivation (Vallerand 1997):

1- Intrinsic Knowledge refers to the feelings of pleasure and enjoyment which are derived from developing knowledge and a spontaneous satisfaction of one’s inquisitiveness about a specific topic area. For example, an English second language learner with this kind of motivation may look up obscure English words just to fulfill their curiosity towards English language, not because they have been asked to do so or because of an immediate necessity.

2- Intrinsic Accomplishment, which is the delightful sensations that are associated with transcending oneself and mastering an intricate task or solve a difficult activity. The emphasis in Intrinsic Accomplishment is on the process of achievement rather than the end result per se.

3- Intrinsic Stimulation which is the simple pleasure gained from the aesthetics of the experience. For instance, in a language learning context, this kind of intrinsic motivation can be characterized by a learner who delights in the melody, sounds, and rhythm of a few lines of poetry or a piece of prose in the foreign language.

4.4.2 Extrinsic Motivation

In 1985, Deci and Ryan identified in their Self-determination four subtypes of Extrinsic Motivation, namely External, Introjected, Integrated, and Identified types of regulation. Deci and Ryan’s conceptualization was based on the concept of Internalization. “Internalization is the process to taking in a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self. Thought of as
continuum, the concept of internalization describes how one’s motivation for behavior can range from unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment.” (Ryan and Deci, 2000a p 60). For instance, a student who is not interested in learning the cities’ names in his country will not be intrinsically motivated to do so, thus his process of learning cities’ names would entail contingent consequences such as a contextual reward, an expected praise from the teacher (See figure 4.2).

Unlike Intrinsic motivation, which likely includes tasks that are sufficiently challenging, novel, or aesthetically pleasurable to be defined as intrinsically motivating (Ryan and Deci, 2000), Extrinsic motivation consists of an external gratification, such as pleasing the teacher, compliments or grades. Four different types of extrinsic motivation were identified by Deci and Ryan in 1985

1- External Regulation: learners who are externally regulated are learning their second language to gain some benefits such as the possibility of gaining a reward, to gain a better job, or to pass exams. The similarity of these paradigms to Gardner’s instrumental and integrative motivation (2001) and Dörnyei’s personal and social dimensions (2009) uncovers the fact that many previous theories and notions have been repackaged with minor additions of detail.

2- The Introjected Regulation, on the other hand, is defined as being more internalized than External Regulation, which is categorized as the least self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. For instance, a student with this subtype of extrinsic motivation has already adopted contingencies and now expects rewards or pressures. This type of motivation is nonetheless seen as being a subtype of extrinsic motivation in regard to the fact that the student is not behaving in a specific way because it is inherently delightful. Rather, such a student is often motivated to avoid failure or to display their ability in order to
modify their feelings towards the self-worth notion (Deci, Egharari, Patrick and Leone, 1994). For instance, an L2 learner may learn a target language because of their desire to “show off” or to avoid the feelings of embarrassment.

3- Identified Regulation is defined as being more self-determined. A student may decide to engage in an activity because of the value of the activity per se, which is considered as to be significant for some aspect of the self, according to the student themselves. A student with this subtype of extrinsic motivation, Identified Regulation, might decide to learn a second language because it is helpful in order to achieve another significant goal. For instance, for some students to become a good scholar, teacher, or counsellor (terms which they value) might be enhanced by improving their skills in the second language. Identified Regulation somewhat differentiates from the External Regulation, for instance in Identified Regulation achieving the goal is significant because it has self-determined significance and not because of some external imperative requirement.

4- Integrated regulation, on the other hand, is the most autonomous advanced form of extrinsic motivation “Integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one’s other values and needs.” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p 73). Integrated Regulation somewhat resembles intrinsic motivation in terms of being fully directed by the self.

Unlike intrinsic motivation, a student with an integrated motivation may engage in an activity not because it is pleasurable and delightful for the student, but because it is recognised as an aspect of the self. For instance, a student with this kind of subtype of extrinsic motivation considers himself to be a “universal person” who is able to roam freely and across cultural boundaries. Therefore, he may see competence in learning
one or more languages as an inherent part of that self-concept. Integrated regulation is not antagonistic to what Gardner stated about integrative motivation in his socio-educational framework. For instance, Integrated Regulation means that the activity is selected because of its coherence with some other aspects of the self-concept.

It should be noted that integrated motivation and intrinsic motivation are different. Whereas intrinsic motivation is defined as an interest in the activity per se, Integrated Regulation is considered to be a personal interest in the activity because of a valued outcome.

4.4.3 Amotivation

Amotivation, on the far left in Figure 4.2 below, is categorized as the third motivational construct which can be considered as the opposite side of the other types of motivation, specifically the intrinsic subtypes of motivation. Ryan and Deci state that Amotivation “is the state of lacking an intention to act … a category that represents the least autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation, a category we label external regulation. Such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency” (2000, p 61).

Drawing from what Ryan and Deci stated about Amotivation, it should be noted that an amotivated student is a person whose behaviour lacks intentionality and an existence of personal causation. Amotivation results from the absence of people’s tendency to value an activity (Ryan, 1995). Furthermore, an amotivated person does not feel competent to do it (Deci, 1975), or does not expect that it will necessarily yield up a desired outcome (Ryan and Deci, 2000). For instance, when amotivated students do not see a clear relationship between their act and the potential outcome, they are more likely to quit the activity, and with an absence of a clear or personal reason to continue, students tend to disengage from the activity as soon as it is feasible. It should be noted that orientations are not necessarily exclusive: a second
language learners might not be driven solely by merely one orientation, rather they may endorse several goals for learning their L2, some of which are expected to be more significant than others.

**Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations**

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations (Adapted from Ryan and Deci, 2000)

Drawing from the previous brief description of the Self-determination theory, there has been a critical distinction made between volitional behaviors which are accompanied by the experience of autonomy and freedom - those which emerge from one’s sense that reflects an aspect of the self-concept - and those which are not representing one’s self and are accompanied by the experience of control and pressure. Intrinsically motivated acts are performed out of personal interest and to
satisfy the psychological tendency for autonomy and competence which are considered as the prototype of self-determined act. Extrinsically motivated acts, on the other hand, are instrumental to some external or contextual gratification. Extrinsically motivated behaviours transform into more self-determined behaviours through Integration and Internalization processes.

Likewise, Burden and Williams’s framework (1997) of second language motivation emphasizes the significance of the dimensions added to L2 motivation theories in terms of uncovering and demonstrating the mysterious gaps in this field, particularly, the significance of time and context. “An individual’s motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences. These will include the whole culture and context and the social situation, as well as significant other people and the individual’s interaction with these people” (1997, p 121).

4.4.4 The Relationship between Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation and other Language Learning Variables

Over the past decades, scholarly interest in the exact role and nature of Intrinsic motivation in the language learning process has been continually growing (Brown 1994, Dörnyei 1990, 1998). Several empirical studies have been conducted to examine the relationship between intrinsic motivation and a variety of behavioural, cognitive, and affective variables. For instance, a second language learner with intrinsic motivation is identified as having more positive attitudes towards the L2 language and community, a lower level of anxiety, and satisfying feelings of self-effectiveness towards the language learning process (Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy, 1996; Ehrman, 1996). It has also been associated with other behavioral variables such as language use, motivational and persistence intensity, and language learning strategies (Ramage, 1990). Additionally, intrinsic motivation has been linked with cognitive variables, including grammatical sensitivity, reading and speaking proficiency level (Ehrman 1996; Tachibana, Matsukawa, and Zhong, 1996).
The relationship between motivation and language achievement is consequently complex and the results presented in the literature seem to indicate this. Recently, Gardner and Masgoret persuasively demonstrated the positive influence of motivation on the proficiency level of second language learners through a meta-analysis of several studies undertaken by Gardner and associates (2003), in which 75 independent motivation studies and more than 10,000 participants were involved. They, Gardner and Masgoret, concluded that this correlation between motivation and language achievement is largely positive and stated that the conflicting results in literature could be accounted for by methodological differences. The results showed that "the correlations between achievement and motivation are uniformly higher than the correlations between achievement and intergrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, or integrative and instrumental orientation" (Gardner 2003, p 201).

The previous sections, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 have been grouped as these sections addressed the same topic of the traditional types of the L2 motivation. The first studies which initiated L2 motivation research within the context of learning a target language have been presented, beginning with Gardner’s distinction of the different types of L2 motivation: integrative and instrumental. Thereafter, Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System was discussed, illustrating the shift in L2 motivation research towards the L2 learner. Since my research aimed to investigate students’ motivation towards learning English including their integrative and instrumental motivation, it was essential to discuss the most important theories in L2 motivation research.

4.5 Schumann's Neurobiological Model of L2 Motivation (A Neurobiological Process)

The theoretical development of L2 motivation in language learning has been accounted for the development of research in the social context and how it affects language learners. In his turn, Schumann and his associates, in the 1990s, presented a
very novel line of research into L2 motivational studies by conducting a neurobiological study of the brain mechanisms included in SLA, which resulted in revolutionary progress in the field (Schumann, 2001). Recent revolutionary technological innovations in brain neuroimaging and scanning have made the structure of the brain more understandable, and therefore increasingly amenable for the conducting of a psychological study. Dörnyei pointed out the importance of Schumann’s neurobiological model from the L2 motivation perspective “This means that the various mental processes that have been by and large unobservable in the past might receive direct empirical validation in neurobiological studies. What is particularly important from our perspective is that the first area of SLA that Schumann has examined from a neurobiological point of view has been L2 motivation, and the result of this examination has been an intriguing motivation theory” (2003, P 10).

The key component of Schumann's neurobiological model is *stimulus appraisal*. According to this theory, the brain’s evaluation of the stimuli it receives results in an emotional response. The process of stimulus appraisal occurs in the brain along five dimensions: “novelty (degree of unexpectedness/familiarity), pleasantness (attractiveness), goal/need significance (whether the stimulus is instrumental in satisfying needs or achieving goals), coping potential (whether the individual expects to be able to cope with the event), and self and social image (whether the event is compatible with social norms and the individual's self-concept)” (Dörnyei; 1998, p 127). According to Schumann’s theory, stimulus appraisals become a part of the individual’s evaluation system through a specific memory for evaluation module, and therefore they are mostly responsible in the sense they control human action.

### 4.6 A Process-Oriented Model of L2 Motivation

Researchers and scholars over the last decades have conducted numerous studies to understand the exact nature of and role played by motivation in SLA (Galloway,
Rogers, Armstrong, and Leo, 1998). By understanding the nature of L2 motivation, researchers attempt to assist teachers in understanding their students’ behaviour. Furthermore, this enables teachers to better evaluate their classes and the teaching methods applied.

The fluctuation commitment level represented by L2 learners during the different stages of learning and conceptualising of motivation as an ongoing changeable evolving concept over time in SLA has demanded more interest and further study of L2 motivation since the late 1990s (Ushioda, 2001; Williams and Burden, 1997). In a comprehensive overview of the evolution process of motivation, Dörnyei concluded that “Learners tend to demonstrate a fluctuating level of commitment even within a single lesson, and the variation in their motivation over a longer period (e.g., a whole academic term) can be dramatic” (2003, p 17). Furthermore, Dörnyei’s process-oriented approach can be considered as an integration of multi-trends research studies, and seems to be essential in studies which attempt to account for the evolution of motivation over time, or in studies which examine motivation and its relationship to particular learner’s behaviours and different classroom processes (Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) process-oriented approach of L2 motivation is considered to be, to date, the only fully comprehensive and developed model with the subsequent elaborations of this model by Dörnyei (2000).

The unique feature of Kuhl and Heckhausen’s Action Control theory formed the fundamental core of Dörnyei - Ottó’s process-oriented approach (Heckhausen, 1991; Heckhausen and Kuhl, 1985). Action Control Theory is considered as one of the most elaborated theories of motivation, but it is only mentioned here to highlight one main aspect. Motivation investigates not only why people engage in tasks and activities but also investigates the extent to which they persist and exert effort to complete these activities. Therefore, Action Control theory identifies two phases that are sequentially ordered within the motivated behavioural sequence:
1- The pre decisional phase, the stage in which people take their decisions of motivation or “choice motivation”, including a highly complex setting-goals process followed by calculation of the possible plans to adopt in order to pursue the already set goals.

2- The post decisional phase, “executive motivation”, is the stage in which people put their plans that they chose in the pre decisional phase into action and start to pursue their goals in spite of the internal obstacles which they may face until the action is eventually completed and the goals are met (Dörnyei 2000).

Dörnyei and Otto’s process-oriented model of motivation (1998) aimed primarily to achieve two main goals namely: 1- they aimed to replace the old dominant theories of motivation at the time, such as the product-oriented approach, with their own new theory, a process-oriented perspective of motivation as an alternative. 2- They aimed to unify, within a framework, various lines of research on motivation in the L2 field and in educational psychology.

According to the essence of Dörnyei and Otto’s approach, the overall motivated behavioural process cycle is broken down into three sequentially ordered, temporal and discrete stages. These stages demonstrate how the initial wishes, desires and hopes made by individuals are first transformed into goals, then transformed into operationalized intentions. This in turn leads individuals to take an action towards accomplishing the goals that are made of the initial wishes and desires. Afterwards, the process is concluded by the final evaluation of the overall process (Dörnyei, 2000). According to Dörnyei (2003), the process model of L2 motivation is divided into three stages, namely Pre-Actional Stage, Actional Stage, and Post-actional:
1- “Pre-actional Stage: First, motivation needs to be generated. The motivational dimension related to this initial phase can be referred to as a choice motivation. It is referred to as a choice motivation because the generated motivation leads to the selection of the goal that the individual will pursue.” (Dörnyei, p 19).

2- “Actional Stage: The generated motivation needs to be actively maintained and protected while the particular action lasts. This motivational dimension has been referred to as an executive motivation. The executive motivation is particularly relevant to sustain activities such as studying L2 and learning in classroom settings.” (ibid, p 19).

3- “Post-actional Stage: The third phase following the completion of the action-termed motivational retrospection. This concerns the learners’ retrospective evaluation of how things went. The way students process their past experiences in this retrospective phase determines the kind of activities they will be motivated to pursue in the future.” (ibid, p 20).

4.6.1 Pre-actional Stage

The Pre-actional stage is the first stage in the Motivated Behavioral Process, and within which the process of “choice motivation” takes place. During the Pre-Actional Stage, a person is engaged in forming an intention to take their first action towards achieving their goals. Afterwards they decide on the most suitable plan to be followed in the process of relazing the intention of act. This process is made up of three temporal discrete subphases that are sequentially ordered as: “Goal Setting,” “Intention Formation,” and “Initiation of Intention Enactment.” Before proceeding, I would like to mention that the sequence of these three stages can be aborted or broken down at any time before reaching the motive to act.
4.6.1.1 Goal Setting

The Goal Setting process is initiated in a person’s imagination in the form of “hopes“, “wishes“, and “desires“ transformed into selected goals to be pursued. For instance, completing an assigned task is a selected goal to be pursued and therefore considered as the first concrete decision made by the person. However, the fact that the decision maker has a concrete goal does not necessarily initiate the impulse to act because the commitment to act does not exist yet (Dörnyei 2000).

4.6.1.2 Intention Formation

After finishing the process of deciding on a goal to be pursued in the goal setting stage, it is necessary to add some sense of “commitment” to the goal. Commitment to a goal is a crucial step to take in the motivational process, but not enough in itself to initiate an action towards achieving the goal. Commitment to a goal has to be transformed into concrete steps to be followed during the process of pursuing the goal itself. Therefore, adding an “action plan” is the final essential step to generate an “intention”. The action plan should contain the essential technical steps in order to achieve the adopted goal. In other words, in the Intention Formation stage, an individual needs to stop thinking of what they want to do and step forward to think about how they can achieve what they want. An action plan does not necessarily have to be written down or completed before launching the action as it is found to enable individuals to start enactment. Furthermore, the action plan can be either added to or finalised as the action moves toward completion, but there must be a chosen general planned action to follow before an individual initiates their first act (Dörnyei 2000).

An action plan should contain some concrete steps to be followed, such as technical details that can be applied during the process of pursuing the goal. To conclude, it is important to generate an action plan with concrete steps to help the achievement of the adopted goals. After generating the action plan, an individual needs to add some sense
of commitment to their goal in order to translate their intention into an action. Finally, I would like to make it clear that commitment is not just a highly responsible decision taken by a person, but also can be a result of a powerful and possibly urgent external need, for instance, an L2 learner’s need to pass their language test to meet the graduation requirements, or the need to pass a language test in order to improve their personal skills and meet the job requirements.

4.6.1.3 Initiation of Intention Enactment

The Initiation of intention enactment stage is where the Intention is transformed into action “I am doing it”, and an individual starts to apply their action plan to achieve a goal. In other words, it is “I am going to do this in order to achieve this”. It is important to realize that two conditions are required to be fulfilled for intention to be translated into action, 1- “the availability of the necessary means and resources”, 2- “the start condition.” (Dörnyei 2000, p 527). If either of the previous two essential conditions fails to materialize, or in other cases when some powerful distraction or obstacle is encountered during the process, the intended action might never be initiated; the intention might exist, but it will be unfulfilled.

4.6.2 Actional Stage

Unlike the Pre-Actional Stage, the emphasis during the Actional Stage shifts from “choice motivation” toward “executive motivation”. In other words, it is the stage within which a person translates their deliberation to act into the real implementation of the action, putting their intended plans into action. For instance, when a second language learner enrolls on a language course (Dörnyei, 2001). Furthermore, Dörnyei demonstrates the notion of the action-control system which is applied by learners during the learning process within 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” (2005, p. 81).

The action-control system that learners apply during their learning process enables them to sustain the potential difficulties or distraction that they may encounter until the action is completed. The Actional Stage consists of three basic steps, namely:

1- **Appraisal**: Appraisal refers to learners’ ongoing evaluation of the stimuli that is presented within the current learning environment. The students’ ongoing evaluation is accompanied with the level of progression made towards the potential outcome of an action completion. In their monitoring process, learners either compare their actual progression with the predicted one, or with a progression that would be offered by pursuing alternative action.

2- **Generation of Subtasks and Implementation**: During this process, learners are personally engaged in the implementation of learning-supportive subtasks specified by learners in their action plan. Learners’ subtasks are usually accompanied with their teacher’s task instructions to support their learning process. It should be realized that a learner continuously generates new sub-tasks and sets new sub-goals. (Dörnyei 2002, 2005).

3- **Action Control**: Action Control refers to various mechanisms applied by learners when they use different strategies to regulate their cognitive (academic) and non-cognitive (social) goals. Furthermore, learners apply the Action Control process to manage their efforts when they encounter obstacles and distractions. (Corno and Kanfer 1993).
4.6.3 Post-actional Stage

The final phase, the Post-actional Stage, starts once the intended goal has been achieved. Furthermore, it starts when the action towards achieving the goal itself has been completed regardless of attaining the goal or, in some cases, when the action is interrupted for a longer period, for instance when it is interrupted by holidays. Learners, in this phase, evaluate their action process in retrospect, after the outcome of their terminated action and therefore come up with possible conclusions and inferences to be used whenever they encounter either the same or similar actions in the future. During this phase, learners evaluate their initial expectations and the intended-plans-to-act which they generated in the first phase of this model, the Pre-actional stage, to pursue their goals. Learners evaluate how their plans were followed and then form causal attributions on the extent to which their intended goals were attained. This critical examining contemplation on the outcome of action develops learners’ level of experience. Furthermore, by reflecting on the outcome of their actions, learners elaborate on their internal standards in conjunction with enriching their repertoire of “action-specific strategies”. It also prepares learners in their encounters with similar and with the same actions in the future (Boekaerts 1988) (Dörnyei 2000).

Yet the Process-Oriented Model of L2 Motivation has been widely criticized because of its limitations. Dörnyei, the founder of this model, admits that his model has limitations (2005). The first limitation of this model is that it is hard to apply it in actual educational contexts since it is hard to determine the beginning and ending of an actional process. The second limitation is that students are usually engaged in more than one actional process. Furthermore, it is common for students to be engaged in various ongoing activities at the school, and at the same time, which will possibly interfere with the essential actional process.
The previous sections, 4.5 and 4.6 have been grouped as these sections addressed the same topic. These sections aimed to help understanding the biological and psychological process which L2 learner undertakes when making decisions related to learning their target language. In the previous paragraphs, I summarized the recent theories in L2 motivation research which aimed to understand L2 learners and their specific circumstances. This included Dörnyei’s suggestion to examine L2 motivation at three different levels (1994), namely: 1- language level, 2- learner level and 3- learning situation level. Thereafter, Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) Process-Oriented approach of L2 motivation was discussed in detail to understand the process by which the L2 learner makes their own decision of learning a specific language. These theories were discussed in order to understand the different types of motivation for learning a target language and the potential relationship between the L2 motivation and the language proficiency level.

4.7 Other Motivational Components (Attitudes and Language Learning)

Attitude is a word whose derivation consists of two parts. The first part is derived from the Latin terminology, *aptitude*, and the second part is derived from the Italian terminology, *atto* which stands for the verb “act” in English. Attitude is defined as a hypothetical construct that describes the directions of individuals’ behaviours and the extent to which they persist and preserve in their behaviour. More specifically, individuals’ attitude toward a specific object is demonstrated with regard to their enduring and stable dispositions. Since attitude represents people’s dispositions, it explains and predicts efficiently the consistent patterns in humans’ behaviour. For instance, knowing an English second language learner’s attitude towards English native speakers may indicate their behaviour (Baker, 1992). In other words, attitude is defined as an individual’s mental state toward a specific object based on previous experience and which influences a future behaviour toward the same and or a similar object.
Researchers defined attitudes depending on personal thoughts about and experience of an object. While Ajzan defines attitudes as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event” (1988, p 4), Gardner defines them as "the sumtotal of a man's instincts and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, fears, threats, and convictions about any specified topic" (1980, p 267). Many definitions were proposed by researchers to describe attitudes’ essence, Allport describes attitudes thus: “An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related” (1954, p 45). In addition, Gardner states that attitudes are components of motivation in language learning. According to Gardner, motivation “refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language” (1985, p 10).

Furthermore, a more comprehensive definition of the concept “attitudes” was proposed by Wenden, as he identifies three components that compose attitude, namely “cognition”, “effectiveness” and “readiness” (1991). According to Wenden, the three components combination shows the way in which attitude towards a specific object influences the patterns of behaviour towards it. The first component, “cognition” consists of one’s thoughts, ideas and beliefs about a target object. The second component, “the effectiveness” refers to one’s emotional state feeling towards an object, and the feelings may include “love”, “hate”, “like” or “dislike”. The final component, the readiness to act, refers to a person’s plan for action, behavioural intentions towards the object (Wenden, 1991). It should be noted that the both attitude components, cognition and effectiveness, do not necessarily harmonize. For example, an individual may show a favourable attitude to English language education but he is not necessarily supposed to have positive feelings about such education, secretly, he may have negative feelings.
Attitude as an L2 motivational component in educational research is identified as output and input. For instance, a positive attitude to English language learning might be a vital input which presumably results in a higher level in language achievement (Baker, 1992). Many surveys and studies are being conducted to investigate the importance of attitude’s role in the educational context, such as Gardner’s study, which investigated learners’ attitude towards English in Canada (1982).

In his Socio-Educational model, Gardner‘s concept of motivation is a blend of how L2 learners feel about the target language per se and the process of learning (Gardner 1982). Drawing from Gardner‘s model, the different motivational components such as attitudes are the main key elements in L2 learning. These motivational components, according to Gardner, are inseparable since they affect each other, in other words, The factors overlap to a large extent. However, the nature of the relationship between the L2 motivational components and the extent to which they affect the process of learning a target language is still a mysterious issue. Ellis states that “there is no general agreement about what precisely motivation and attitudes consists of, nor of the relationship between the two. This is entirely understandable given the abstractness of these concepts, but it makes it difficult to compare theoretical propositions“ (1985, p 117).

Lewis points out the important role played by attitude as one of the motivational components within the educational field “Any policy for language, especially in the system of education, has to take account of attitude of those likely to be affected. In the long run, no policy will succeed which does not do one of three things: conform to the expressed attitudes of those involved; persuade those who express negative attitude about the rightness of policy; or seek to remove the causes of disagreement. In any case knowledge about attitude is fundamental to the formulation of a policy as well to a success in its implementation.” (1981, p 262).
According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), two main kinds of attitude have been identified in the process of SLA: 1- Instrumental attitude is mainly related to the desire of achieving personal-profitable benefits such as the attempt to gain a better job in order to gain higher social-status recognition in community. In other words, what Gardner and Lambert claim is that the kind of attitude that L2 learners hold is related directly to the kind of motivation they have. For instance, if the L2 learner holds instrumental attitudes towards the target language, consequently they have extrinsic motivation to study the TL (Target Language). Unlike the instrumental attitudes, 2- Integrative attitudes, is considered the L2 learner’s desire to be integrated into the target language community (TLC). L2 learners who hold integrative attitudes admire the target language community and like its native speakers. Therefore, L2 learners with this kind of attitude are believed to have intrinsic motivation towards studying the TL. Building on what Gardner and Lambert claim above, it is important to point out that L2 learners’ attitudes as a motivational component and motivation itself towards learning an L2 are not necessarily harmonic. For instance, having extrinsic motivation towards learning a TL does not necessarily indicate that the L2 learner holds instrumental attitudes towards the TLC. In other words, L2 learner might have extrinsic motivation towards the TL and at the same time hold integrative or neutral attitudes toward the TL and TLC.

According to Gardner’s findings (1975), Canadian students of French showed a shift towards more positive attitudes toward the French language and the language community after spending more time studying the French language. In other words, students showed a shift towards more positive attitudes after spending more time experiencing the French language. A similar study conducted by Dörnyei (2006) in Hungary showed interesting results about attitude and the exact role played by it in L2 learning. According to Dörnyei, motivation itself and attitudes as a motivational component are enhanced by the experience gained through the L2 learning per se. Dörnyei claims that students who are involved in learning an L2 have more positive attitudes towards the target language and its community, and are more motivated to
learn it. In other words, Dörnyei’s findings suggest that students who were in touch with an L2 had more positive attitudes and were more motivated to learn it than those who never studied it.

Research conducted by Gardner and Smythe suggested that students’ positive attitudes become less positive over time (1975). Furthermore, a study conducted on South African students learning Hebraic by Kraemer and Zizenwine reached similar conclusions. According to Kraemer and Zizenwine, students’ attitudes towards the Hebraic language tended to be less positive after they finished a couple of grades learning it (1989). Similar results were also found by Donato, Antonek and Tucker in 1996. They stated that students’ attitudes towards learning Japanese dropped from highly positive in earlier grades to less positive after moving to higher grades. In contrast, according to Masgoret and Gardner’s study in 2003, there is no significant relationship between L2 learners’ age and their attitudes towards a target language, though the reasons beyond this decrease are yet unclear.

4.8 Motivational Components and Language Proficiency (Attitudes and Achievement Level)

To investigate the relationship between L2 learners’ attitudes as a motivational component and the achievement level, we need to ask a specific question that is “attitudes toward what or whom?” Therefore, in order to investigate the relationship between the achievement and learners’ attitudes in this research, two types of L2 learners’ attitudes were investigated: 1- Attitudes towards the TL (Target language) and 2-Attitudes towards the TLC (Target language community).

Dörnyei conducted a study in 1998 to investigate the various potential factors that affect L2 learners’ motivation to learn an L2. His research was conducted in Budapest,
involving 50 secondary Hungarian pupils in various schools. Furthermore, the research investigated the Hungarian learners’ L2 motivation towards learning English. According to Dörnyei, one of the most demotivating factors that decreases an L2 learner’s motivation is their attitudes towards the target language. Dörnyei claims that students’ negative attitudes towards the TL and the TLC negatively affects their achievement level. His research revealed that Hungarian students’ negative attitudes towards the TL and the TLC demotivated them in their language learning. Therefore, according to Dörnyei, attitudinal variables are fundamental components of L2 motivation, which in turn is fundamentally related to L2 learners’ proficiency level. L2 learners’ attitudes play a fundamental role in students’ behaviour and direct it: “It is attitudes that exert a directive influence on people’s behaviour since one’s attitude towards a target influences the overall pattern of the person’s responses to the target” (Dörnyei 1998, p 44). It should be noted that Dörnyei’s research findings in Hungary are very questionable and hard to apply to all L2 learners and contexts. Therefore I would like to point out that an L2 learner can have a neutral or even negative attitude towards the TL and the TLC and still be a motivated and successful learner. In other cases, an L2 learner can have a very positive attitude towards the TL and the TLC and still be unsuccessful in learning the language.

Many studies have been conducted to examine the effect of L2 learners’ attitudes on the proficiency level. Dörnyei (1998) conducted a study in which he compared the impact of potential negative factors on attitudes to Krashen’s affective filter theory (1982). Dörnyei found that “[i]f learners develop negative attitudes towards the L2 speakers, this undermines the social dimension of their L2 motivation complex” (1998, p 154). It must be noted that a second language learner can easily generalize his negative attitudes. Dörnyei points to the serious danger of generalizing negative attitudes: “Negative attitudes evoked by failure in doing a particular task can easily be generalised to the whole language course or to the whole of language learning (“I’m just not good at languages…”), and conversely, established attitudes about the whole school can profoundly affect one’s specific L2 learning disposition (“I dislike
everything that’s going on in this building”)” (1998, p 50). Nonetheless, this area of second language acquisition (Attitudes) requires further examination for a better understanding of how the L2 learning process may be obstructed.

Attitudes in L2 learning are explicitly influenced by various factors. For instance, studies conducted to investigate gender differences’ influence on L2 learners’ attitudes showed an explicit relationship between attitudes and gender (Gardner and Smythe, 1975). Furthermore, attitudes are not only affected by gender differences but also by geographical factors. For instance, Gagnon in 1974 found that Canadian students’ attitudes towards their L2 differ from one geographical area to another.

The previous sections, 4.7 and 4.8 summarized the recent theories in L2 motivation research about the potential role played by attitudes to the target language in determining the proficiency level. L2 learners’ attitudes towards the target language and its community is believed to play a fundamental role in students’ behaviour and direct it. Therefore attitudes are believed to exert a directive influence on learners’ behaviour since one’s attitude towards a target language and community influences the overall pattern of the responses to that language (Dörnyei 1998). The role of attitude as a significant motivational factor in L2 learning was discussed in this study in order to explore the potential relationship between the different L2 motivational factors and language proficiency level.
4.9 Summary

This chapter presents a review of the literature regarding L2 motivation in the context of learning a particular target language. The developmental stages of motivation research in learning a target language were characterized by Gardner’s concept of the different L2 motivation types. Gardner’s classic definition of integrative motivation was based on positive attitudes towards the target language, its speakers and the community. In line with this, it was thought that the L2 language learner’s positive attitude was a key factor to successfully learn the language. On the other hand, instrumental motivation was perceived as the practical reasons for learning the language, such as getting a job. These concepts introduced by Gardner were tended to be perceived as absolute dogma until L2 motivation research was replicated in contexts outside of Canada. Following this, L2 motivation research shifted focus onto the L2 learner, the learning situation and the classroom, with Dörnyei’s 1994 L2 Motivational Self System playing a pivotal role in this change.

The shift in L2 motivation research continued throughout the 1990s and 2000s, increasingly focusing on language learners and their specific circumstances. To date, Dörnyei and Otto’s 1998 Process-Oriented approach of L2 motivation is considered to be the only fully comprehensive and developed model of motivation, with subsequent elaborations of this model following in 2000 by Dörnyei. This chapter aimed to present the recent theories in L2 motivation for learning a target language. This background context aimed to understand the different types of motivation for learning a target language as well as the potential relationship between L2 motivation and language proficiency level.
Chapter 5: Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapters discussed the literature of Motivation and its potential influence during the different phases of learning a second language. Furthermore, the potential impact of L2 motivation on the L2 learners’ proficiency level was discussed in detail. This chapter aims to allow readers to evaluate both the appropriateness of the methods applied in this research and the validity and reliability of the obtained results. In order to achieve these aims, I started the Methodology Chapter by presenting the research questions addressed in this study. Thereafter, I discussed some key methodological considerations and issues regarding the research design of this study before presenting the research design itself. In the final phase, I presented the methods used, described the participants who took part in this study and the research sites. Further, I explained in detail the processes used to create the instruments which were specially designed to be applied in this research, and summarized the data collection procedures and stages. Finally, I outlined the approaches used to analyze the data obtained through the research and presented the findings.

5.2 Research Questions:

1- What are the factors that motivate L1 Arab learners of English at a UK university at the start of their university course to learn English as a second language? Is there any difference in Arab students’ motivation in learning English depending on their varied backgrounds?

2- How are these motivational factors related to the examination results?

3- Does the Arab students’ motivation change during their university course? And if there is any change, how does it influence students’ second language proficiency level.
5.3 Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods

In recent years and because of its initial influence, the Social Psychology approach has dominated L2 motivation research. The Social Psychology dominance is based on a concomitant emphasis on results which are replicable, reliable, and generalizable to different types of L2 learning groups. Therefore the quantitative research approach has been commonly used in L2 motivation research studies. Dörnyei defines the quantitative research approach and describes its importance in the psychological field in conjunction with L2 motivation: “The essential characteristic of quantitative research is that it 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… L2 motivation research has traditionally followed the principles of quantitative social psychology” (2001, p 192). In addition, Williams and Burden in their description of the psychometric approach (quantitative method) state: “A hypothesis is made that a particular characteristic (for instance, motivation) is likely to influence success in language learning… the results of the two measures are submitted to statistical analysis and statistically significant relationships are sought, conclusions are drawn about the contribution of the particular characteristics to learning a language.” (1997, p 89).

Researchers have traditionally applied quantitative methods to measure and understand L2 motivation and its potential contribution in learning a target language. Further, L2 researchers have traditionally favoured the quantitative method to understand L2 motivation, as it is a direct method which applies direct questions. These surveys, which are administered at a single point in time, involve self-report questionnaires with closed-ended items and have been widely used by researchers to investigate learners’ motivation.
Studies in L2 motivation aim at describing participants’ characteristics, opinions and motivation towards learning a target language. Therefore, the classical tool applied to achieve this aim is the use of a questionnaire as it applies direct questions. Thereafter, the data obtained from applying questionnaires are typically processed by means of descriptive statistical analyses to provide percentages and frequencies. Results represented by percentages and frequencies can be subsequently used for further analysis using inferential statistical procedures to explore the relationship between the assessed variables.

Questionnaires as a research method to collect data have both advantages and disadvantages. The main positive side of questionnaire is that the data obtained are considered as statistically replicable, reliable and therefore generalizable. Struman states that the main advantage of the quantitative method lies in the fact that “it gives us the opportunity to see how representative the written comments are and whether these comments are distributed randomly through the sample” (1996, p 350). Furthermore, a major attraction or advantage of questionnaires is their unprecedented efficiency in many aspects, such as research time, research effort and financial resources. Moreover, the process of data collection and analyzing the collected data is relatively inexpensive and economical in terms of labour. For instance, by administering a questionnaire to a group of people, an individual can collect a huge amount of information in a very short time compared to the personal investment of time required to interview the same number of participants. Therefore the survey method saves the researcher’s and participant’s time. Further, when the researcher needs to analyse the collected data, using a well-structured questionnaire can make the researcher’s work easier in regard to processing data, which can also be relatively straightforward and requires only a short amount of time.
In contrast, although the virtues of the quantitative method described in the above paragraphs might present it as the perfect available method, the quantitative method has some serious disadvantages. The quantitative method’s limitations have led researchers to argue that questionnaire data are not ultimately valid or reliable (Nakata 2006).

Questionnaires cannot yield data on the contextual variability of L2 learners’ motivational factors and on their temporal variability. Dörnyei highlights the downsides of using questionnaires only in an L2 motivation study: “They average out responses across the whole sample or subsample, and by working with concepts of averages it is impossible to do justice to the subjective variety of an individual life. Similar scores can result from quite different underlying motivational processes, and the quantitative methods are generally less sensitive to uncovering the motivational dynamics involved than qualitative techniques. There is no question that a deep interview with a language learner can provide far richer data than even the most detailed questionnaire” (2001, p 93). Spolsky, in his turn, questions the validity of using the quantitative method to investigate learners’ motivational factors: “To attempt to reduce their orientation, attitude, and motivation to a single scale is clearly a distortion… They [questionnaires] remain the bare skeleton, as unlikely to account for the complexity of language practices and ideology as a simple formula… Knowing that language is the kind of knowledge that Code characterized as contextualized, dynamic, and reciprocal, depending on the context in which it is learned” (2000, p 165).

Another drawback of the quantitative method in L2 motivation is the participants’ responses to questionnaires’ items. In other words, questionnaires which do not contain open items are constrained by the constructs which have been imposed by the researcher on the respondents. Questionnaires with closed-ended items only prevent the participants from expressing their own opinions when filling in questionnaires.
Furthermore, using closed-ended items only does not allow participants to depend on their own expressions of their understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Elliott and Bempechat, 2002).

In his turn, Skehan in 1989 claimed that quantitative methods as an analysis factor have certain limitations since “such scales are extremely fallible in what they measure and how they measure” (1989, p 10-11). In particular, it is very hard to investigate L2 learners’ minds to understand how they make their own sense of the L2 learning process. This is because there are no two learners with the same language learning experience, since each learner is different from any other in a unique way. Therefore this kind of approach does not necessarily assist researchers in fruitfully understanding L2 learners. Despite the limitations of the quantitative survey methods, they have provided significant advances in understanding motivation in L2 learning.

Qualitative or interpretive methods, on the other hand, have their strength in rich descriptive texts. Denizin and Lincoln define the qualitative method as “multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive and naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (1994, p 2). Qualitative methods are not yet commonly used in second language motivation research, although the value of employing these methods in the L2 motivation research field is being increasingly recognised (Dörnyei, 2001).

While quantitative methods certainly can shed the light on various aspects of L2 language learning – among which is L2 motivation – qualitative methods offer a different point of view, with a more contextualized and holistic view of the various factors which interact within the L2 learning process. Baker claims that using indirect approaches such as interviews to investigate learners’ attitudes towards a target
language guarantees a closer and valid look “[with] long interviews that give us an opportunity to explore in conversation and through stories and anecdotes the attitudes, identities, and ideologies of our subjects and to gather reports of language use in various domains and with various members of their social network. This approach guarantees the multi-methodological data, the triangulation as it were, that builds our confidence in the results.” (1992, p 162).

A main difference between qualitative and quantitative methods is that the qualitative method focuses on the participants’ rather than the researcher’s priorities and interpretations. Therefore interpretive methods can be more contextually sensitive and offer a more holistic view than quantitative methods. This is because researchers in qualitative methods do not set out to test preconceived hypotheses and perceptions; rather, they aim to define analytic categories only during the process of research per se. Used on its own or in a tandem with the quantitative method, the qualitative method can offer an advantageous lens to investigate in greater detail L2 learners’ views. Therefore it can yield a clearer understanding of the different factors in learning an L2 language.

In qualitative methods, numerical data collection is excluded in favour of collecting natural data in various forms of data elicitation employed by the researcher, for example notes taken by the researcher during a classroom observation and participants’ verbalizations of their own experiences about particular situations during interviews. In order to address the research questions and increase the credibility of the obtained results, the researcher has to consider what kind of data and how much data are needed when selecting among research methods (Dörnyei, 2001). Analysis in qualitative research consists of discovering meaningful themes and patterns.
5.4 Towards Combining Methods (Use of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods)

The debate about the most suitable method to employ has coincided with the rapid development of combined methods (Mixed Method). Mixed methods are a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in ways that enhance the positive attributes of each method and overcome their downsides. This to obtain the best possible research method. Combining the differences of the two methods together aims to ostensibly bridge the positives of each method in a way that addresses research questions efficiently. The mixed method is considered to be a relatively new method whose key methodological and philosophical foundations and practice standards have been developed continuously since the early 1990s. Campbell and Fiske are the founders of the mixed method, as the roots of this method can be traced back to their multi-method approach (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Multi-method approaches reject narrow analytical paradigms in regard to the possible disadvantages and limits of using one method only. Therefore employing more than one method is expected to provide a wider range of information and consequently enhances the credibility and validity of the results. More specifically, addressing the L2 motivation nature, Pintrich and Schunk, in 1996, pointed out that using a multi-method approach which depends on multiple forms of assessment enables the researcher to obtain richer data than by using a single form of measurement. In his turn, Dörnyei elucidates the significance of using combined methods in the L2 motivational factors’ studies “A combination of qualitative and quantitative designs might bring the best of both approaches while neutralising the shortcomings and biases inherent in each paradigm. Given that collaborative research is very widespread in the L2 field, such a combination is not at all inconceivable within research teams that contain both quantitative and qualitative experts” (2001, p 242).
The research design of mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) has been outlined by Dörnyei (2001) as:

- **Two-phase design:** In this phase, there are both quantitative and qualitative phases. The quantitative phase is first to be conducted involving a large sample of participants. This phase aims to identify certain learning groups that represent extreme or interesting cases for further study with regard to the aspects of what is being researched. Moving to the second phase, the selected subsample of extreme or interesting cases is further studied and investigated employing the qualitative method.

- **Dominant – less dominant design:** In this kind of research design, researchers depend mainly on one paradigm throughout their study and employ another paradigm from which to draw one small component to contribute to the study. For instance, information gathered in a large-scale, employing questionnaires with closed-ended questions to understand the nature of the studied topic, can be used to construct a qualitative study employing interviews and a smaller-scale survey.

- **Mixed-methodology design:** (Combined-method Research): In this research design, the two paradigms, qualitative and quantitative, are mixed for more beneficial results. The two paradigms are combined in one paradigm in order to increase the validity and credibility of the study.

Throughout my research, the mixed-methodology research-style was applied on account of the positive features this research design offers. The results obtained from the quantitative study, questionnaires with closed-ended questions, paved the way for me to investigate further using a qualitative study – interviews with open-ended questions. Employing this strategy in my research enabled me to obtain a holistic view regarding the investigated topic. Furthermore, it allowed me as a researcher to utilize
the data obtained from the first stage and proceed to the qualitative phase with a better knowledge of the participants’ motivational factors and their varied backgrounds. More specifically, applying the mixed method to this research helped in obtaining data which are as rich as possible. All students who participated in the first phase, the qualitative phase, were asked to attend the interview phase to avoid a generalization of the results depending on a modicum sample (See Chapter 6). By employing the mixed method to this research, it was convenient for me to generalize my findings as this method offered the opportunity of obtaining data which was as rich as possible. Consequently, it provided more accuracy of the results and therefore increased the validity and credibility of the research.

5.5 Neo-positivism

Neo-positivism is a research paradigm which asserts that sociology should be a science and its methods should follow those of the natural, physical sciences (Padmanabhan, N. and Gafoor, P.A. 2011). In this way, by following the mixed methods approach which involves the use of quantitative statistical methods to investigate an incorporeal human behaviour (motivation), it could be argued that this follows the neo-positivist movement. However, my investigation is not entirely empirical and therefore not completely neo-positivist, as my use of interview data is corrective to my attempt to quantify something (motivation) that cannot be entirely explained by statistics alone.

5.6 Rational for Employing Questionnaires and Interviews

5.6.1 Questionnaires

In this study both questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data. Questionnaires have become a staple method to collect data in L2 motivation research, being a favoured method to investigate L2 learners’ motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). They
were employed in this study due to their positive attributes as data collected in this way are considered to be statistically replicable, reliable and therefore generalizable (Struman, 1996). In addition, the unprecedented efficiency in research time, research effort and financial resources of employing questionnaires to collect data was taken into consideration.

5.6.2 Interviews
Interviews are widely used as a data collection approach in various fields, including L2 learning research, when compared with other instruments used to collect qualitative data, such as observation and document analysis (Richard, 2003, and Creswell, 2014). Unlike questionnaires, the responses collected by using interviews are qualitative in nature. Furthermore, interviews enable researchers to elicit their participants' opinions and subjective ideas through their own words, which provide richer and more in-depth data about the addressed topics (Dörnyei, 2007). Keeping this in mind, I employed interviews to collect data in this research. Conducting interviews provide participants with the opportunity to express their feelings about and their attitudes towards their L2 learning experience. In this research, I followed Campbell and Fiske’s mixed methods approach by combining questionnaires and interviews in my methodology (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The mixed methods approach provides the best of both worlds by combining the advantages of qualitative and quantitative paradigms whilst negating the disadvantages of each individual approach.

5.7 Selected Research Methods
In order to answer the research questions addressed above, the mixed method based on qualitative and quantitative approaches was used throughout the three sequential methodological phases that the collection data stage was built up on (See Figure 5.1). The methodological approaches were selected depending on the nature of the research questions.
The first phase consisted of a piloted exploratory structured questionnaire with 20 items followed by interviews. This was to examine learners’ motivational factors towards learning the English language. The first stage of the first phase, questionnaires with closed questions and a scale from 1 to 6, functioned as a tool to investigate Arab learners’ motivational factors towards the English language. This provided initial insights into participants’ thoughts and opinions about the addressed topics and established the basis to investigate further and employ another measurement method in this research, the qualitative method. The quantitative technique employed in this study was represented in a questionnaire that was translated into the Arabic language. Translating the questionnaires into the students’ mother tongue facilitated the process of self-expression and allowed participants to respond to the questions confidently and smoothly. The questionnaire was developed to investigate the participants’ considerations of learning the English language, why they are studying it, and why they think it is significant to study it, and whether they like the English language itself or not.

Depending on the statistical results obtained from the questionnaires, the interviews were structured for further investigation since these statistical results are the means to build on the interview questions. Therefore, interviews were conducted to formulate further detailed investigation and to pursue in depth the main themes related to this study. The semi-structured interviews based on the statistical results obtained in the first stage were conducted as a complementary step to the questionnaire. As mentioned above, all participants from the first stage were asked to attend the interview stage to investigate further their perceptions towards the target language (N=21). More specifically, the collected data obtained by applying the quantitative approach was analysed and used beneficially to manage the analyses of the large amount of qualitative data. As a researcher, my role throughout the interviews was minimally obtrusive in order to allow the participants to lead the conversation and express themselves as much as possible. I intervened only when it was needed to pursue in depth the themes I was investigating as a researcher. Moreover, as an interviewer, I allowed my interviewees to take the ideas as far as possible and expand
them, as long as the content was relevant – the aim of which was to provide richer data in this stage.

The first phase consisted of four sequential stages which were conducted at the beginning of the English course:

1- Teachers were asked to conduct an exam (an entrance exam) in order to determine students’ English proficiency level.

2- A questionnaire study was conducted in order to understand participants’ motivational factors and investigate their varied backgrounds. Thereafter, the questionnaire results were compared with exam results in order to understand the relationship between the motivational factors and the English proficiency level of the participants.

3- All participants were asked to attend the interview stage, which was a complementary stage to the questionnaire stage (N=21). Interview results were compared to the entrance exam results in order to understand the relationship between the motivational factors and the English proficiency level of the participants. This was to confirm the results obtained from the stage 1, questionnaire stage.

4- Questionnaire results were compared to the interview results in order to precisely identify participants’ motivational factors and the influence of these factors on their second language proficiency level. In addition, comparing questionnaire results with interview results and then linking the results of this comparison to the entry-exam results helped in revealing not only the link between students’ motivational factors and their exam results but the varied backgrounds they belong to and their exam results.
By the end of Phase One, the first two research questions (1 - What are the factors that motivate L1 Arabic learners of English at a UK university at the start of their university course to learn English as a second language? Is there any difference in Arab students’ motivation in learning English depending on their varied backgrounds? 2- How are these motivational factors related to the examination results?) were answered.

The second phase was conducted at the end of the English course and was a repetition of the stages from phase one with the same sequential order:

1- Teachers were asked to conduct an exam (a final exam) in order to determine students’ English proficiency level by the end of their English course.

2- A questionnaire study was conducted in order to understand participants’ motivational factors. Questionnaire results were compared to exam results at the end of the English course in order to understand the relationship between the motivational factors and the English proficiency level of the participants.

3- Interviews were conducted as a complementary stage to the questionnaire stage. Interviews’ results were compared to the final exam results in order to understand the relationship between the motivational factors and the English proficiency level of the participants. This was to confirm the results obtained from the stage 1, questionnaire stage.

4- Questionnaire results were compared with the interview results in order to precisely identify participants’ motivational factors and the influence of these motivational factors on their second language proficiency level.
By the end of Phase Two, the first two research questions (1 - What are the factors that motivate Arab students at a UK university at the start of their university course to learn English as a second language? Is there any difference in Arab students’ motivation in learning English depending on their varied backgrounds? 2- How are these motivational factors related to the examination results?) were answered again to confirm the results obtained from Phase One.

The data collected by applying the mixed method during the two phases were analysed. The quantitative data represented by questionnaires were analysed and tables supported by numbers were created in order to display the results statistically. Whereas in the qualitative approach represented by interviews, the content method was applied to analyze the obtained data using: 1. Transcription of the interviewees’ responses 2. Analyzing data in terms of its connection to the themes and topics addressed in this study.

The third phase was divided into two phases. The results obtained in phase one were compared with results obtained from phase two, which revealed any change in students’ motivation during their study in the UK. Any motivational change revealed was compared with the final exam results at the end of the English course to unveil its influence over the exam results. (The motivational change cannot be compared to the entrance exam results at the beginning of the course as the potential motivational change cannot occur at the beginning of the course, but might occur during the students’ study period in the UK).
Figure 5.1: Research Design and Process
5.8 Data Collection

5.8.1 Sample Population

As emphasized by Creswell (2003), it is important to select a suitable population for a research study, since the more relevant the population, the more reliable the data collected with regards to meeting the study’s aims and objectives. Since my primary objective was to investigate the factors that motivate L1 Arabic learners of English at a UK university, I found a population that conformed to these characteristics; that is, a group of L1 Arabic speakers who were receiving formal English language instruction at a UK university.

The rationale for selecting this study population was based on several reasons. Firstly, as noted by Lamb (2002), younger L2 learners may not yet conceptualise motivation for learning a target language and Dörnyei’s Ideal L2 self (2009) well, which would have made it difficult to investigate motivation. Adult learners are more mature in their views and their ability to conceptualise motivation compared with young school students. Furthermore, adult learners have had greater exposure and experience in learning English during school and college and therefore could perhaps reveal more interesting findings about L2 motivation.

Secondly, as mentioned in Chapter one, academic research focusing on Arab learners’ motivation to study English in higher education is rare, especially within the UK context. In an effort for greater diversity and representation within the academic literature and given my background as an independent English-learner from Syria, I was keen on shedding more light on understanding Arab learners, their motivations for English language learning and how this is associated with proficiency level. Finally on a personal level, I would be interested to see whether there were any similarities between my own motivational factors and views for learning English compared with
this group of Arab learners, and perhaps gain insights that could help me as a learner and also as a teacher.

I chose to conduct the study in University of Huddersfield, located in the North of England. The target participants were L1 Arabic learners of English who had access to native speakers within a native English-speaking community and therefore considered to be second language learners. Given these criteria, the Arab learners who were studying English in the International Study Centre at Huddersfield University on the ESUS Course (English Skills for University Study) were recruited for this study. Other ethnicities such as Chinese or Eastern European were excluded from the study, as they differed from the target demographic. Overall, a total of 42 participants were included in this study.

At the time of the empirical research, 42 students conformed to the relevant characteristics of interest (L1 Arabic speakers from Arabic majority countries). One other aspect of the students’ backgrounds was evident in the sample and considered relevant: some had been educated in public school systems and some in private schools. This provides the opportunity to explore any differences in motivation related to contrasting schooling systems, as discussed in Chapter one, the teaching pedagogies in public and private schools in Arab countries are being vastly different. This is also relevant on a personal level since I was educated in public schools in Syria throughout primary school to university. On an academic level, an investigation of the effect of this variable also allows a comparison with previous studies conducted by different L2 motivation researchers such as Dörnyei and Chan (2013).
5.8.2 Questionnaire

As defined by Brown in 2001, “Questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers” (2001, p 6). The first phase of the research methodology consists of a survey questionnaire owing to the benefits it provides. The rich data it offers in a relatively quick and cheap way makes it a convenient approach to be employed throughout the study. In addition, generalization of the findings obtained by a questionnaire conducted in an objective and standardised manner is reliable and credible, which enables the researcher to generalize their findings. The questionnaire survey method also provides convenience in the data analysis process and reduces researcher bias in presenting the results (Schaw, 2000). Nonetheless, the questionnaire survey approach does have drawbacks, which have been demonstrated in detail in the previous paragraphs and have been put under the microscope while selecting the study’s methodological approaches to be followed.

A self-administered questionnaire was used in this research as an exploratory phase. More precisely, according to Dörnyei, questionnaires provide three types of data about respondents taking part in the questionnaire: 1- Factual, 2- Behavioural and 3- Attitudinal (2010, p 5):

1- Factual questions are used in order to clarify who the respondents are by providing relevant information about their background. These kinds of questions are usually used to investigate the demographic characteristics of respondents, such as their name, gender, age, geographic location, marital status, their current occupation, and the level of education they have. Factual questions can be used to gather relevant information that can be useful in order to interpret the findings of the questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2003, p 8).
2- Behavioural questions are used to clarify what the respondents are doing in their current lives or have done in their past. In other words, Behavioural questions investigate respondents’ previous and current experiences. They investigate respondents’ actions, life styles and habits and might proceed to ask about their personal history (ibid, 2003, p 8).

3- Attitudinal questions, which are the most relevant questions in this research, are used to investigate what the respondents think about particular concepts and their own perspectives on particular themes. This broad category seeks to cover respondents’ attitude, beliefs, opinions, values and interest in specific concepts (Dörnyei, 2003, p 8).

The type of questionnaire that was employed in my research contains elements from all three-question types mentioned above (1- Factual, 2- Behavioural and 3- Attitudinal). Since one of the aims of this research was to find out what the participants think and what their motivational factors towards learning the English language were. Students were also asked to provide some background information and educational information. For example, students were asked to provide information about their names, how many languages they speak and whether they had a private education in their home country or not – all of which served to assist in evaluating the respondents’ personal differences and frame them in the holistic view of their educational level in order to understand the disparity of their English language level. The questionnaire consisted of 20 questions. The questionnaire was designed with regard to the themes and concepts discussed previously in the literature review part, which served to ensure that all questions asked in the questionnaire were explicitly relevant to the central research purpose.
The questionnaire constructed and used in this research was adapted from Gardner’s AMTB (Attitude and Motivation Test Battery) (1985) and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) with some deletion and addition in order to fit into the Arabic context and suit participants’ mentality. The current study investigated Arabic learners’ motivational factors in learning the English language. The study depended on the different elements of L2 motivation represented in the literature, among which were the motivational factors within the socio-psychological and learning dimensions. First, in the socio-psychological dimension, the questionnaire investigated the classical distinction made by Gardner between Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation in learning a target language with the assistance of AMTB. Since the AMTB does not cover in detail all the motivational components (Motivational Intensity, Interest in Foreign languages) such as the new concepts raised within the L2 learners’ psychological field that influence the process of L2 learning, for instance, Self-confidence, Ought-To L2 Self, Ideal L2 Self and Need for Achievement, some questions were adopted from Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2013) research study. In addition to the AMTB, Dörnyei’s model was adopted as it is a notable development and a great addition to the subject of L2 motivation within the psychological field since it covers all concepts addressed in this research, which in turn assisted in providing an integrated piece of research.

All the questionnaire’s items were constructed keeping in mind that the questions had to be compatible with the Arabic context as the target learners were from an Arabic background and were living and studying in the UK. The study was conducted in Huddersfield University where the target participants were L1 Arabic learners’ of English who had access to native speakers within a native English-speaking community and therefore were considered to be second language learners. Participants were studying English in the International Study Centre at Huddersfield University, on the ESUS Course, English Skills for University Study, and were approached through academic channels.
The ESUS Course was scheduled to start at the beginning of June 2016 and in order to follow the data collection schedule and design, I collected data at the beginning of the first week of the English course. Thereafter the interviews were conducted in the same week after completing the questionnaire stage. More specifically, with the assistance of my own supervisor and after submitting my Ethical Approval Form to start the process of data collection, I scheduled meetings with the head of the International Study Centre. After a couple of meetings with the head of the Centre and the class teachers in order to demonstrate the essence of my research and the aims I was seeking to achieve, I obtained approval to access the classes. I started the first data collection phase by handing over my questionnaires to the participants, L1 Arabic learners’ of English, in the presence of their own teachers after explaining to the students the aim of my study. A total number of 42 students took part in the data collection stage and filled in the questionnaires. Thereafter, students were asked to attend the interviews to discuss in further their views and opinions about the questionnaire contents. By collecting data using the questionnaires, which was followed by interviewing the participants who took part in the questionnaire stage, the first phase of data collection was completed at the beginning of the English course.

The questionnaire was designed in Arabic, and I made sure that the standard Arabic language was used to translate the questionnaire into the Arabic language, which made it more convenient for participants to comprehend and therefore answer the questions accordingly (simple language in a clear way). The format was convenient to follow and aimed to keep the participants’ attention to the end of the questionnaire and a clear explanation of the questionnaire aim and instructions was written at the beginning of the questionnaire. It also avoided the impressions or suggestion that responding to the questionnaire was some kind of test of their EL proficiency or attitudes which could lead them to give unreliable answers (Schuman and Presser, 1981).
Guided by Gardner’s AMTB (1985) and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013), I collected the following sixteen motivational scales that covered the most significant aspects in the recent L2 Motivation debates (Table 5.1). The questionnaire was designed according to the 6-point semantic differential, scale from 1 to 6 (agree and disagree) (Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum, 1957) on which participants were asked to indicate their opinions in section one and their motivation to learn the English language in section 2. In section 3, participants were asked to provide background information.

The first Section of the questionnaire consisted of 9 questions and investigated learners’ L2 motivational-self and attitudes towards learning their target language. The questionnaire aimed to understand participants’ L2 motivational-psychological structure, which in turn provided a close look at their opinions towards native speakers and the community they were living in. Respondents were asked to rate each of these 9 items, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree. Further, respondents were provided with a ready-made answered item as an explanation to follow.

The second section of the questionnaire – which consisted of 7 items, from 10 to 16 – investigated participants’ motivation to learn the English language. This section provided a clarification of participants’ choice to learn English and identified the goal they were pursuing. As in the first section, closed-ended items were mainly used and learners were asked to respond to items on a range from 1 to 6. It should be noted that the closed-ended items were used in this questionnaire because of the advantages they provide in the data analysis phase, such as their straightforward coding and tabulation (Dörnyei, 2003). In addition, the time allocated for participants to respond to the items addressed in the questionnaire was approximately 10 minutes with flexibility in time when it was needed. This time allocation to complete the questionnaire was decided after the pilot study.
Questions from 17 to 20 investigated participants’ backgrounds. By linking the results obtained from both questionnaire and interviews to the varied backgrounds of the participants, I was able to explain the differences in participants’ proficiency level.

Table 5.1
Student Motivational State Questionnaire (Phase 1-2)

Section 1

Self-confidence (1 Item)
1. If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master English.

Ought-To L2 Self (1 Item)
2. I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.

Ideal L2 Self (1 Item)
3. I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.

Interest in Foreign languages (1 Item)
4. I wish I could speak many foreign languages perfectly.

Cultural Interest (1 Item)
5. I like British films.

Interest in the English Language (1 Item)
6. I enjoy listening to English spoken language.

Attitudes toward Learning English (1 Item)
7. I really enjoy learning English.

Motivational Intensity (1 Item)
8. I keep up to date with English by working on it almost every day.
Attitudes toward the British (1 Item)

9. The British are kind and friendly.

Section 2

Integrative Orientation (1 Item)

10. Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life.

Instrumental Orientation (1 Item)

11. because I may need it later on for job/studies.

Knowledge Orientation (1 Item)

12. so that I can be a more knowledgeable person.

Travel Orientation (1 Item)

13. because I would like to spend some time abroad.

Friendship Orientation (1 Item)

14. because I would like to meet foreigners with whom I can speak English.

Sociocultural Orientation (1 Item)

15. because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and people and learn more about what is happening in the world.

Need for Achievement (1 Item)

16. I enjoy working hard.

Section 3

17. Underline which sex you are: (a) Male (b) Female
18. Where are you from?

19. How many foreign languages do you speak besides Arabic? Please name the languages you speak.

20. Where did you receive your school education? (a) Private school (b) Public school

5.8.3 Rating Scale

A rating scale is undoubtedly the most popular method in a research questionnaire and has been widely used in L2 motivation research (Dörnyei, 2010). In rating scales, the respondents are required to make an evaluative judgment depending on their own perceptions and experience of a specific concept under the microscope by marking one of a series of categories organized into a scale. Because of the advantageous sides of the Likert Scale, which are mentioned in more detail in the next paragraph, I used the Likert semantic differential and numeric rating type scale in my research (ibid, 2010).

5.8.4 Likert-type Scale

Likert scales are psychometric scales that are commonly used in studies that employ questionnaires to measure participants’ attitudes, opinions and beliefs. In the Likert scale, participants are asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with items addressed in the questionnaire on a symmetric agree-disagree scale for a series of statements, all of which are related to a particular target such as an individual person, a group of people or a concept by marking one of the responses ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’ (Dörnyei, 2003). The second phase starts after administering the scale as the participants’ responses are assigned a number by means of coding procedures for scoring purposes. To be more specific, participants’ responses to the statements addressed in the questionnaire are converted into numbers in order to allow the researcher to utilise the vast arsenal of statistical techniques available for numerical data. The coding procedure is clear by using the available
numerical variables such as test scores, for instance Likert scale is consisted of closed-ended questionnaire items. The process of coding is similarly straightforward and is done by assigning each response option to a consecutive number.

Despite the fact that the Likert scale is commonly used in questionnaire research, a few researchers have argued that the Likert scale is uni-dimensional as it gives a certain number of choices and the space between each choice cannot possibly be equidistant. Therefore researchers prefer to use an even number of response options separated by the neutral option, because of the possibility that some respondents might use the middle category as they might neither agree nor disagree with the statement, being neutral (Dörnyei, 2010). In this research, the neutral response option was avoided and the impetus behind discarding this option was my concern as a researcher that this option might be attractive to respondents who might not reveal their true feelings and therefore lead to conclusions which are vague. The Likert scale was used in my research in the following way: 1- strongly disagree, 2- moderately disagree, 3- slightly disagree, 4- slightly agree, 5- moderately agree and 6- strongly agree. This survey about the students’ motivational factors was conducted at the beginning of the English course, followed by semi-structured interviews. This phase of data collection was re-conducted at the end of the course, as explained in the previous paragraphs.

5.8.5 Reliability

As the questionnaire is a measuring tool that aims to understand participants’ thoughts and opinions on a target/concept, it must have substantial reliability that can be ensured by checking the internal consistency of the questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2003). Reliability in questionnaire-research study refers to the equivalence and stability of employed measures used in the study to investigate the same concept (Patrick and Erickson, 1993). Dörnyei states that “reliability indicates the extent to which our measurement instruments and procedures produce consistent results in a given population in different circumstances” (2007, p 50).
Although Romo (2010) states that there is no unanimous agreement among researchers and scholars on the lowest-accepted Cronbach Alpha values to confirm consistency of a questionnaire, Dörnyei (2003) indicates that in order to achieve well-developed attitude scales consisting of as few as 10 items, these values ought to reach 0.80. In addition, Dörnyei states that second language researchers usually aim to measure different aspects related to SLA, which requires quite intricate processes to achieve, in a single questionnaire. According to Dörnyei, the Cronbach Alpha should not be lower than 0.60 “somewhat lower Cronbach Alpha coefficients are to be expected, but even with short scales of 3–4 items, we should aim at reliability coefficients in excess of 0.70; if the Cronbach Alpha of a scale does not reach 0.60, this should be warning bells” (2010; 95).

5.8.6 Interviews

After the students completed the questionnaires, qualitative interviews were conducted in order to follow up on the information obtained in the questionnaire phase and clear up any ambiguous results. Interviews were conducted to follow up in depth and to investigate in greater detail the participants’ thoughts and opinions on the addressed items in the questionnaire. Interviews are a process of interaction or communication in which the participants or interviewees provide the needed information orally in a face-to-face or one-to-one situation. According to Dörnyei, “Interview is in a sense an oral questionnaire. Instead of writing the response, the interviewee gives the needed information orally and face-to-face or one to one” (2007, p 134). It should be noted that, as a data collection approach, the interview is often superior to other approaches such as questionnaires since people are usually more willing to communicate verbally and provide oral information than to write (Best, 1986). As demonstrated in Figure 5.1, the interview and questionnaire results were compared directly with the entry-exam results. This methodological approach was re-conducted at the end of the English course.
There are different types of interview, such as unstructured, structured and semi-structured. In my study, the semi-structured interview instrument was used because of the advantages it provides (Dörnyei, 2013).

5.8.6.1 Semi-structured Interviews

The semi-structured interviews research method has been widely used in applied linguistics research. Dörnyei describes semi-structured interviews as “a compromise between two extremes: Although there is a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is open-ended – the interviewer provides guidance and direction, but he or she is also keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate in certain issues in an exploratory manner” (2013, p 236). The semi-structured interview can be appropriately used when the researcher has a deep understanding of the domain or phenomenon under study and is able to prepare and develop wide questions about the topic under investigation prior to the conducting of the interview. Those questions prepared by the researcher are meant to allow them to follow in depth and investigate the domain in question (Dörnyei, 2007). The areas which I aimed to cover by employing the semi-structured interviews in this study were: 1- What are the factors that motivate L1 Arabic learners of English at a UK university at the start of their university course to learn English as a Second Language? Is there any difference in Arab students’ motivation in learning English depending on their varied backgrounds? 2- Does the Arab students’ motivation change during their university course?
5.9 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the rationale behind the methodology employed to answer the questions addressed in this research study. The chapter begins by presenting the main research questions, aims and objectives: 1 – What are the factors that motivate L1 Arab learners of English at a UK university at the start of their university course to learn English as a second language? Is there any difference in Arab students’ motivation in learning English depending on their backgrounds? 2 – How are different motivational factors related to students’ examination performance? 3 – Does the Arab students’ motivation change during their university course? If there is any change, how does it relate to students’ second language proficiency level? The research questions aimed to address gaps in the literature about the relationship between L2 motivation and proficiency level as well as possible differences in L2 motivation depending on the students’ backgrounds. In addition, the research questions addressed the recent questions raised in the literature about the dynamic nature of L2 motivation during the process of learning a target language and its influence on the rate of improvement.

In order to answer the questions addressed, I combined both Dörnyei’s ‘incentive values’ (1994) and Gardner’s ‘pragmatic reasons’ (1982) for learning English. In addition, elements from AMTB (Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery) (1985) and Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2013) research study were adopted to cover the most important themes in the literature about the role of L2 motivation in learning a target language. Data were collected at two different stages, at the beginning and at the end of the English course for comparison. This helped in understanding the relationship between L2 motivation and proficiency level and in unveiling any change in students’ motivation and its influence on their rate of improving. Previous research studies have focused on investigating the more immediate dynamic nature of motivation, such as Gardner’s study monitoring motivation levels in the classroom several times a lesson (1985). To the best of my knowledge, no study has yet compared motivation and exam results at two different stages spanning several months, which is unique to my study.
L2 motivation research studies such as Gardner (1982; 1985), Dörnyei (1994), and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) measured the influence of motivation on the proficiency level either by collecting data at end of the English course or at the beginning of it and compared them to the final exam results. This led to the common belief in the literature that the role of L2 motivation was the ultimate key factor in determining students’ proficiency level.

This was followed by presenting the rationale for employing the mixed method in this research study. Two research paradigms, qualitative research represented by the interviews and quantitative research represented by the questionnaires, were mixed to reflect the complex nature of L2 motivation as a research topic. This method allowed me as a researcher to utilize the data obtained from the first phase (questionnaire) and proceed to the qualitative phase (interviews) with a better knowledge of the participants’ motivational factors and their varied backgrounds. More specifically, applying the mixed method to this research helped in obtaining data which are as rich as possible (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, cited in Ivankova et al, 2006). The recent focus of L2 motivation research has been for results to be replicable, reliable and generalizable. The mixed method research approach has been deemed appropriate to meet such criteria and as such has been commonly used in L2 motivation research studies (Williams and Burden, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001).

After developing research aims and design, the research questions were developed. This was followed by developing the research setting, informants and instrumentation which led to ethical considerations followed by a pilot study. The pilot study allowed me as researcher to improve my data collection tools. The findings of the pilot study suggested some of the necessary and timely changes in the layout, wording, clarity, appearance and instructions of the questionnaire. After collecting the main data, Mean, percentages and frequency of the items were used to conduct both descriptive
and inferential analysis of the questionnaire. On the other hand, data collected using interviews were analyzed using the content method.
Chapter 6: Data Analysis (Findings: Data Presentation and Analysis)

Part 1

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I report my findings based on the questionnaires and interviews’ data. Data were collected twice during this research, employing questionnaires and interviews at the beginning and at the end of the English course. Participants’ background information obtained by employing the questionnaire was presented during the first section of this chapter. After the presentation of the participants’ background data, the L2 motivational items represented in the questionnaires were measured employing the Mean, percentages and frequency of the items. Both methodological tools employed in this research, quantitative and qualitative, aimed to measure students’ responses on 16 motivational factors: (1) Self-confidence (2) Ought-To L2 Self (3) Ideal L2 Self (4) Interest in Foreign Languages (5) Cultural Interest (6) Interest in the English Language (7) Attitudes toward Learning English (8) Attitudes toward the British (9) Motivational Intensity (10) Integrative Orientation (11) Instrumental Orientation (12) Knowledge Orientation (13) Travel Orientation (14) Friendship Orientation (15) Sociocultural Orientation (16) Need for Achievement (see Table 5.1). The themes addressed in this research were categorised as motivating and non-motivating factors, depending on the Mean score achieved. The interview and questionnaire data were linked together in order to have further illustrative insights into the students’ responses.

6.2 Research Setting

The immediate background for the participants in this study was the University of Huddersfield, in the town of Huddersfield which is located in the north of England, in the county of Yorkshire. Huddersfield lies midway between the two cities of Leeds
and Manchester. Huddersfield and its surroundings have a high degree of ethnic diversity. As well as a traditional white British population, many other cultures from around the world are represented, most notably from Ireland, Pakistan and the Caribbean. This diversity together with a large student population (more than 10% of the total) creates a vibrant atmosphere which perhaps makes it an attractive destination for international students to live in. The university itself first started as an institution in the 19th century and achieved university status in 1992. Since then, it has achieved an impressive array of awards for teaching and research.

6.3 Background Information

Information about the participants’ backgrounds was collected from the last section of the questionnaire. Table 6.1 shows demographic and educational information about the participants (gender, country of origin, schooling sector and the number of languages spoken). All 43 Arab students enrolled on the ESUS Course, English Skills for University Study, at the International Study Centre at Huddersfield University were invited to take part in this research, but only 42 students participated in it.

The course on which the students were enrolled was entitled ESUS (English Skills for University Study). It aimed to improve their language abilities and increase their academic skills as well as their confidence communicating in English. In addition, the course was designed to help students boost their in-class participation and to help them settle in to their new surroundings before starting their undergraduate study.
Table 6.1: Participants’ Background Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Percentages %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country of Origin</strong></td>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>45.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>19.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>33.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>66.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of Languages</strong></td>
<td>One Language</td>
<td>52.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than one Language</td>
<td>47.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1 shows that the percentage of female students in the in the ESUS Course was much lower than the male students. The feminine presence in my research was represented by one female only, who was the only female in the English Course. This very small proportion of female students can be explained by the nature of Arab society where women, especially in the Gulf countries, are still subject to restrictions of their freedom and rights. In addition, the very high proportion of Gulf students (90.48% of the students from Gulf countries) reflects the financial superiority of the Gulf peoples compared to the rest of the Arab peoples. The most surprising data was the incredibly low proportion of female Arab students, who represented 2.38% of the total number of participants, and the low proportion of students from the Levant and North Africa in comparison to the students from Gulf countries. This low proportion represents the financial and cultural differences between Gulf countries and the rest of the Arabic world, as the only female student was from North Africa despite the very
low proportion of North Africa and Levant countries compared to the total number of participants.

The interview data about the students’ beliefs and opinions about the themes corroborated the questionnaire data. The interview phase allowed the students to freely express their opinions using their mother tongue, the Arabic language. All interviews were recorded and transcribed into Arabic with subsequent translation into English by the researcher (A.O.). Each participant was assigned a unique ID ranging from 1 to 42. A random number generator was used to select a subset of participants’ interviews for extracts to include in the thesis. The random nature of this selection ensured that extracts were not biased towards a certain viewpoint, but would be representative of the overall participants’ views.

6.4 Integrative Motivation

The questionnaire statement number 16 is an item that was constructed to investigate participants’ integrative motivation towards studying English as a second language (Appendix 1). According to the traditional concept of integrative motivation in L2 learning, L2 learners are motivated to learn a second language because of their intrinsic interest in both native speakers and the community of that language. By learning a target language, learners attempt to integrate into the society of that language and to be more like its native speakers (Dörnyei, 2005). It should be noted that what Dörnyei claims about the L2 learners’ integration with the native speakers and society does not necessarily apply to all intrinsically motivated L2 learners. This is because many L2 learners who are intrinsically motivated towards a target language do not necessarily aim to integrate with its native speakers or society, but rather hold positive attitudes and interest in them.
Table 6.2 Mean on Integrative Motivation Item (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score (1 -6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data gathered in the first phase of this research showed that participants had integrative motives for learning English. The positive replies to item number 15 in the questionnaire “Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life” show an acceptable score for integrative motivation in comparison to the instrumental motivation as the overall Mean score for item number 15 is 4.2 out of 6. As the items addressed in the questionnaires were measured on a scale from 1 to 6 (1- Strongly disagree, 2- Moderately disagree, 3 Slightly disagree, 4 Slightly agree, 5 Moderately agree and 6- Strongly agree), the items with a Mean score lying between 1 to 3 were considered as non-motivational factors (Mean ≤ 3) as they do not contribute to the second language learning process. In addition, whilst the items with a Mean score lying between 3 to 4 were considered as neutral motivational factors since they did not have a substantial influence over the participants’ second language learning process (3< Mean <4), the items with a Mean score lying between 4 to 6 were considered as motivational factors since they contributed positively to the language learning process (Mean≥ 4). Item number 15 in the questionnaire showed a positive score of 4.2 as 21.4 percent of the students who took part in this research strongly agreed and 45.2 percent agreed with the statement. Only 7.1 percent of the students strongly disagreed with the statement (see Figure 6.1).

The data collected from this item of the questionnaire led me as a researcher to partially agree that students were interested in knowing more about English speakers and English society. This matches with Integrative motivation theories mentioned in chapter 4. However, the students were not necessarily interested in being identified
with English society or English language speakers, as the Mean score for this item is not very high, (M=4.2).

Figure 6.1 Integrative Motivation

Moving on to the data collected by interviews, the participants’ responses during the interviews regarding the integrative motivation to learn English corroborated the questionnaire data. Nonetheless the interview data showed some interesting points the participants brought up during the one-to-one interviews. As the questionnaire data revealed, students had integrative purposes in learning English, yet some students had instrumental purposes in learning English along with their integrative purposes, as the quotations from one of the interviews below show:

S1 “Without English, I cannot communicate with people from different places. I am learning English because I want to communicate with people from other cultures. It is also important to speak English to be able to have a good job.”
S12 “I have to learn English as I want to continue my studies. Without English, I will not be able to have good grades or have a good job. Learning English helps me to understand other people and communicate with them, even though they are from different countries. It is amazing how English enables you to speak to people from all over the world.”

6.5 Instrumental Motivation

The questionnaire statement number 10 “because I may need it later on for job/studies” was an item in the questionnaire to reveal participants’ instrumental motivation (Appendix-1). Both integrative and instrumental motivational factors have been widely researched in the SLA field in order to understand the exact role played by these two factors in language learners’ proficiency level. The increased need to understand the exact nature of the various motivational factors that contribute to the L2 learning process has resulted from the rapidly increasing number of non-native speakers of English. Recent estimates suggest that approximately 1.5 billion people speak the English language (Crystal, 2000). This very significant number of non-native English speakers demands an explicit explanation of how motivational factors contribute to the second language learning process. In their research conducted in Canada, Gardner and Lambert did not focus on instrumental motivation much as a fundamental factor in L2 learning because of its socio-linguistic condition where integrative motivation was relevant. Instrumentality applies when the English language is learnt as a second or a foreign language. Additionally, the old views about instrumental motivation focused on having good job prospects, which of course does not apply in the case of children learning English (Dörnyei, 1994). Therefore, in my research, I focused on the Instrumentality in wider aspects in a specific context: “instrumentality concerned the pragmatic incentives that are usually associated with the concept, as well as importance of the particular L2 in the world and the contribution its proficiency makes to becoming an educated person” (Csizer and Dörnyei 2005, p 21).
Since my research focused on L1 Arabic speakers of English, it was essential to investigate students’ instrumental motivation for travelling to the UK to learn English. English in the Arabic world is considered as a language which can elevate its speakers’ status in the society. It is also a mandatory subject in schools, so students learn it for short term goals such as passing the exams, and without having at least a little knowledge of English students cannot have a degree.

**Table 6.3 Mean of Instrumental Motivation Item (N=42)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score (1-6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>because I may need it later on for job/studies.</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data gathered from item number 10 “*because I may need it later on for job/studies*” in the questionnaire showed that students had a very high level of instrumental motivation for learning English. The responses of the participants represented in Table 6.3 were aligned to Dörnyei’s definition of the instrumental motivation in L2 “practical incentives”. The overall score for the instrumental motivation item shows a Mean score of 5.2, which is a very high score compared to the integrative motivation score (see Table 6.2). In response to the statement 10 in the questionnaire, 52.3 percent of students strongly agreed and 45.2 percent of them agreed with the statement. In total, 98 percent of the students agreed with item 10 of instrumental motivation, which points out the significant role of instrumental motivation in their L2 learning process. Only 2 percent of the student slightly disagreed with the statement, while none of the students strongly or moderately disagreed.
Figure 6.2 Instrumental Motivation

The data gathered by interviews greatly supported the questionnaire data in regard to instrumental motivation. Further insights were given by the students into the utilitarian reasons for learning English during the interviews. As shown by the questionnaire data, the high majority of the students learn English for instrumental purposes.

The students’ responses in regard to instrumental motivation during the interviews have been grouped into sub-categories as follows:

1- Job/studies:

S1 “I am learning English to have a good job back in my country. All good companies nowadays require you to have a very good level in English in order to employ you; otherwise you cannot have a good job in a good company.”
S5 “*Speaking English is very important for my future career. It will help me to have a better position and have a promotion in my job.*”

S6 “*Having a very good level in English will help me to have an academic degree which will in turn help me to have a good job. My main goal in learning English is to have a job when I go back to my country.*”

2- **Social Status in the Arabic Society:**

The following comments by the students during their interviews support the views about English in the Arab world, that speaking English is a sign of high social status. The English language speakers are thought to be educated people and respected by their society members. This is because English is spoken by highly educated people who enjoy a high social status in Arab society such as doctors, judges, engineers and politicians.

S14 “*Speaking English is very important as without being able to speak English properly you cannot have a high position in society. Therefore you cannot be an important member in your family or community.*”

The importance of learning English from the students’ perspectives was centered around having a good job or having an academic degree. In addition, there were other pragmatic reasons for learning English according to the participants, such as having a good social status and being regarded as highly educated members in their social communities. The collected data from this item confirmed the instrumental motivation theories mentioned in chapter 4 about the importance of practical reasons for L2 learners.
6.6 Knowledge Motivation

The statement number 13, "so that I can be a more knowledgeable person", was an item in the questionnaire addressed to reveal the level of the knowledge motivational factor the students might have had for learning English. As the data gathered from both the questionnaire item number 10 and the interviews, students held a strong believe that learning English will represent them as educated people in their society, which in turn will guarantee them the respect of their society members. In my research I added the knowledge motivation item to my questionnaire in order to investigate further whether the students believe that learning English will help them to be more knowledgeable people or it is an attempt to gain a better place in their social communities.

Table 6.4 Mean of Knowledge Motivation Item (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score (1-6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>so that I can be a more knowledgeable person</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As expected, the data in Table 6.4 show that students had a high level of knowledge motivation for learning English. The overall score for the knowledge motivation item shows a Mean score of 4.4. In response to the item 13, 16.6 percent of students strongly agreed and 57 percent of them agreed with the statement. In total, 73.6 percent of the students agreed with item 13 (Knowledge Motivation) which makes seeking knowledge one of the main motivational factors which led the students to learn English. Only 26.1 percent of the students slightly disagreed with the statement, while none of them strongly disagreed.
Students’ responses during the interviews supported the questionnaire data. The responses reflected students’ realization of the important role played by English as a global language in the new world (Elyas, 2008). In addition, students’ responses during interviews reflected their understanding of the potential role of learning English in seeking knowledge. Dörnyei defined Knowledge Motivation as “the importance of the particular L2… and the contribution its proficiency makes to becoming an educated person” (Csizer and Dörnyei 2005, p 21).

S13 “I want to study abroad and educate myself better. **Without learning English professionally, I will not be able to continue my education in a good university where I can learn more about my field.**”

S15 “**English is the global language as well as the internet and the computer language. Most of the important books you need are written in English.**”
Students realized that since the local language does not provide rich literature in scientific fields, it was significant for them to learn English to achieve scientific knowledge “80-85% of all the scientific and technical information available in the world today is either written in or abstracted in English.” (Kaplan 1987, p 139).

6.7 Travel, Friendship and Sociocultural Motivation

Statement number 11 in the questionnaire, “because I would like to spend some time abroad” was an item addressed to reveal the travel motivation which students’ might have had at the beginning of their English course. Statement number 12, “because I would like to meet foreigners with whom I can speak English” was an item addressed to reveal friendship motivation and statement number 14 “because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and peoples and learn more about what is happening in the world” was an item addressed to reveal sociocultural motivation which the students might have had. The overall score for the travel motivation item shows a Mean score of 4.3, a Mean Score of 4.5 for friendship motivation and the overall score for sociocultural motivation shows a Mean score of 4.5. These positive Mean scores reflect students’ understanding of the significant role of English in traveling and making international friends in the globalization era which students stressed on during their interviews (see Table 6.5).

Table 6.5 Mean of Travel, Friendship and Sociocultural Motivation Items (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score (1-6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>because without English I won’t be able to travel a lot</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>because I would like to meet foreigners with whom I can speak English</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and peoples and learn more about what is happening in the world</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data in Table 6.5, in response to item number 11 in the questionnaire, show that students had a high level of travel motivation for learning English. In response to item 11, 42.8 percent of the participants agreed and 23.8 percent of them slightly agreed with the statement. In total, 66.7 percent of the students agreed with item 11 which makes travel motivation one of the main reasons why students are learning English. Only 33.3 percent of the students disagreed with the statement, while none of the students strongly disagreed. The responses to item 12 and 14 showed a high level of friendship and sociocultural motivation for learning English, which was compatible with their high level of travel motivation. In their responses to item 12, 35.7 percent of the participants strongly agreed and 33.3 percent agreed with the statement. In total, 69 of the participants agreed with the statement while 31 percent disagreed and none strongly disagreed. Item 14 showed that 21.4 of the participants strongly agreed and 52.3 percent agreed with the statement. 73.8 percent of the students in total agreed with item 14 while 23.8 percent disagreed and only 2.4 percent strongly disagreed.

Figure 6.4 Travel Motivation
Figure 6.5 Friendship Motivation

because I would like to meet foreigners with whom I can speak English

Figure 6.6 Sociocultural Motivation

because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and peoples and learn more about what is happening in the world
Students’ responses during the interviews to items 11, 12 and 14 in the questionnaire showed a deep understanding of the role played by English as a global language. Students were aware of the importance of speaking English in order to facilitate traveling and communication with people around the world. In addition to the significance of learning English in having a good job, a good life and communicating with English people, the students were also learning English for travel, friendship and sociocultural reasons:

*S17 “learning English is very important for me as I love to travel and without being able to speak English properly, it will be hard for me to travel to the places I like. I need to study English and speak it because it helps me when I travel.”*

Most of the students during the one-to-one interviews showed a very high interest in learning English for various reasons and most of them were instrumentally and integratively motivated towards learning it. The consistency that the data revealed between the concept of integrative motivation and English as a global language is currently being researched from new perspectives. According to the new concept of integrative motivation, English language learners aim by learning English to be a part of the international community rather than to be a part of the English community (Dörnyei, 2006).

*S7 “Learning English is helping me to understand other people and communicate with them even if they are from different countries.”*

*S14 “I am learning the English language because it is the global language. I want to learn English and be able to communicate with people from all over the world as well as to have a good job.”*
S15 “Nowadays you need English wherever you travel. Every place you travel to you find people who can speak English. I need English not just for my study and work, but also for when I travel.”

Students’ responses reflected the significance of the English language in the new world. Globalization and the spread of the English have made it an urgent need to learn it in order to facilitate travel, communicate with foreigners and seeking knowledge (Crystal, 2003). This fits with the Globalization theory discussed in chapter 2 about the importance of English in the era of globalization.

6.8 Interest in Foreign Languages, English language and Culture

Statement number 1 in the questionnaire “I wish I could speak many foreign languages perfectly” was addressed to reveal the interest in foreign languages which the students might have had at the beginning of their English course (Appendix 1). While statement number 4 “I like British Films” aimed to investigate students’ was addressed to reveal students’ interest in English culture, statement number 6 “I enjoy listening English spoken language” was addressed to investigate their interest in English language. While the overall score for the Interest in Foreign Languages item showed a Mean score of 5.5, the highest Mean score of all questionnaire items, Cultural Interest item showed a Mean score of 5.1. In addition, the Interest in English Language item showed a Mean score of 4 (see Table 6.6). Students showed a high interest in learning English and foreign languages, which stemmed from their understanding of the importance of speaking multiple languages for various reasons such as travelling and working as explained by the students during the interview stage.
Table 6.6 Mean of Interest in Foreign Languages, English Language and Culture Items (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score (1-6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I wish I could speak many foreign languages perfectly</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I like British films</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I enjoy listening to English spoken language</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in Table 6.6 in response to the first statement in the questionnaire show that students had a high interest in learning foreign languages. In response to the item number 1, 59.5 percent of students strongly agreed and 40.5 percent of them agreed with the statement (see Figure 6.7). In total, 100 percent of the students agreed with item 1, which indicates that students had very positive attitudes towards learning new languages. In response to item number 4, interest in English culture, 31 percent of the students strongly agreed and 64.3 percent agreed with the statement, which points out the positive attitudes that students held towards the English culture. Only 4.7 percent of the students disagreed with the statement while no one strongly disagreed. In addition, students’ responses to the questionnaire statement number 6, Interest in English Language, shows that 16.7 percent of the students strongly agreed and 45.2 percent agreed with the statement while 33.3 percent of them slightly and moderately disagreed, and only 4.8 percent of the students strongly disagreed.
Figure 6.7 Interest in Foreign Languages

Figure 6.8 Interest in English Culture
Looking at these findings in more detail, it can be seen that the participants’ responses during the interviews regarding their opinions about the English language and learning foreign languages corroborated the questionnaire data. Nonetheless the interview data allowed me to investigate further the participants’ perspectives on the themes addressed in this research. The interview data showed some interesting points participants took up during the one-to-one interviews. The questionnaire data revealed that students had very positive attitudes towards and interest in learning foreign languages, including English. As expected, students showed a very high sense of realization of the significant role played by the English language in the globalization of technology, education, economy and trade:

(1) Interest in the English Language

*S13 “I like to speak English, especially at my work. I work in an international company and I use English daily. At work it is a big advantage to speak more than one language, therefore I am currently learning English and will try to learn other languages, because I like learning and speaking more than one language and it is good for my job.”*
Consistent with students’ interest in the English language, students during the interviews expressed their interest in English culture and learning other foreign languages beside English for various reasons:

(2) Interest in Foreign Languages

S14 “I really wish I could speak several languages and not just English. The more languages you speak, the more educated you are. It is much easier to travel and have a good job when you speak several languages such as English, French and Spanish.”

S7 “Learning new languages is something I like. It helps you to communicate with people from other cultures and allows you to read about their history and understand their lifestyle.”

(3) Interest in English Culture

S15 “It is important to learn English as it helps me to know more about the English culture.”

S20 “Yes, of course I like English movies and culture. I actually liked the English language first from watching TV and English movies when I was a teenager. I like English movies and TV programmes, there are a lot of good English movies and brilliant movie stars.”
6.9 Attitudes towards Learning English and Native Speakers

The questionnaire statement number 8 “I really enjoy learning English” was an item that was constructed to investigate students’ attitude towards learning English, and statement number 9 “The British are kind and friendly” was an item which aimed to reveal their attitude towards British people. The above questionnaire items have been constructed to measure the intrinsic interest in and attitudes towards native speakers and learning English. Gardner claims that by learning a target language, learners attempt to integrate into the society of that language and its native speakers (1985). However, it should be noted that what Gardner claimed about L2 learners attempting to integrate into the L2 society cannot apply on all L2 students. Every L2 student is a unique case and has their own goal for learning an L2 and do not necessarily aim to integrate into the L2 society or even hold a positive attitude towards its native speakers.

The attitudes towards English learning questionnaire item showed a Mean Score of 4.6 which shows that students had positive attitude towards learning. On the other hand, the Attitude towards Native Speakers item showed a Mean score of 3.3, the lowest Mean score of all questionnaire items.

Table 6.7 Attitude towards English Learning and Native Speakers Items (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score (/6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I really enjoy learning English</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The British are kind and friendly</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data obtained from item number 8 revealed that 26.2 percent of the students’ strongly agreed and 57.1 percent of them agreed with the statement. In total, 83.3 percent of the students agreed with item 8 whilst 16.7 of them disagreed with the statement.

Data gathered from the attitude towards the English (Native Speakers) item revealed that students did not hold positive attitudes towards English native speakers. In response to statement number 9 in the questionnaire, 9.5 percent of the students strongly agreed and 28.6 percent of them agreed with the statement. In total, only 38.1 percent of the students agreed with the statement whilst 54.7 percent disagreed and 7.2 percent of them strongly disagreed with the statement.

Figure 6.10 Attitudes towards Learning English
Looking at these findings in more detail, it can be seen that the participants’ responses during the interviews regarding their opinions about learning English and native speakers corroborated the questionnaire data. Nonetheless, the interview data allowed me to investigate further the participants’ perspectives on the themes addressed in this research. The interview data showed some interesting points participants took up during the one-to-one interviews. The questionnaire data revealed that students had positive attitudes towards learning English, yet revealed some unexpected attitudes as the majority of the students did not hold positive attitudes towards native speakers. Clarifying this, they cited various reasons, such as the difference between the Arabic and English cultures, lifestyle and habits:

(1) **Attitudes towards Native Speakers**

*S5 “I do not really have any native speaker friends. It might be a matter of time before I make some friends, but so far I have none.”*
S15 “English lifestyle is very different than the Arabic one. The culture is different than what we are used to in our countries. It could be the reason why we are not really able to make friends here as we have different beliefs and thoughts.”

(2) Attitude towards Learning English

S1 “Yes, I like learning English and that is why I left my country and family and came to England. I am interested in learning it and I will do my very best to speak English fluently.”

S5 “It could be fine to not speak English and I would be still able to have a job back in my country, but speaking English will make it much easier for me to have a good job. Therefore I am so interested in learning it.”

Although the questionnaire and interview data revealed that students had positive attitudes towards learning English, they have some unexpected attitudes as well. The majority of the students did not hold positive attitudes towards native speakers. This contradicts the majority of theories regarding the L2 learners’ attitudes towards native speakers in L2 motivation which were discussed in chapter 3.

6.10 Motivational L2 Self-system

The statements number 2, 3 and 5 were multiple items in the questionnaire to measure students’ L2 Selves in learning English at the beginning of their course. In view of the significant role played by our psychological desires that serve as a powerful motivator to learn the language, I introduced the L2 Self-concept to my research as a separate motivational factor rather than representing it as a process theorized to underpin the Integrativeness concept. The L2 Selves concept was explained in this study as an
internal process of identification within the person’s self-concept, rather than representing it as an identification with an external reference group, employing Dörnyei’s psychological theory of ‘possible selves’ that represents “individuals’ ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming, and so provide a conceptual link between the self-concept and motivation.” (2005, p 5).

The questionnaire statement number 2 “if I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master English” aimed to measure students’ self-confidence in learning English. The Ought-To L2 Self questionnaire item was represented by the statement number 3 “I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it”. The last item in the L2 Selves list was the Ideal Self. Statement number 5 in the questionnaire “I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English” was constructed to explore the level of the Ideal L2 Self that the students might have had at the start of their English course (Appendix 1). As the questionnaire data obtained from L2 Self items and the interview data gathered in regard to students’ L2 Selves in learning a target language have confirmed, students held different L2 Selves score-levels.

The overall score of the previous questionnaire items showed a Mean score of 5.2 for the Self-confidence item, the highest Mean score of all L2 Self items, a Mean score of 4 for Ought-To L2 Self (see table 6.8), and a Mean score of 4.6 for the Ideal-Self.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.8 Mean of L2 Selves Items (N=42)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Item</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.

I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.

Data in Table 6.8 in response to the second statement in the questionnaire show that 57.1 percent of the students strongly agreed and 38.1 percent agreed with the statement which points out the very high self-confidence that students had towards learning English at the beginning of their English course (See Figure 6.12). Only 4.8 percent of the students disagreed with the statement while no one moderately or strongly disagreed. In addition, students’ responses to the questionnaire statement number 3, Ought-To L2 Self item, showed that 23.8 percent of the students strongly agreed and 31 percent agreed with the statement while 33.3 percent of them slightly and moderately disagreed, and 11.9 percent of the students strongly disagreed (see Figure 6.13). The final L2 Self item in the questionnaire, Ideal L2 Self item, represented by the statement number 5 showed that 26.2 of the students strongly agreed and 50 percent agreed with the statement. In total 76.2 percent of the students agreed with the statement and showed a very clear vision of the attributes that they would ideally like to possess. Only 23.8 of the students disagreed while none of them strongly disagreed.
Figure 6.12 L2 Self-confidence

If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master English

Percentage (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Moderately disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Moderately agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.13 Ought-To L2 Self

I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it

Percentage (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Moderately disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Moderately agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</table>
Looking at this in more detail, conducting interviews allowed me to gain better insights into the students’ personal hopes, aspirations or wishes, the attributes that they believe they ought to or would ideally like to possess in learning English. In addition, the interview data allowed me to investigate further the participants’ thoughts about their future possible selves and therefore the motivational L2 Self-system and its influence over the students’ L2 proficiency level. The interview data showed some interesting points participants took up during the one-to-one interviews and explained better the questionnaire data that revealed the high L2 Self-confidence the students had.

(1) Self-confidence

The data indicated that the students had a very high level of L2 Self-confidence in learning English and mastering it.
S3 “I am sure that one day I will speak English fluently, same as native speakers. I just need to work more and study more. I need to speak English more and seize every opportunity to use my English and practice it.”

S10 “With practising more, I will be able to master the language and speak it fluently. We just arrived to England and started our course, so I think by the end of the course, I will speak English well. I am getting better in English every day, so it is a matter of time before I speak it fluently.”

(2) Ought-To L2 Self

The Ought-To L2 Self factor achieved a mean score of 4 out of 6, suggesting that on average, the students felt some level of duty or obligation towards their families to learn English. According to Arab culture, filial piety plays a central role and it is important to avoid disappointing your parents, who sometimes make decisions on behalf of their children. It is therefore surprising that the mean score for Ought-To L2 Self was not higher to reflect this level of obligation.

S9 “I need study English and be really good at it. It is the age of globalization and you need to speak English to survive.”

S12 “It was my choice to study English and travel all the way to England, so if I fail to learn English, my family will support me. For me, there is no obligation to anyone to study English. It is my choice which I am trying to achieve, but I will be disappointed at myself if I fail to speak English well.”
(3) Ideal L2 Self

The interview data indicated that the majority of the students had clear visions about their future wanted-selves. During the interviews, I could investigate further students’ personal hopes and aspirations of how they imagine themselves in the future and whether they can see themselves as having native speakers’ proficiency level.

*S15 “I can imagine myself working in a very famous company. Mastering English will help me to achieve my dreams.”

*S20 “I can see myself speaking English very well. It is not hard to achieve that, I imagine that one day I will have a lot of English and international friends with whom I can speak English.”

6.11 Other Motivational Components (Need for Achievement and Motivational Intensity)

Statement number 16 in the questionnaire “I enjoy working hard” was an item which aimed to measure participants’ need for achievement level (Appendix-1). Need for achievement concept refers to the individual's desire for significant accomplishment. Lussier and Achua define Need for Achievement as: “the need for achievement is the unconscious concern for excellence in accomplishments through individual efforts” (2007, p 42). On the other hand, questionnaire statement number 7 “I keep up to date with English by working on it almost every day” was an item that aimed to measure students’ motivational intensity. In Masgoret and Gardner’s (2003) meta-analysis on motivation, they found that motivational intensity was the most important factor in learning a target language. Masgoret and Gardner claim that motivational intensity is contributing to a learner’s L2 achievement and allowing predicting their L2 proficiency level.
Table 6.9 Mean of Need for Achievement and Motivational Intensity Items (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score (/6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I enjoy working hard</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I keep up to date with English by working on it almost every day</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The replies to statement 16 in the questionnaire showed an overall Mean score of 4 out of 6. 23.9 percent of the students who took part in this research strongly agreed and 28.6 percent agreed with the statement. While 45.2 percent of the students disagreed with the statement, only 2.3 strongly disagreed (see Figure 6.15). In addition, statement number 7 in the questionnaire showed a high Mean score of 4.6. 26.2 percent of the students strongly agreed with the statement and 59.6 percent of them agreed. On the other hand, 14.2 percent of the students disagreed with the statement and no one disagreed or strongly disagreed. The results reflected students’ high motivation intensity in learning their L2 and their determination to succeed (see Figure 9.16).
Figure 6.15 Need for Achievement

Figure 6.16 Motivational Intensity
Moving to the data collected by employing interviews. Participants’ responses during the interviews regarding the need for achievement and motivational intensity to learn English corroborated the questionnaire data. Nonetheless the interview data showed some interesting points participants took up during the one-to-one interviews:

1 – Need for Achievement:

S3 “Yes, I like challenges and I actually enjoy overcoming them”

S9 “I prefer to do hard tasks because anyone can do the easy tasks. I feel proud of myself whenever I achieve or finish a hard task which no one else can do.”

2- Motivational intensity:

S13 “Of course I study English and practise it whenever I can. I usually revise everything we take during the class once again when I am at home. I travelled all the way here to England to learn English, so I do not miss any opportunity to speak or practice it.”

S19 ”Yes, I do practise my English nearly every day. I usually try to read about English grammar and try to learn new words almost every day.”

In order to understand the motivating and Non-motivating factors that contributed to students’ L2 motivation to learn English, I delineated L2 motivation factors addressed in this research into the below table:
Table 6.10 Motivating and Non-motivating Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation Type</th>
<th>Motivating Factors (Mean score =/&gt;4)</th>
<th>Non-motivating Factors (Mean score =/&lt;3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic</strong></td>
<td>Integrative Orientation</td>
<td>Attitudes toward the British</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational Factors</td>
<td>Interest in Foreign languages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural Interest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest in the English Language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attitudes toward Learning English</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivational Intensity</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Need for Achievement</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic</strong></td>
<td>Instrumental Orientation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivational Factors</td>
<td>Knowledge Orientation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Travel Orientation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friendship Orientation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sociocultural Orientation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>L2 Motivational</strong></td>
<td>Ideal L2 Self</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors</td>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ought-To L2 Self</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The 16 values addressed in this research were demonstrated in the above table and classified according to the nature of each one of them. The research values were divided either Intrinsic and Extrinsic and L2 motivational factors. Table 6.10 shows that, in this study, 15 motivational factors were considered as motivating factors to learn English. On the other hand, only Attitude towards British motivation played no role in motivating the students to learn English. Students showed a low interest in native speakers, therefore the previous factor was classified as a *Non-motivating* factor.
Part 2

6.12 Introduction

In the second part of this chapter, I explore the data to identify any significant differences in students’ responses at the beginning of their English course and at the end of it in order to detect any change in students’ motivation during their English course. 42 students participated in Phase 1 and Phase 2 questionnaires. Furthermore, 21 students were interviewed in Phase 1 of the study, but only 14 of them attended the interview stage in Phase 2.

6.13 Differences between Questionnaire 1 and 2

In order to identify the differences in students’ L2 motivation at the end of their English course, the data collected from questionnaire 1 and 2 were analyzed with the help of the Correlation Test, Mean scores and the Paired T-Test.

6.13.1 Correlation Test (Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient)

Questionnaire 1 and 2 items were analysed by calculating the Pearson Correlation Coefficient to assess the relationship between students’ responses in the two questionnaires. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient gives an indication into the strength of the linear relationship (if any) between two variables. Applying the Correlation Test enabled me to examine whether there was a weak, moderate, strong or no correlation between questionnaire 1 and 2 items. In addition, the Correlation Test helped to investigate the change in students’ motivation to learn English and link it to the students’ exam results in order to understand the influence of the motivational change on students’ proficiency level.
The data in Figure 6.17 indicates that there was a strong linear relationship between students’ responses to questionnaire 1 and their responses to questionnaire 2 (R=0.9928). The R of 0.9928 indicates that there was a strong positive correlation between both questionnaires, which means there was a tendency for students with high scores in questionnaire 1 to have high scores in questionnaire 2 (and vice versa). The value of $R^2$, the coefficient of determination, was 0.9857. The p-value was also calculated and statistical significant relationship was found (p-value = 0.00001).

The participants in this cohort did not show a major change in motivation to learn English by the end of the course. A major change was defined as >10 points above or below their initial overall motivation score in questionnaire 1. To further stratify the participants in terms of motivational change (the change in students’ motivation between Questionnaire 1 and Questionnaire 2), they were divided into three groups: (1) No change in motivation, defined as $0 \pm 1\%$ change in motivation score (2) Minor Positive Change in motivation ($\geq 1\%$ increase in motivation score) and (3) Minor Negative Change in motivation ($\geq -1$ to -10$\%$ decrease in motivation score). The bar
chart displays the number of individuals in each of these three categories (see Figure 6.18).

Figure 6.18 Change in Motivation between Questionnaire 1 and 2 (N=42)

The data in Figure 6.18 indicates that by the end of their English course, the majority of the students, 33 students, had no change in their overall L2 motivation between the start and the end of the English course. 8 students had an increase in their overall motivation by the end of the English course, whilst only one student showed a decrease in their motivation.

6.13.2 The Relationship between L2 Motivation and the Language Proficiency Level

To investigate the relationship between students’ L2 motivation and their language proficiency level, the correlation was assessed using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Initial motivation, as determined by the participants overall motivation score in questionnaire 1, was correlated with the initial exam results (see Figure 6.19).
The R value was 0.1618 indicating a weak positive correlation between initial motivation score and initial exam results (the nearer the value is to zero, the weaker the relationship). The value of $R^2$, the coefficient of determination, was 0.0262. In addition, the p-value for the correlation was calculated in order to confirm the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test results and no statistically significant correlation between questionnaire 1 and the initial exam results was found (p-value = 0.869181). A p-value of <0.05 was deemed to be statistically significant.

To assess the ability of the students’ initial motivation to predict how successful students would be in learning a second language, a Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient Test was conducted for students’ initial motivation scores and their final exam results (see Figure 6.20).
Figure 6.20 Correlation between the Initial Motivation score and the Final Exam Results

The R value was -0.0793 indicating a weak negative correlation between initial motivation and final exam performance. Given the R value’s proximity to 0, this is more suggestive of no correlation between the two variables. This finding is consistent with the small $R^2$ value of 0.0063 (see Figure 6.20). In addition, the p-value for the correlation was calculated and no statistically significant correlation between the initial motivation and the final exam results was found (p-value = 0.968415).

A Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient test was carried out to understand the relationship between students’ initial motivation score (at the start of the English course) and the change in their exam results (as a measure of change in language proficiency level) (see Figure 6.21).
The R value was -0.2905 indicating a weak negative relationship between students’ initial motivation at the beginning of their English course and the change in exam results. The value of $R^2$, the coefficient of determination, was 0.0844 (See Figure 6.21). In addition, the p-value for the correlation was also calculated to confirm the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test results and no statistically significant correlation between the initial motivation and the change in exam results was found (p-value = 0.59513).

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test was conducted to analyze the data collected at the end of the English course in order to identify the relationship between students’ final motivation score and their final exam results. The Test helped to detect whether there was a linear relationship between students’ final motivation and their proficiency level in English after finishing their language course at the University. Final motivation score and the final exam results were analyzed with the help of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test (see Figure 6.22).
The test revealed that there was a very weak negative correlation between students’ final motivation score at the end of their English course and their final exam results. The R value was -0.0859. The relationship between the variables was weak. The value of $R^2$, the coefficient of determination, was 0.0074. In addition, the p-value for the correlation was calculated in order to confirm the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test results and no statistically significant correlation between questionnaire 2 and the final exam results was found (p-value = 0.962903).

To understand the relationship between students’ final motivation score and the change in their exam results, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test was conducted (see Figure 6.23).

Figure 6.22 Correlation between the Final Motivation Score and the Final Exam Results
The test revealed that there was a very weak negative correlation between students’ final motivation score and the change in their exam results. The R value was -0.2724, therefore the relationship between the variables was weak. The value of R$^2$, the coefficient of determination, was 0.0742. In addition, the p-value for the correlation was not statistically significant (p-value = 0.640497).

In order to answer the second part of the research questions: “and if there is any change, how does it influence students’ second language proficiency level?”, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test was carried out.
The R value was 0.2355, indicating a weak positive correlation between the change in students’ motivation and the change in exam results. The value of $R^2$, the coefficient of determination, was 0.0555 (see Figure 6.24). In addition, the p-value for the correlation was also calculated to confirm the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test results and no statistically significant correlation between the change in motivation between questionnaire 1 and 2 and the change in exam results was found (p-value = 0.727017).

In order to gain a deeper understanding into the students’ motivational change, the individual motivational factors were compared between Questionnaire 1 and Questionnaire 2 (see Table 6.11).
Table 6.11 The Number of Students that had an Increase, Decrease or a No Change in their Individual Motivational Factors (N=42)

| Increase | 4 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 9 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 10 | 13 | 12 | 7 | 13 |
| Decrease | 1 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 10 | 5 | 6 | 8 | 4 | 7 | 11 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 12 |
| No change | 37 | 36 | 35 | 37 | 25 | 31 | 29 | 25 | 30 | 27 | 24 | 28 | 25 | 27 | 29 | 17 |
In order to gain a deeper understanding into the change in students’ motivation and its relationship with their exam results, the frequencies of individual motivational factors at the start and end of the course were examined. Since the overall motivation score seemed to have very little or no correlation with exam performance, the individual motivational factors were considered further. Since the individual factors were measured on a scale from 1 to 6, No Change was defined as a change of 0 point(s), a +1 or greater than +1 increase in point(s) was classed as Increase in motivation and -1 or greater than -1 decrease was defined as Decrease in motivation. However, to restrict the false positive discovery rate arising from multiple testing, only three motivational factors were selected for further Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis and the Bonferroni correction was applied to the significance level. The motivational factors with the highest score in the No Change, Increase and Decrease categories were selected (see Table 6.11).

Data in Table 6.11 shows that the individual motivational factor with the highest frequency for No Change in motivation score was the Interest in Foreign Language factor, the category with the highest frequency for an increase in motivation, as well as the highest frequency for a decrease in motivation was the Need for Achievement factor. As the Need for Achievement factor had the highest frequency on two occasions, it was only selected for further analysis with regards to increase in motivation. The motivational factor with the second highest frequency for a decrease in motivation, the Travel Orientation factor, was selected for further analysis with regards to decrease in motivation. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test was conducted to identify the relationship between the change in students’ individual motivational factors and their exam results.

The frequencies of the Interest in Foreign Languages motivational factor (highest No Change) were examined with the help of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis (see Table 6.12).
Table 6.12 Correlation between Interest in Foreign Languages Motivation and Exam Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparisons</th>
<th>R Value</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Interest in Foreign Languages Motivation Score and Initial Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.2372</td>
<td>0.0563</td>
<td>0.723237 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Interest in Foreign Languages Motivation Score and Final Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.4444</td>
<td>0.1975</td>
<td>0.209947 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Interest in Foreign Languages Motivation Score and Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.1883</td>
<td>0.0355</td>
<td>0.823385 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Final Interest in Foreign Languages Motivation Score and Final Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.4511</td>
<td>0.2035</td>
<td>0.196148 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Final Interest in Foreign Languages Motivation Score and Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.1931</td>
<td>0.0373</td>
<td>0.814583 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Change in Interest in Foreign Languages Motivation Score and Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.0292</td>
<td>0.0009</td>
<td>0.995487 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest No Change in motivation was recorded in the Interest in Foreign Languages Motivational factor. Students showed a very strong interest in learning foreign languages throughout their English course. This may be because they were aware of the importance of speaking more than one language in the era of globalization. Students were aware that speaking more than one language has its
various virtues in facilitating traveling, finding a job, increasing social status and seeking knowledge. Therefore, this may explain why students’ level of interest in this motivational factor did not change by the time they finished their English course.

For the highest Decrease and Increase in students’ individual motivational factors scores, the frequencies of Travel (highest Decrease) and Need for Achievement motivational (highest Increase) factors at the start and end of the course were examined with the help of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis (see Table 6.13 and 6.14).

### Table 6.13 Correlation between Travel Motivation and Exam Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparisons</th>
<th>R Value</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Travel Motivation Score and Initial Exam Results</td>
<td>0.2501 (Weak Positive Correlation)</td>
<td>0.0626</td>
<td>0.693701 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Travel Motivation Score and Final Exam Results</td>
<td>0.0917 (Weak Positive Correlation)</td>
<td>0.0084</td>
<td>0.957894 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Travel Motivation Score and the Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.2144 (Weak Negative Correlation)</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.772374 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Final Travel Motivation Score and Final Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.1331 (Weak Negative Correlation)</td>
<td>0.0177</td>
<td>0.911413 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Final Travel Motivation Score and the Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.1536 (Weak Negative Correlation)</td>
<td>0.0236</td>
<td>0.882066 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Change in Travel Motivation Score and Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>0.1384 (Weak Positive Correlation)</td>
<td>0.0192</td>
<td>0.90394 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of the correlation analyses indicated that there was no relationship (Weak positive/negative correlations which were not statistically significant; R values close to 0) between initial, final or change in travel motivation score and the initial, final or change in exam results.

Table 6.14 Correlation between Need for Achievement Motivation and Exam Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparisons</th>
<th>R Value</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Need for Achievement Motivation Score and Initial Exam Results</td>
<td>0.1472</td>
<td>0.0217</td>
<td>0.891502 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Need for Achievement Motivation Score and Final Exam Results</td>
<td>0.1938</td>
<td>0.0376</td>
<td>0.813118 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Initial Need for Achievement Motivation Score and Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>0.99649 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Final Need for Achievement Motivation Score and Final Exam Results</td>
<td>0.2999</td>
<td>0.0899</td>
<td>0.571268 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Final Need for Achievement Motivation Score and Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.0123</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td>0.998997 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between Change in Need for Achievement Motivation Score and Change in Exam Results</td>
<td>-0.0448</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.989971 (Not Significant)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data in Table 6.14 indicated that there were very weak correlations between the initial, final or change in need for achievement motivation score and the initial, final or change in exam results. The weak correlations were mostly positive correlations except for the correlations between the final and the change in need for achievement motivation scores and the change in exam results, which showed weak negative correlations. However, these correlations were not statistically significant as the p-values were greater than 0.05.

6.13.3 Paired-Sample T-Test

The Paired T-Test was applied to questionnaire 1 and 2 in order to explore differences between the Mean scores of the questionnaires’ items. The Paired T-Test is applied to compare the Means of the same group of participants on two different occasions (Brace, 2003; Pallant, 2005). In my study, 42 students participated in completing questionnaires on two different occasions: at the beginning of their English course and at the end of it.

Questionnaire 1 and 2 were also analysed more explicitly in tables below with the help of the Mean scores. Questionnaire 1 items’ Mean scores were subtracted from questionnaire 2 items’ Mean scores and represented in a Mean score difference.
### Table 6.15 Table of Change in Motivation between Questionnaire 1 and 2 (Intrinsic Motivational Factors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Statement</th>
<th>Motivational Value</th>
<th>Initial/Mean Total – Final/Mean Total Motivation Score (/ 252) (/6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I wish I could speak many foreign languages perfectly</td>
<td>Interest in Foreign languages</td>
<td>232 - 229 = +3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.52 - 5.45 = + 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life</td>
<td>Integrative Orientation</td>
<td>179 - 176 = +3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.26 - 4.19 = + 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and peoples and learn more about what is happening in the world</td>
<td>Sociocultural Orientation</td>
<td>202 - 188 = + 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.81 - 4.48 = + 0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I like British films</td>
<td>Cultural Interest</td>
<td>215 - 213 = +2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.12 - 5.07 = + 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I enjoy listening English spoken language</td>
<td>Interest in the English Language</td>
<td>169 - 169 = 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.02 - 4.02 = 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I really enjoy learning English</td>
<td>Attitudes toward Learning English</td>
<td>194 - 192 = +2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.62 - 4.57 = + 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The British are kind and friendly</td>
<td>Attitudes toward the British</td>
<td>143 - 137 = +6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.40 -3.26 = +0.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.16 Table of Change in Motivation between Questionnaire 1 and 2
(Extrinsic Motivational Factors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Statement</th>
<th>Motivational Value</th>
<th>Initial/Mean Total – Final/Mean Total Motivation Score (/ 252) (/6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Studying English is Important to me because I may need it later on for job/studies</td>
<td>Instrumental Motivation</td>
<td>222 - 219 = +3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.28- 5.21 = +0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Studying English is important to me because I would like to meet foreigners with whom I can speak English</td>
<td>Friendship Motivation</td>
<td>197 - 190 = +7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.69 - 4.52 = +0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Studying English is important to me because I would like to spend some time abroad</td>
<td>Travel Motivation</td>
<td>179 - 182 = -3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.26 - 4.33 = -0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Studying English is important to me so that I can be a more knowledgeable person</td>
<td>Knowledge Motivation</td>
<td>197 - 184 = +13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.69 - 4.38 = +0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I enjoy hard working</td>
<td>Need For Achievement</td>
<td>167 - 166 = +1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.97 - 3.95 = +0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.17 Table of Change in Motivation between Questionnaire 1 and 2 (Other Motivational Factors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Statement</th>
<th>Motivational Value</th>
<th>Initial/Mean Total – Final/Mean Total Motivation Score (/ 252) (/6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 2       | If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master English                       | Self Confidence    | 218 - 220 = -2
          |                                                                                         |                    | 5.19 - 5.24 = -0.05                                                  |
| 3       | I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it | Ought To L2 Self   | 167 - 164 = +3
          |                                                                                         |                    | 3.97 - 3.90 = +0.07                                                  |
| 5       | I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English          | Ideal L2 Self      | 188 - 192 = -4
          |                                                                                         |                    | 4.48 - 4.57 = -0.09                                                  |
| 7       | I keep up to date with English by working on it almost every day                        | Motivational Intensity | 193 - 192 = +1
          |                                                                                         |                    | 4.59 - 4.57 = +0.02                                                  |
6.13.4 Intrinsic Motivational Factors (Paired T-Test)

6.13.4.1 Null Hypothesis (H0)

*There is no significant difference between the Mean scores of the Intrinsic motivational factors depending on the students’ responses before and after finishing their English course.*

6.13.4.2 Alternate Hypothesis (H1)

*There is a significant difference between the Mean scores of the Intrinsic motivational factors depending on the students’ responses before and after finishing their English course.*

H0: μ₁ = μ₂

H1: μ₁ ≠ μ₂

Where μ₁ represents the Mean score of pre-Intrinsic motivational factors,

And μ₂ represents the Mean score of post-Intrinsic motivational factors,

Level of Significance: α = 0.05

The data represented in Table 6.15 indicates that there was no effective change in student’s intrinsic motivations towards learning English. It indicates that students had only slightly different Mean scores at the end of their English course comparing to the Mean scores at the beginning of the course. The highest increase in students’ intrinsic motivation was represented in the sociocultural motivation with a motivational change of + 0.33 MS, whilst no decrease in students’ intrinsic motivational factors was recorded (see Table 6.15). The students showed no effective change in their intrinsic motivation as the difference in Means scores of all Intrinsic items at the beginning and the end of the English course had a p-value of more than 0.05 (p-value = 0.0504). There was no statistically significant difference between the Mean scores of
questionnaire 1 and 2 in students’ intrinsic motivations. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis was accepted and Alternate Hypothesis was rejected.

6.13.5 Extrinsic Motivational Factors

6.13.5.1 Null Hypothesis (H0)

*There is no significant difference between the Mean scores of the Extrinsic motivational factors depending on the students’ responses before and after finishing their English course.*

6.13.5.2 Alternate Hypothesis (H1)

*There is a significant difference between the Mean scores the Extrinsic motivational factors depending on the students’ responses before and after finishing their English course.*

H0: μ1 = μ2  
H1: μ1 ≠ μ2

Where μ1 represents the Mean score of pre-Extrinsic motivational factors,  
And μ2 represents the Mean score of post-Extrinsic motivational factors,

Level of Significance: α = 0.05

The data collected from the extrinsic motivational items represented in Table 6.16 shows no effective change in students’ extrinsic motivations towards learning English. Data represented in Table 6.16 indicates that students had only slightly different Mean scores at the end of their English course compared to the Mean scores at the beginning of the course. The highest increase in students’ extrinsic motivation was represented in the knowledge motivation with a change of +0.31 MS, whilst the highest decrease
was represented in the travel motivation with a change of -0.07 MS (see Table 6.16). As the change in students’ motivation was more than a p-value of 0.05 (p-value = 0.1985). Null Hypothesis was accepted and Alternate Hypothesis was rejected.

6.13.6 Other Motivational Factors (L2 Self Factors)

6.13.6.1 Null Hypothesis (H0)

*There is no significant difference between the Mean scores of the L2 Self motivational factors depending on the students’ responses before and after finishing their English course.*

6.13.6.2 Alternate Hypothesis (H1)

*There is a significant difference between the Mean scores the L2 Self motivational factors depending on the students’ responses before and after finishing their English course.*

H0: μ1 = μ2

H1: μ1 ≠ μ2

Where μ1 represents the Mean score of pre-L2 Self motivational factors,

And μ2 represents the Mean score of post-L2 Self motivational factors,

Level of Significance: α = 0.05

Data represented in Table 6.17 was consistent with the data collected from the rest of the motivational factors in this research. Self Confidence, Ought To L2 Self, Ideal L2 Self and Motivational Intensity showed no effective change in students’ motivation towards studying English. Even though there was no significant change in students’ opinions by comparing questionnaire 1 with questionnaire 2, data represented in Table 6.17 shows slightly different opinions between 1 questionnaire and 2. Mean scores at
the end of the students’ English course were slightly different from the Mean scores at the beginning of the course (see Table 6.17). Yet these slightly different Mean scores were not effective changes in students’ motivation. The highest increase in students’ Other Motivational Factors was represented in the Ought To L2 Self motivation with a motivational change of +0.07 MS, and the highest decrease was represented in the Ideal L2-Self motivation with a change of -0.09 MS. As there was no statistically significant difference between the Mean scores of questionnaire 1 and 2 in students’ Other Motivational Factors (p-value 0.7688), the Null Hypothesis was accepted and Alternate Hypothesis was rejected.

6.14 Differences between Interview 1 and 2

21 students took part in interview 1 at the beginning of their English course. 14 of these students proceeded to participate in interview 2 at the end of the English course. Conducting interview 2 at the end of their English course allowed a better understanding of students’ change in opinion about the various values this research addressed. The students in interview 2 were asked about the same points interview 1 addressed and how they felt about their overall progress in English learning at university when they entered the course and after they finished the English course.

The majority of interviewees showed slightly more positive views about the research values with very few interviewees who felt slightly less positive. Students, for instance, showed at the beginning of their English course less positive views towards their ability of mastering the English language. However, these views had changed to be more positive and students were more confident about mastering English by the end of their course. The students said:
S3: “I believe that after finishing the English course that I am even more confident that I can master the language. I have improved my skills and I have built confidence now, so I feel good when I use my English.”

One of the students, for example, was under the impression that he would never speak English fluently and that he would fail the course. However, he was able to build up self-confidence and had different views by the end of his English course:

S5: “Yes, I have changed a lot since I first started the course. It was really hard to speak English at the beginning since my English was not so good, I thought that I would never make it to the end of the course. But now I feel more confident using it. I am sure with time and practice I will even be better and I will be able to improve my English.”

Two other students expressed how the English course and living in England made them more confident in achieving their goal in learning English:

S9: “I have improved a lot. I have been pushing myself all time to better myself. I have become much better than when I first arrived in England; all my vocabulary was very poor, I knew a very limited number of words, but now I improved. My pronunciation was really bad, my classmates and teachers hardly understood what I was saying because of the bad pronunciation I had, but I am much better now.”

S13: “Yes of course I thought that speaking English is a very difficult thing and English as a language very hard to learn, but actually it is not impossible. It will probably take some time to speak English fluently, but I believe that I
can reach a very good level in English after a few years if I keep practising it and using it.”

On the other hand, two of the students, who had a private education back in their country and learned English starting from kindergarten and going through to high school, felt that they had not made a huge progress in improving their English skills. It should be noted that private schools in Gulf countries such as Qatar or the United Arab Emirates, have advanced educational systems, which enables students to learn English effectively. These two students have been exposed to the English Language since an early age and have been offered extra attention provided by their private education - that may be why they did not find the course as useful as other students or felt that they had made progress.

S10 ‘’My English was good. I do not feel that I made a huge progress in my language. I won’t say that the course helped me to improve my English and that now I can speak like native speakers. Most of the grammar rules and words they taught us on the course I already knew. I mean that I improved my English but not as much as I expected, I slightly improved my English on this course.”

S2: ‘’Yeah, I can one day have a very good level in English and speak like native speakers, but the current course did not really help me much to improve my language. No much of a change for me.”

The students showed, in general, a positive change in their views after finishing their English course. At the start of the English course they showed some sense of confidence throughout the interviews in their ability in learning English, but after the
end of the course, students appeared to be more confident in mastering the English language.

6.15 Summary

Both the interviews and questionnaire tools employed in this research attempted to measure students’ responses on 16 motivational factors (1) Socio Cultural (2) Integrative motivation (3) Attitudes towards the British (4) Cultural Interest (5) Interest in Foreign Languages (6) Interest in English (7) Attitudes towards Learning English (8) Instrumental Motivation (9) Friendship Motivation (10) Travel Motivation (11) Knowledge Motivation (13) Need for achievement Self Confidence (14) Ought To be Self (15) Ideal L2 Self (16) Motivational Intensity. The questionnaire data were used to have further illustrative insights into the interview data. The comparison of students’ responses in both questionnaires 1 and 2 and interviews 1 and 2 showed a high level of consistency.

Students showed that they held various and mixed types of motivation for learning English. Students held both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational elements towards learning English. The extrinsic purposes for learning English were related to acquiring knowledge, getting a better job, gaining a higher social status within their communities or to facilitate travelling abroad. On the other hand, the intrinsic purposes behind learning English were traced back to varied reasons such as becoming part of the international community. Most of the students stressed the fact that they need to speak English in order to use it as a tool to access the globalized world, where English is the main tool of communication between people. The comparison of mean scores of questionnaire 1 and 2 suggested that students’ motivation has not significantly changed over the period of the English course, which has been detailed in the previous paragraphs.
Chapter 7: Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter evaluates and discusses the results presented previously in chapter 6 in relation to the literature review in chapters 3 and 4 and research questions (RQs). The main objectives of this research study were to find out what motivational factors were the best predictors of success and to investigate if there was any change in students’ motivation over the period of their English language course at university.

7.2 (RQ1-1) What are the factors that motivate L1 Arabic learners of English at a UK university at the start of their university course to learn English as a second language?

The background discussion and the literature review in chapters 3 and 4 led to identify 16 main motivational factors and to investigate them in terms of their influence on learning a target language (see Table 5.1, Student Motivational State Questionnaire). The different motivational factors were sub-categorised under the main L2 motivational factors: Intrinsic, Extrinsic in addition to other motivational components.

7.2.1 Intrinsic Motivational Factors

7.2.1.1 Integrative Motivation

The data obtained in this research study revealed unexpected results that were inconsistent with the traditional concept of integrativeness and integrative motivation. The traditional concept of integrativeness, where the L2 learner is interested in native speakers of that language and their culture (Gardern 1982), was not reflected in this research in regard to L2 Arab learners of English in the UK. Arab Students showed a
very good understanding of the importance of the English language in the 21st century, and their responses reflected the significant role that the English language plays in the globalization era. Data collected from both questionnaires and interviews showed that students emphasized on the importance of learning English to be a part of the global community rather than being a part of the British community.

Students’ responses reflected the new perspectives of Integrativeness, where English language learners want to be a part of the international community whose members speak English as a communication tool. The integrative motivation can be accepted in questionnaire 1 as a motivating factor since this value has achieved the Mean score of 4.2, and it was accepted as a motivating factor for L1 Arab learners of English in questionnaire 2. In questionnaire 2, the integrative motivation has achieved a Mean score of 4.3, and therefore the integrative motivation was accepted as an effective factor that motivates L1 Arab learners to study English in the UK.

7.2.1.2 Attitudes towards the British

Even though students showed some interest in the English community and native speakers, they by no means expressed any intention to be identified or wanted to be like the L2 speakers (Chapter 06). The results obtained from Attitudes towards native speakers’ value achieved a low Mean score compared to the rest of the research values.

The Attitudes toward the British value achieved the lowest Mean score in this research from the students in both questionnaire 1 and 2 (see Table 6.15). The Attitudes towards British was not accepted in either questionnaire 1 or 2 as this value has achieved low Mean scores: 3.3 in questionnaire 1 and 3.4 in questionnaire 2. Consequently, it was considered as a non-motivating factor for L1 Arab learners of English. Therefore, the Attitudes towards British factor was excluded as an effective factor that motivates L1 Arab learners to study English in the UK.
7.2.1.3 Interest in English and Foreign Languages and Attitude towards Learning English

In contrast to the results obtained from the Attitude towards British value, data obtained from Interest in English and foreign languages values showed very positive results. Students showed a high interest in learning English or any other foreign language for various reasons. For instance, some students showed interest in English and a positive attitude towards learning it either for knowledge, travel or instrumental purposes.

Conducting interviews enabled me to have a better understanding of students’ positive responses towards learning English. The majority of the students rooted their high interest in learning English to the importance role this language has acquired over the last several decades to become a global language and a very significant tool to communicate between peoples.

In questionnaire 1, the interest in English and foreign languages and attitude towards learning English were accepted as effective motivational factors which motivate L1 Arabs learners of English to study English in the UK (interest in foreign languages = 5.5 MS, attitudes towards learning English = 4.6 MS and interest in English = 4 MS). In both questionnaire and interview 1 and questionnaire and interview 2, students gave very positive responses and showed positive attitudes towards the previous values which achieved high Mean scores (see Table 6.15).

7.2.1.4 Cultural and Socio-Cultural Interest

The data obtained from both Interest in the English Culture and the Socio-Cultural Interest were consistent with the positive responses students had given towards English and foreign languages. In contrast to the data obtained from the Attitude towards British value, data obtained from Interest in English Culture and Socio-
Cultural interest values showed positive results (socio-cultural interest = 4.5 MS and interest in English cultural = 5.1 MS). Students showed a high interest in the English community and foreign cultures, but they by no means expressed any intention to be identified within the English culture, but rather had a positive view about the English culture as foreign learners of English in the UK.

Students separated the English language and culture, to which they gave very positive responses from native speakers who had less positive responses. This might have been due to the shortness of their English course in the UK, which did not allow them to communicate enough with the native speakers.

The interest in the English Culture and the Socio-cultural interest achieved moderately high Mean scores: 4.5 in questionnaire 1 and 4.8 in questionnaire 2 for the Socio-Cultural interest, and 5.1 in questionnaire 1 and 5.1 in questionnaire 2 for the Interest in the English Culture. Therefore, both previous values were accepted as effective motivational factors that motivate L1 Arab learners of English to study in the UK.

7.2.2 Extrinsic Motivational Factors (Pragmatic Reasons and Incentive Values)

7.2.2.1 Instrumental Motivation

As explained in Chapter 4, the instrumental motivation factor has been widely researched as an effective factor in L2 motivation research. Moreover, instrumental motivation’s influence on the L2 learners’ proficiency level has been a subject of further research.

In this study, the data obtained from instrumental motivation for learning English were aligned to Gardner’s traditional definition of Instrumentality. Students had given very positive responses to learning English for instrumental reasons (see Table 6.16).
Due to the high Mean score achieved by instrumental motivation, it was accepted as an effective factor in motivating L1 Arabs learners of English to study English in the UK.

7.2.2.2 Travel, Knowledge and Friendship Motivation

Dörnyei has used a new label for the Instrumentality in L2 Motivation in his research on L1 Hungarian young learners of English: ‘incentive values’ (1994). In my research, I studied the L2 instrumental motivation towards learning a target language in wider aspects with both ‘pragmatic reasons’ as researched by Gardner (job aspects and place in education) and Dörnyei’s ‘incentive value’ (seeking knowledge, making foreign friends, watching movies, travelling abroad, reading novels, social status).

The results obtained in this research in regard to extrinsic factors that motivate L1 Arab learners to study English were aligned to both Dörnyei’s new definition and Gardner’s traditional definition of Instrumentality. While Dörnyei’s new definition of Instrumentality in L2 Motivation focuses on ‘practical incentives’ and the proficiency in learning the English language leads to an educated person, Gardner’s traditional definition focuses on ‘pragmatic reasons’ such as a job. My research found that the Arab students associate their professional success and growth with English and how well they learn it. Students had given very positive responses to learning English for extrinsic reasons. Travel, knowledge and friendship motivational factors were as effective factor in motivating L1 Arabs learners of English to study English (Knowledge motivation = 4.4 MS, Travel motivation = 4.3 MS and Friendship motivation = 4.5 MS).
7.2.2.3 Need for Achievement

Among the various range of incentives discussed in L2 motivation, the Need for Achievement is regarded as one of the key factors in learning a target language. It is evidenced by efforts made by individuals and by the persistence they show in the face of difficulties. Achievement motivation is regarded as a central human motivation. Lussier and Achua define the need for achievement as: “the unconscious concern for excellence in accomplishments through individual efforts” (2007, p 42).

The Need for Achievement factor achieved a Mean score of 4 out of 6, suggesting that on average, the students showed some level of desire to satisfy their psychological need for achievement. However, during the interviews, students showed an interest in learning English because, according to them, everyone else speaks it and therefore they need to learn it in order to survive.

7.2.3 Other Motivational Factors

7.2.3.1 Ought To be Self, Ideal L2 Self and Self Confidence

The data obtained from Ought to be Self, Ideal L2 Self and Self Confidence factors showed that the students held positive L2 Selves in learning English. Dörnyei focused in his L2 Motivational Self System theory on the significance of the role played by personal attributes in L2 motivation and learning a target language, and based his new concept of L2 Motivational Self System on Gardner’s Integrative Motivation framework (2006).

Students throughout the questionnaires and interviews showed a high sense of self-confidence in learning English and achieving a high proficiency level. This may be due to the improvement in English level since they started their course. In addition, students showed a strong sense of Ideal L2 Self, resulting from different reasons, such as the pressure of living in an English-speaking country where everyone speaks
English. The Ideal L2 Self, Self Confidence and Ought to be Self motivational factors were considered to be effective factors in motivating L1 Arab learners in learning English (Ideal L2 Self = 4.6 MS, Self Confidence = 5.2MS and Ought to be Self= 4MS) (see Figure 7.1).

7.2.3.2 Motivational Intensity

The data obtained from the Motivational Intensity value showed that the students held a strong desire towards learning English (see Figure 7.1). The overall results were consistent with the Ideal L2 Self value’s results. The positive response on the Motivational Intensity can be related to the high Mean score in Ideal L2 Self value in particular and the different goals students had for learning English in general. Students during the questionnaires and interviews explained that they were working on improving their English skills even after the class and trying to engage in outside activities such as listening to the TV or radio, using their English outside the class and engaging in conversation with native speakers. These positive responses can be identified with students’ positive L2 Selves, such as the high Mean score in Ideal L2 Self. Therefore the Motivational Intensity factor was considered to be an effective factor in L1 Arab learners’ L2 motivation.

Students throughout this study had responded positively to most of the motivational factors addressed in this research with very few exceptions. Figure 7.1 demonstrates the L2 motivational factors of L1 Arab learners of English according to the overall questionnaire 1 and 2 scores and measured on a scale of 1 to 6, the questionnaire scale. The relative importance of the various motivational factors can be represented using seven concentric circles in which the more influential factors are closer to the inner circle (L2 Motivation) (Figure 7.1). In the 1 to 6 scale, 1 represented the lowest Mean score and therefore the non-effective factor and 6 represented the highest Mean score (MS) and therefore the most effective factor. The research factors with Mean
scores from 1 to 4 were considered non-motivating factors and those from 4 to 6 were considered motivating factor.

Figure 7.1 Effective L2 Motivational Factors on L1 Arab Learners of English
7.3 (RQ1-2) Is there any difference in Arab students’ motivation in learning English depending on their varied backgrounds?

Unpaired T-Tests were carried out to investigate differences between students’ background and their motivation to learn English. The differences were found in the variables mentioned in the paragraphs below. Information about the participants’ background was collected from the last phase of the questionnaire (see Table 6.1). Questionnaires investigated the students’ demographic and educational background: their gender, country of origin, schooling sector and the number of languages spoken. The differences were found in the following variables:

7.3.1 Motivation and Gender

The participants in this study comprised 97.61 percent males and 2.39 percent females (one female only). Since the sample size of the female group was so small, it was difficult to infer any meaningful statistical results. As such, comparison of the genders using an unpaired t-test was not possible in this research. However, I qualitatively summarise the data collected from the only female participant in this research below.

The qualitative data revealed that the only female in this research showed very positive attitudes towards native speakers and the English language per se. In addition, interviews revealed that the female held strong integrative motivation towards learning English.
7.3.2 Motivation and Educational Background

7.3.2.1 Null Hypothesis (H0)

There is no significant difference between the Mean scores depending on the students’ educational backgrounds (private or public education).

7.3.2.2 Alternate Hypothesis (H1)

There is a significant difference between the Mean scores depending on the students’ educational backgrounds (private or public education).

H0: \( \mu_1 = \mu_2 \)

H1: \( \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \)

Where \( \mu_1 \) represents the Mean score of publicly educated students’ motivational factors,

And \( \mu_2 \) represents the Mean score of privately educated students’ motivational factors,

Level of Significance: \( \alpha = 0.05 \)

The participants who took part in the research were from both public and private educational backgrounds. One third of the participants studied in the private educational sector. After comparing the initial motivation scores of the two groups, no evidence of dissimilarity recorded in L1 Arab students’ motivational factors to learn English depending on their educational backgrounds (p-value = 0.7388). Therefore, the Null Hypothesis was accepted and Alternate Hypothesis was rejected.
7.3.3 Motivation and Country of Origin

As presented in Table 6.1, the current research study had 90.48 percent of its participants from Gulf countries such as Qatar and Kuwait, and 9.52 percent of its participants from the rest of the Arab/Arabic-speaking world. Since the sample size of the non-Gulf countries group was so small, it was difficult to infer any meaningful statistical results. As such, comparison of the countries of origin using an unpaired t-test was not possible in this research. However, I qualitatively summarise the data collected from the students of Non-Gulf countries below.

The data collected from Non-Gulf students revealed that they had high levels of instrumentality in their responses to the extrinsic motivational factors. For example, they stressed the fact that they were learning English so they could have a good job when they were back in their countries. Similar results were found in their responses to the intrinsic motivational factors. In other words students had a mixture of extrinsic and intrinsic reasons for learning English, which was the same as the students from Gulf countries.

7.3.4 Motivation and Number of Languages

7.3.4.1 Null Hypothesis (H0)

There is no significant difference between the Mean scores of students that speak only one language (besides English), and students that speak more than one language.

7.3.4.2 Alternate Hypothesis (H1)

There is significant difference between the Mean scores of students that speak only one language (besides English), and students that speak more than one language.

H0: μ1 = μ2

H1: μ1 ≠ μ2
Where $\mu_1$ represents the Mean score of students who speak one language only besides English.

And $\mu_2$ represents the Mean score of students who speak more than one language besides English,

Level of Significance: $\alpha = 0.05$

52.39% of students who took part in this research spoke only one language besides English, whilst 47.61% spoke more than one language besides English. After comparing the initial motivation scores of the two groups, there was no evidence of dissimilarity in L1 Arab students’ motivational factors to learn English according to the number of languages they spoke ($p$-value = 0.7327). Therefore, the Null Hypothesis was accepted and Alternate Hypothesis was rejected.

**7.4 (RQ2) How are these motivational factors related to the examination results?**

In order to explore whether there was any significant relationship between the motivational factors and students’ proficiency level in English, the initial, final and change in motivation scores were analyzed and compared to the initial, final and change in exam results by calculating the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (see Chapter 6).

The Correlation Test resulted in an unexpected outcome, revealing that there was no correlation between the initial exam results and the initial motivation score at the beginning of the English course. The R value was 0.1618. The relationship between the variables was weak (the nearer the value is to zero, the weaker the relationship). The value of $R^2$, the coefficient of determination, was 0.0262. In addition, the p-value for the correlation was calculated in order to confirm the Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test results and no statistically significant correlation between students’
initial motivation score and the initial exam results was found (p-value = 0.869181) (see Figure 6.19).

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test was conducted to analyze the data collected at the end of the English course in order to identify the relationship between students’ final motivation score and their final exam results (see Figure 6.22 in Chapter 6). The test helped to detect whether there was a linear relationship between students’ motivation and their proficiency level in English after finishing their language course. The test revealed that there was no correlation between students’ final motivation score and their final exam results. The R value was -0.0859. The value of R², the coefficient of determination, was 0.0074. In addition, the p-value for the correlation was calculated and no statistically significant correlation between questionnaire 2 and the final exam results was found (p – value = 0.962903).

7.5 (RQ3) Does the Arab students’ motivation change during their university course? And if there is any change, how does it influence students’ second language proficiency level?

Although there was no statistically significant difference between students’ questionnaire responses to most of the research factors, this section aimed to trace and investigate changes in students’ responses on an individual factor basis in questionnaires 1, 2 and interviews.
7.5.1 Change in L1 Arab Learners’ Motivation to Learn English

Change 1:

After completing their English course at the university, the students agreed more on the importance of the English language and that they wanted to learn English so that they can mix comfortably with the outside world and be a part of the international community.

Change 2:

The students agreed less that they were learning English to be identified with the English community or that they can know or mix with English-speaking people.

Change 3:

The students agreed more on the importance of learning English which enables them to have access to a wider range of knowledge resources.

Change 4:

The students agreed more that they were learning English for pragmatic reasons based on incentives such as getting a better job.

Change 5:

The students agreed less that they were working on improving their English on a daily basis and that they were doing all their English homework or assignments.

Change 6:

The students agreed less that learning English itself is enough to make them knowledgeable people, but rather English can help them when seeking information.
Change 7:

The students agreed more that they were confident using their English inside the classroom or outside and they fear less that people will laugh at them.

The majority of the students at the beginning of their English course were aware that they had many language problems, such as lack of vocabulary and confidence in speaking inside the class or outside it. After taking the English course they became more confident about English grammar, vocabulary, writing their assignments and homework.

Students’ views at the beginning of their English course focused mainly on the difficulty of learning English as they believed that English is a very hard language to learn. This was in line with Lau’s study, in 2009, on Chinese tertiary students, who felt that English was a very difficult language to master. However, after completing their English course, the students felt that English learning had become easier for them and it was not as difficult as they thought. The change in the views of L1 Arab learners about learning English might be a result of the appropriateness of tasks they were given and the teaching methods followed by the teachers in the university.

The change in students’ motivation and their exam results might be related to several reasons, such as the individual differences between students as independent learners, or the different learning capacities of the students which resulted in inconsistent L2 motivation types when linked to the examination results. Another reason that might explain the unexpected results of finding a weak correlation between the change in students’ motivation and the change in their examination results might be the style of teaching in the University. The teaching style at the university and the appropriateness of tasks given might have allowed the students to improve their English regardless of their motivation. The exposure to English outside the class and the independent
learning style of each student might also be an explanation for the above correlation in test results.

7.6 Saturation Hypothesis

Taking all the results into account, it would appear that there is no relationship between motivation and proficiency level. However, when considering the cohort in this study, they all started with a relatively high motivation level. Therefore, as a possible explanation for the findings of this research, I propose the saturation hypothesis.

At the start of learning a second language, the increase in the L2 motivation level will likely result in an increase in the proficiency level of that language. However, after a certain point, some other factors, limiting factors, might limit the influence of motivation on the L2 learner’s proficiency level. This proposed relationship between motivation and proficiency level is illustrated in Figure 7.2.

More specifically, there is a certain threshold at which L2 motivation is sufficiently high and any further increase in motivation does not result in an increase in proficiency level. This is because other factors are now limiting the further increase in proficiency level rather than the L2 motivation. Examples of such factors could include quality of teaching and exposure to the target language.

It is important to note that the lowest initial motivational score in this study cohort was 53/96 (above 50% of the score), indicating that this cohort comprised of already motivated individuals. Therefore, it is possible that the findings of my research are reflective of motivation levels beyond the saturation point on the curve for motivation versus proficiency level, illustrated by the arrow in Figure 7.2.
Figure 7.2 The Proposed Relationship between Motivation and Proficiency Level

This curve can be considered in three parts (A, B and C). At A as the level of motivation increases, the level of proficiency increases. Point B is the saturation point at which this is no longer the case. At C any further increase in motivation has minimal impact on improving proficiency levels, and other limiting factors become key players in determining proficiency.
Chapter 8: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I summarise some of the main findings of this study in relation to L1 Arab learners’ motivation to learn English and its influence on their proficiency level. Thereafter, I represent the possible limitations of the study and its pedagogical implications and give recommendations for future research. Finally, I explain in this chapter how this study has contributed to the existing literature of L2 motivation and added to it.

8.2 Summary of the Results

8.2.1 Motivation for Learning English in the UK

As discussed in Chapter 2, in the era of Globalization, having an international language as a communication tool between people has become a necessity. English has become the lingua franca to facilitate communication between people from different parts of the world. Arab countries have witnessed a rapid development and internationalisation, especially in the Gulf countries where governments, along with the people, have realized the importance of English as an international language.

The results of this study revealed that L1 Arab learners of English studying in the UK want to enhance their knowledge about English-speaking people and society. However, they by no means want to become a part of the L1 English community, as emphasized by the students during their interviews. Rather, during their interviews, they stressed the fact that they were learning English to become a part of the international community, realizing the importance of English as an international tool of communication (Shaw 1981). This suggests that teaching materials and content of the English language courses should always be geared towards the needs and aspirations of student, for example to what they need the language for. More specifically, English courses’ teaching materials and content should be designed based
on the principles of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) (Evans, Tony and John, 1998). Since students viewed the English language as an international communication tool, courses’ materials and content should feature international domains such as airports, mass media and life in large cities, and it should also include some training in intercultural communication. Alongside developing the English language teaching materials and content, ESP practitioners should be more dynamic in their approach. In other words, they need to keep themselves sentient and updated about the demands of the world, learn to make use of the internet, listen to news channels and watch international movies in order to learn more about the other cultures. This will help ESP teachers to understand their students’ needs for learning English and therefore will assist them to design the appropriate teaching materials and content.

The results led me as a researcher to partially agree with Gardner’s concept of integrative motivation in learning a second language (1985), as presented in Chapters 5 and 6. Gardner in his socio-educational model (1985) claims that an integratively motivated L2 learner likes the language and everything related to that language, such as the society in which the L2 language is spoken in its social situation and people who are using this language. As a final step, the integratively motivated L2 learner would like to integrate with the L2 community and culture. In his model, Gardner claims that the L2 learners’ integration pertains only to the native speaking community neglecting the possibility of integrating with the international community. Students, in this research, showed an interest in learning more about the British culture and native speakers. However, the students neither showed an interest in becoming a part of English society nor expressed their wish to be identified with L1 English speakers during the questionnaire and the interview stages. The students wanted to be part of the international community whose members speak English. Professionally, the students think that speaking English will help them to become a part of the international educated community in general and a part of their local educated community in specific. Pennycook, for example, considers the users of World English as minorities who are at the top of their relative social hierarchies (2002).
The results of this study revealed that the students had a mixture of extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors to learn English. For example, students’ instrumental purposes were centred mainly on job prospects. They were certain that learning English would allow them to have better career prospects and they would therefore have a better lifestyle. In addition, students were fully aware of the importance of English when seeking knowledge.

8.2.2 Change in Students’ Motivation for Learning English

The majority of the students at the start of their English language course at the university showed relatively little confidence in achieving a good proficiency level in English during the interviews (See Chapter 6). However, after the completion of the course, students showed more confidence in speaking English fluently and believed that they had progressed in learning English. This may be because of the teaching style which helped students to progress and improve their English. In addition, living in an English-speaking country and having a daily access to native speakers allowed students to practice their English, which consequently influenced their self-confidence for learning English in a positive way.

The change in students’ motivation for learning English could be accounted for by the interactive nature of the course and activities. When the students first started their course at the university they thought that it was difficult for them to learn English. However, after completion of their course, the students expressed their thoughts that English learning had become easier for them and it was not as difficult as they thought at the beginning of the course. In addition, the change in students’ views could be a result of the appropriateness of tasks selected by the teachers and the way they engaged their students with these tasks.
Students by the end of their English course at the university showed a higher level of instrumental motivation for learning English. This may be because students were near the end of their course and had a stronger feeling of commitment to use their English for instrumental purposes than at the start of the course. Students felt the necessity of passing their final exams at the university, travelling or finding a job by the end of the English course, which increased their level of Instrumentality for learning English.

### 8.2.3 Students’ Motivation and Language Proficiency Level

The results of this study revealed that there was no correlation between students’ L2 motivation for learning English and their proficiency level. Most of the L2 motivation studies have assumed that the language proficiency level is linked to the level of motivation students have towards learning that language. However, the interesting results of this study revealed that L2 motivation and the language proficiency level are uncorrelated. This may be due to the change in the role of L2 motivation over the last few decades. English language learners are mindful of the importance of English in the era of Globalization and therefore they feel that learning English is an obligation rather than an option/choice. Consequently, learning English and the extent to which students are successful in learning it do not depend on the level of motivation students have. Rather, today’s students feel obligated to learn English due to its importance, regardless of how they feel towards learning it.

The traditional role played by motivation in learning a second language seems to have been minimised during the last few decades. The considerations of more important factors such as the teaching style in schools and universities and the openness of some closed countries to the English civilization and lifestyle has limited the influence of motivation on the L2 learning process. The majority of the students were from the Gulf countries, which have witnessed a very rapid development in terms of schooling and openness towards the world.
In addition, potentially one of the main reasons for not finding a correlation between L2 motivation and the proficiency level in this study is the personal differences between students. Some students with more social personalities had more exposure to practising English as a part of friendly interactions, which helped them to improve their English and have better grades. Students had different learning abilities, which made some of them faster learners than others and consequently helped them to gain a higher proficiency level than their classmates, regardless of the type or level of motivation they had.

8.3 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

This research has several limitations. Firstly, it must be noted that the participants recruited to the study did not represent well the targeted study population. Participants who took a part in this study were overwhelmingly from Gulf countries (90.48% of the Participants). These countries have a history and economy, and therefore culture, which is distinct from the Levant countries on the one hand (from which this study had no participants) and North Africa (from which I had a very small percentage, 9.52% of the participants). Future research should be conducted using a geographically more diverse cohort as learners from these latter two areas might produce somewhat different attitudes to learning English than learners from Gulf countries such as in this study.

In addition, future research should employ a more diverse cohort in terms of gender as this study had one female participant only. As it can be seen in this research, the population of the Arab learners studying in the UK is male dominated. The sample of participants in this research can be representative of the type of population expected in future research as Arab learners in the UK tend to be a male dominated. Therefore, employing a more diverse cohort in terms of gender or a female dominated sample might produce different results than a study which employs a male dominated sample as in this study.
In this study, I employed the most popular method for studying motivation in an L2 learning context as recommended by Dörnyei (2001a), the mixed methods paradigm of both questionnaire and interview. Nevertheless, motivation and L2 learning are two complex phenomena that could benefit from further methods of study. These could include classroom observation, along with the qualitative and quantitative methods which would help to capture actual L2 motivated linguistic behavior and to identify any variations in L2 learners’ motivations towards studying their target language.

I attempted to include the most important and well-known motivational orientations for learning a target language in the questionnaire. However, during the interview stage, new and interesting orientations emerged such as English as a Lingua Franca. To improve my study, the inclusion of items in the questionnaire targeting these novel orientations and further probing of them during the interview would have allowed a more fully rounded analysis.

Furthermore, future studies should incorporate interviews with teachers which would give further illustrative insights into students’ behaviour inside the class and their engagement with the class activities. This would also be beneficial to understand students’ L2 motivation to learn their second language and link to their behaviour inside the class.

In addition, the current research was conducted over three months, which was the duration of the English language course offered at the University of Huddersfield (English Skills for University Study, ESUS Course). It would be interesting to see whether the findings of this study hold when investigated over a longer time period, for example a one-year course. Longer time courses may enable temporally dependent relationships to emerge. For example, none of the students had a significant motivational change within this three months period, given a longer period of time, we may be able to detect larger changes. Furthermore, future research should be
conducted using a more diverse cohort of students both in terms of ethnicity and gender.

Finally, although the saturation hypothesis seems to provide a plausible explanation for the results of this research, we would need to test this hypothesis in further studies. This can be achieved by assessing the relationship between motivation levels and proficiency levels in a cohort with overall low levels of L2 motivation, using the overall motivation score (out of 96) devised in my research. According to the saturation hypothesis, we would expect to find a positive correlation between level of motivation and improvement in proficiency level in this cohort.

Along similar lines, a sister hypothesis to the Saturation hypothesis relates to a proficiency-level threshold, rather than a motivation-level threshold. That is to say, there may be a certain level of proficiency that once attained, is no longer improved with increases in motivation. Since the students in my current research cohort were participants in a Foundation English course, their baseline level of proficiency was not so advanced for this hypothesis to apply. However, this is an area to be further explored in future studies by comparing motivation levels and proficiency levels in cohorts that have a low baseline proficiency, and a high baseline proficiency. In addition, if the Saturation hypothesis and Proficiency hypothesis seem to hold true after conducting these additional experiments, we would then try to determine the exact nature and location of these saturation points, and examine any interactions between them.
8.4 Contribution to Knowledge and Implications

The current study contributes significantly to the existing literature on L2 motivation in the following ways:

1. The redefinition of integrative motivation: This study redefines the role of integrative motivation in second language learning. Even though the students in this study would like to know more about English people, they are by no means interested in becoming a part of the English community. Rather, they showed a very strong interest in becoming a part of the international community and in their view learning English is a tool to achieve this goal. The study recognises English as a world property which no longer belongs to its native speakers only. This suggests that future studies in L2 motivation should amend questionnaire items to take into account this new definition of the integrative motivation.

2. This study revises the role of motivation in second language learning. It refutes the common belief in literature that L2 motivation is an ultimate key factor in learning a second language and broke the links between L2 motivation and students’ proficiency level. It adds to knowledge different results compared to the studies conducted in late 20th and early 21st centuries (Lightbown and Spada 1999; Dörnyei, 2001a). The findings suggest new factors have become more dominant and a corresponding decline in the role of motivation in learning a second language. They point to factors which have a greater impact on learning a second language and are more effective in determining L2 learners’ rate of improvement level than L2 motivation. Factors such as teachers, style of teaching, educational background and personal abilities appear to be more effective factors in learning a second language than the L2 Motivation. The traditional concept of L2 Motivation as a key factor in determining success and failure in learning an L2 needs to be reconsidered. The traditional motivational factors such as attitudes towards native speakers and language are not the driving forces for 21st century students to learn a language. For example, this study showed how students were learning English
because it is the international language which is spoken globally, and therefore, according to them, they must learn it.

It should be noted though that L2 motivation can be a key factor when learning, for example, Arabic, Vietnamese or Turkish languages, but not when learning English. English language has a unique place among languages as it is the international language spoken globally and therefore its learners feel that they must learn it. This unique quality of the English language is a sufficient reason for non-native speakers to learn the language. Therefore, the irrelevance of the L2 motivation to the proficiency level in English might apply to the English language only.

3. This research thus confirms the importance of English as a second language. English is not just a second language people want to learn because they like it: it is a tool they need in order to survive and thrive in the 21st century and a key to becoming a member of the international community. There are signs, for instance, that in the last 20 years or so, the idea that English belongs to the world and not only to its natives has been adopted even in countries whose first language is spoken by many millions and which itself has aspirations to international status. At the 2018 World Cup in Russia, for example, the announcements were mostly in English rather than in Russian. Furthermore, French speakers in public contexts, even those representing an official French body, are now happy to be heard speaking English, whereas before they would insist on using French (Kachru 2009).

English is currently a Lingua Franca (ELF) which is used all over the world. Barbara Seidlhofer explains the importance and spread of English as a Lingua Franca among non-native speakers, “In recent years, the term ‘English as a lingua franca’ (ELF) has emerged as a way of referring to communication in English
between speakers with different first languages. Since roughly only one out of every four users of English in the world is a native speaker of the language, most ELF interactions take place among ‘non-native’ speakers of English” (2005, p 339). It is an acknowledged fact that there are more non-native speakers of English than native speakers (Mansoor, 2005; Kachru, 2009). The Arab students in my sample were aware of this fact and that is why they wanted to learn English and identify themselves with the international English-speaking community rather than the British community.

It should be noted that the rapid socio-economic improvements the Arab region has witnessed has increased its people’s awareness of the importance of English in today’s globalized world. Therefore governments in the Arab world have worked hard to indigenize English in the Arab countries as a second language taught in schools from the early stages. Although researchers have always focused on understanding Arab learners’ motivation towards learning English, they have not paid much attention to studying the shift in integrative motivation. In this study, Arab learners of English demonstrated the shift in integrative motivation towards learning English. They showed a huge interest in integrating themselves into the international community and showed no interest in integrating into the English native speakers’ community. Findings of this research on the importance of English as a global language is not confined to the L1 Arab learners of English who took part in this research. It potentially affects all EL2 learners around the world. Therefore, future studies should take into consideration the effect of the peculiar position English has as an international language on EL2 learners’ motivation towards learning English.

4. The clearest contribution of this study to L2 motivation theory is the proposition of the Saturation Hypothesis. Most of the theories in L2 motivation research suggest that the more motivated the L2 learners, the more successful they are in learning
their target language (Gardner 1985). Common sense might suggest the same; however, the findings of this study suggest that focusing on learners’ motivation level is not the only factor in determining their proficiency level. The Saturation Hypothesis suggests that initially there is a positive correlation between the learners’ motivation and their proficiency level, until a certain point at which L2 motivation is sufficiently high and any further increase in motivation would not result in an increase in proficiency level. It suggests that other factors might limit the further increase in proficiency level aside from L2 motivation. Therefore, L2 motivation research should consider other factors such as the quality of teaching and exposure to the target language when studying the relationship between L2 motivation and the proficiency level.

In addition, the Saturation Hypothesis suggests that English language teachers need to bring changes to their teaching methods. Teachers should understand their students’ motivation in order to efficiently deliver their English course and employ their teaching methods. This might include conducting one to one sessions with the students to determine how motivated they are towards learning their target language. This will help determine whether teachers need to apply motivating methods during the English course to increase their students’ motivation or not. If the students are already highly motivated the focus should be more on other factors which might help increase the students’ proficiency such as the teaching style and exposure to the target language and less on motivating the students.
8.5 Conclusion

With increasing globalization, English has garnered increasing recognition as the Lingua Franca for communication in academic, business and even social settings internationally. This changing nature in the role of English is reflected by the variety of reasons that students in this research had for learning English. These included travelling around the world, working in international companies and/or making international friends. This research highlights the importance for ELT educators to design curricula with these reasons in mind and to more closely align the curricula with the needs of international English Language Learners. For example, in order to prepare students for international settings, the curricula should educate students about different cultures from around the world, rather than focusing solely on EL1 culture.

The findings showed that of the multiple factors which motivate L1 Arab students to learn English, the first among them are the interest in foreign languages and instrumental motivation such as finding a job and passing exams. In addition, this research has introduced a new definition of integrativeness. The traditional concept of integrativeness states that the L2 student learns English because they have a positive attitude towards the native speakers or want to be a part of the native community. This was not reflected in the research as the students were learning English to become a part of the international community (whose members speak English).

Students at the start of the English course had less confidence in learning English due to perceptions of English being a difficult language to master, however, their perceptions and consequently confidence changed and progressed by the end of the English course. The majority of students in this research cohort improved their proficiency, as determined by comparing their final exam results with their initial exam results. This research aimed to explore whether proficiency levels, and improvements in proficiency were linked to the students’ motivational levels, and the different motivational factors.
Surprisingly, the data collected in this research showed no correlation between students’ L2 motivation and their proficiency level. Different facets of motivation and proficiency were explored by comparing students’ initial, final and change in motivation scores with their entry, final and change in exam results. However, no statistically significant correlation was found in these comparisons. This unexpected finding could be accounted for by several factors. It is possible that due to the small sample size (42 students), the study was unable to detect small effects that could be present in the relationship between motivation and proficiency. Another factor could relate to the measurement of the students’ motivation which only occurred at two time points during the 3 month English course, at the start and at the end of the course. If the relationship between motivation and proficiency level is complex, measurements at only two time points may have been insufficient to capture the intricacies of the relationship. Finally, it is important to note that all students started at a relatively high baseline in terms of motivation levels, as determined by their overall motivation score (out of 96). All students at the start of the English course had an overall motivation score that was above 50% of the total score. This was already a highly motivated student cohort. Taking this into account, I propose the Saturation Hypothesis.

The Saturation Hypothesis suggests that there is a certain threshold at which the students’ L2 motivation is sufficiently high such that any further increase in motivation does not result in an increase in proficiency level. Future work will look into this hypothesis by assessing the relationship between motivation levels and proficiency levels in a cohort with low levels of overall baseline L2 motivation. According to this hypothesis, we would expect to find a positive correlation between level of motivation and improvement in proficiency level in this cohort.

In summary, this research has explored the different motivational factors that drive Arab students learning English as a second language, gaining insights into methods that could improve current teaching practices and curricula. For a group of already highly motivated individuals, increasing motivation does not seem to be able to
predict proficiency levels or improvement in proficiency. However, further studies need to be carried out to unravel the true nature of L2 motivation and proficiency.

Undertaking a PhD has been an emotional as well as an intellectual endeavour. During my PhD and because of the nature of my PhD research topic in L2 motivation, I was involved in collecting data from second language learners to understand their motivations towards learning English in the UK. This direct contact with English language learners has heightened my sensitivity to the second language learning concept. Conducting research has improved my skills on both a personal and academic level. On the personal level, it has improved my organisational, communication, and problem solving skills. Overcoming the difficulties I faced during my PhD has prepared me on an individual level to face any situation in my life confidently. In addition, it has broadened my academic skills and critical thinking abilities.

The challenges I faced in teaching myself how to collect data and analyse them helped me develop myself as an independent learner. Being a second language learner myself and a teacher, I always wanted to understand the different factors involved in determining my own as well as other L2 learners’ proficiency level in particular with regards to an individual’s motivation. Conducting this research helped me as an L2 learner and a teacher to understand better the second language learning process and therefore better understand students’ and teachers’ perspectives on teaching and learning a second language. My PhD is best described as a journey, one that reflects the peaks and troughs of a mountain, and one which I enjoyed and learnt from every step.
Appendix 1: 1- Questionnaire 1 (English Version)

Arab learners’ Attitude, Motivation and Orientation Questionnaire
(English Version)

PURPOSE

I am researching the motivation and attitudes of Arabic learners studying the English language. To do this, I need to find out how you truly feel about learning English, (it is about learning English in general). The questionnaire is not anonymous so please write your name down. Your teachers will never see your answers and none of your personal information will be disclosed to any person. Please be advised that you are completely free to decline to participate in this study and withdraw at any time.

Please, circle the appropriate response:

1- I am willing to participate in the questionnaire: (a) Yes          (b) No
2- I am willing to participate in the interview*: (a) Yes           (b) No
3- I am willing to contribute to research by allowing my English Skills for University Study (ESUS) grades to be made available to the researcher: (a) Yes           (b) No

*If you are willing to participate in both the interview and questionnaire stages, please provide me with your contact details:

Your Name:……………………………………
Your Email address:………………………………
Your Mobile number:………………………………
Your Signature:…………………………

Instructions:

Kindly read the questions carefully, and then check ONE box (the box that best describes how you feel). There are no right or wrong answers —I am interested only in your orientation towards studying English and your motivation and attitude towards learning the English language. Kindly answer as accurately as possible and use the scale below to answer the questions.
EXAMPLE:

“I like cars”

- - +
- - + +
- - + +
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly disagree disagree disagree agree agree agree

I. Now, please read carefully the sentences below. Then, choose ONE box that best describes how you feel.

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<td>2. If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master English.</td>
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<td>3. I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.</td>
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<td>4. I like English films.</td>
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<td>5. I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.</td>
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<td>8. I really enjoy learning English.</td>
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II. Studying English is important to me…

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<td>because I may need it later on for job/studies.</td>
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<td>because I would like to spend some time abroad.</td>
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<td>because I would like to meet foreigners with whom I can speak English.</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>so that I can be a more knowledgeable person.</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and peoples and learn more about what is happening in the world.</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>I enjoy working hard.</td>
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III. Finally, please complete these few personal questions.

17. Underline which sex you are: (a) Male (b) Female

18. Where are you from?

19. How many foreign languages do you speak beside Arabic? Please name the languages you speak.

20. Where did you receive your school education? (a) Private school (b) Public school

Thank you for your cooperation 😊
2- Questionnaire 1 (Arabic Version)

استبيان موقف المتعلمين العربي – الحافز والهدف
(النسخة العربية)

الغة:

أنا أقوم بأجراه بحث يتضمن معرفة دوافع ومواقف المتعلمين العرب الذين يدرسون في المملكة المتحدة تجاه اللغة الإنجليزية. للقيام بذلك، أنا بحاجة لمعرفة كيف تشعر حقاً تجاه تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية في المملكة المتحدة، (البحث يمحور حول تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل عام). الأستبيان ليس مجهول المصدر (يرجى كتابة اسمك على الورقة)، كما يرجى إعطاء إجابات صادقة. مدرسيكم الخاصين لن يطلعوا على إجاباتكم.

أيضاً، كما أن معلوماتك الشخصية لن تعرض على أي شخص. يرجى أخذ العلم بأن أنت حر تماماً في رفض المشاركة في هذه الدراسة والانسحاب في أي وقت.

من فضلك، ضع علامة دائرة على الرد المناسب:

1- أنا على استعداد للمشاركة في الاستبيان: (أ) نعم (ب) لا
2- وأنا على استعداد للمشاركة في المقابلة: * (أ) نعم (ب) لا

إذا كنت على استعداد للمشاركة في كل من مراحل المقابلة والاستبيان، يرجى تزويدي بتفاصيل الاتصال الخاصة بك:

اسمك:

عنوان بريدك الإلكتروني:

رقم هاتفك:

توقيعك:

تعليمات:

يرجى قراءة الأسئلة بدقة ومن ثم أختار أجابه واحدة (المربع الذي يصف أفضل ما تشعر به). لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة. أنا مهتم فقط في توجيهكم الخاص نحو دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية والدافع الخاص بكم والموقف تجاه تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. يرجى الإجابة بأكبر قدر ممكن من الدقة واستخدام الجدول أدناه للإجابة على الأسئلة.
مثال:

"أنا أحب السيارات«

- - + + - + +
أوافق بشدة أوافق باعتذال أوافق جزئياً لا أوافق جزئياً لا أوافق باعتذال لا أوافق بشدة

الآن، يرجى قراءة الجمل أدناه بعناية. ثم اختر مربع واحد والذي يوصف شعورك تماماً

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<td>أنتمي لو ألي أستطيع تعلم العديد من اللغات الأجنبية.</td>
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<td>أنا وافق أنني سوف أتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية إذا أدركت المزيد من الجهد.</td>
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<td>اعتبر اللغة الإنجليزية مهمة لأن أشخاص احترمني يعتقدون أنه يجب على تعلمها.</td>
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<td>أحب الأفلام الإنجليزية.</td>
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<td>استطيع أن أتخيل نفسى أتكلم اللغة الإنجليزية وكتابة لغتي الأم.</td>
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<td>أنا على اطلاع مستمر على اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال العمل عليها كل يوم تقريبا.</td>
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10. لأنهني قد احتاج إليها في وقت لاحق من أجل وضعية دراسات.

11. لأنهني أود أن قضاء بعض الوقت في الخارج.

12. لأنهني أود أن أقوي الأجانب الذين يمكنني أن أحدث باللغة الإنجليزية معهم.

13. لأنها تساعد في أن يكون الشخص على دراية أكبر.

14. لأنها سوف تمكنني من معرفة مختلف الثقافات والشعوب ومعرفة المزيد حول ما يجري في العالم.

15. دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية أمر مهم لأنها سوف تمكنني من فهم أفضل نمط الحياة الإنجليزية وتقبلها.

16. أنا أكره القيام ب الأعمال السللة.

أخيراً، يرجى ملء هذه الأسئلة الشخصية:

هل أنت: (أ) ذكر (ب) أنثى.

من أين أنت؟.

كم عدد اللغات الأجنبية التي تتكلمها بجانب اللغة العربية؟ يرجى تسمية اللغات التي تتكلمها.

أين تلقبت التعليم المدرسي الخاص بك؟ (أ) المدارس الخاصة (ب) المدارس العامة.

شكراً لكم لتعاونكم.
Appendix 2: 1- Questionnaire 2 (English Version)

Arab learners’ Attitude, Motivation and Orientation Questionnaire
(English Version)

PURPOSE

I am researching the motivation and attitudes of Arabic learners studying the English language. To do this, I need to find out how you truly feel about learning English, (it is about learning English in general). The questionnaire is not anonymous so please write your name down. Your teachers will never see your answers and none of your personal information will be disclosed to any person. Please be advised that you are completely free to decline to participate in this study and withdraw at any time.

Please, circle the appropriate response:

1- I am willing to participate in the questionnaire: (a) Yes (b) No
2- I am willing to participate in the interview*: (a) Yes (b) No
3- I am willing to contribute to research by allowing my English Skills for University Study (ESUS) grades to be made available to the researcher: (a) Yes (b) No

*If you are willing to participate in both the interview and questionnaire stages, please provide me with your contact details:

Your Name:……………………………………
Your Email address:…………………………
Your Mobile number:…………………………
Your Signature:…………………………

Instructions:

Kindly read the questions carefully, and then check ONE box (the box that best describes how you feel). There are no right or wrong answers —I am interested only in your orientation towards studying English and your motivation and attitude towards learning the English language. Kindly answer as accurately as possible and use the scale below to answer the questions.
EXAMPLE:

“I like cars”

- - - + + +
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
disagree disagree disagree agree agree agree

IV. Now, please read carefully the sentences below. Then, choose ONE box that best describes how you feel.

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<td>1</td>
<td>wish I could speak many foreign languages perfectly.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master English.</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>I like English films.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.</td>
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V. **Studying English is important to me...**

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<td>15</td>
<td>Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I hate to do a job with less than my best effort.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VI. Finally, please complete these few personal questions.

17 Underline which sex you are: (a) Male (b) Female

18 Where are you from?

19 How many foreign languages do you speak beside Arabic? Please name the languages you speak.

20 Where did you receive your school education? (a) Private school (b) Public school

Thank you for your cooperation ☺
استبيان موقف المتعلم: العرب, الحافز والهدف
(النسخة العربية)

الغايّة:
أنا أقوم بأجراء بحث يتضمن معرفة دوافع ومواقف المتعلمين العرب الذين يدرسون في المملكة المتحدة تجاه اللغة الإنجليزية. للقيام بذلك، أنا بحاجة لمعرفة كيف تشعر متعلماً ما تجاه تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية في المملكة المتحدة، (البحث يتحرّر حول تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل عام). الاستبيان ليس مجهول المصدر (يرجى كتابة اسمك على الورقة)، كما يرجى إعطاء إجابات صادقة. مدرسيكم الخاصين لينطلعوا على إجاباتكم
أبداً، كما أن معلوماتك الشخصية لن تعرض على أي شخص. يرجى أخذ العلم بأن أنت حر تماماً في رفض المشاركة في هذه الدراسة والانسحاب في أي وقت.

من فضلك، ضع علامة دائرة على الرد المناسب:
1- أنا على استعداد للمشاركة في الاستبيان: (أ) نعم (ب) لا
2- أنا على استعداد للمشاركة في المقابلة: (أ) نعم (ب) لا

إذا كنت على استعداد للمشاركة في كل من مراحل المقابلة والاستبيان، يرجى تزويدنا بتفاصيل الاتصال الخاصة بك:

اسمك:

عنوان بريدك الإلكتروني:

رقم هاتفك:

توقيعك:

تعليمات:
يرجى قراءة الأسئلة بدقة، ومن ثم أختار أجابتهما واحدة (المربع الذي يصف أفضل ما تشعر به). لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة. أنا مهتم فقط في توجيهكم الخاص نحو دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية والدافع الخاص بك والموافق تجاه تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. يرجى الإجابة بأكبر قدر ممكن من الدقة واستخدام الجدول أدناه للإجابة على الأسئلة.
مثال:
"أنا أحب السيارات،" 

لا أوافق تشذج 
لا أوافق تأعتذال 
لا أوافق جزئيا 
أوافق جزئيا 
أوافق تأعتذال 
أوافق

فيما يلي، يرجى قراءة الجمل أدناه بعناية. ثم اختار مربع واحد والذي يوصف شعورك تماما:

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>ألمني لو آني أستطيع تكلم العديد من اللغات الأجنبية</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>إذا وافق أنا سوف أتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية بإتقان إذا بدلت المزيد من الجهد</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>أعتبر اللغة الإنجليزية مهمة لأن أشخاص أحترموه يعتقدون أنه يجب على تعلمها</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>أحب الأفلام الإنجليزية</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>أستطيع أن أتخيل نفسي تكلم اللغة الإنجليزية وكأنها لغتي الأم</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>أشعر بالسعادة عند سماع اللغة الإنجليزية</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>أنا على اطلاع مستمر على اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال العمل عليها كل يوم تقريبا</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>أستمتع بتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>البريطانيون هم شعب لطيف</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية مهمة لي......
لأنني قد احتاج إليها في وقت لاحق من أجل وظيفة / دراسات 10.
لأنني أود أن تقضاء بعض الوقت في الخارج 11.
لأنني أود أن أتحدث باللغة الإنجليزية معهم 12.
لأنها تساعد في أن يكون الشخص على دراية أكبر 13.
لأنها سوف تمكنني من معرفة مختلف الثقافات والشعوب ومعرفة المزيد حول ما يجري في العالم 14.
دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية أمر مهم لأنها سوف تمكنني من فهم أفضل نمط الحياة الإنجليزية 15.
إذا أكره القيام ب الأعمال السهلة 16.

وأخيراً، برجى ملء هذه الأسئلة الشخصية:

هل أنت: (أ) ذكر (ب) أنثى 17.
من أين أنت؟ 18.
كم عدد اللغات الأجنبية التي تتكلمنها بجانب اللغة العربية؟ برجى تسمية اللغات التي تتكلمنها 19.
أين تلقيت التعليم المدرسي الخاص بك؟ (أ) المدارس الخاصة (ب) المدارس العامة 20.

شكرا لكم لتعاونكم :)
Bibliography


