

EXPLORING THE SPECTRUM OF MOTIVATION IN SECOND LANGUAGE
SETTINGS:
IDENTIFYING AND EVALUATING NEW FORMS OF
MOTIVATION IN COLLEGE FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES

BY

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ABSTRACT

The main objectives of this study were: to determine if college students in foreign language classes had more external motivation than internal motivation; to investigate the strength of motivation in college foreign language settings; to determine differences in primary-goal motivation (PGM) and in secondary-goal motivation (SGM) in college foreign language settings.

This study also examined the validity and reliability of the newly-created motivational constructs via the Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses (MCFLC) questionnaire designed for the purposes of this study. The general research implications of the study were: defining and evaluating the different constructs of motivation in college foreign language settings.

For the purposes of this research, I created, pilot-tested, and administered the MCFLC survey to college foreign language students during 2010 – 2011 school year. I used randomly selected responses from a total of 60 participants in beginning and advanced Spanish (as a foreign language) classes. The MCFLC consisted of 51 items and included a demographic section (8 items) and motivation scales (43 items). The motivation section was comprised of four different motivational categories, five different scales measuring different components of motivation, and an index linked to future foreign language acquisition goals.

The research findings demonstrated decisively the validity and reliability of the motivational concepts. The results also confirmed that primary-goal and secondary-goal motivation manifested at the significant level in college foreign

language environment. The results of the study also indicated explicitly that college students in advanced foreign language classes had higher levels of motivation to gain foreign language skills (MGFLS); and learners with more MGFLS at both levels of foreign language acquisition seemed to be more willing to continue their foreign language education than the rest of their peers. Furthermore, all of the participants displayed higher levels of PGM than of SGM, and participants in the advanced group had more SGM than their fellow students in the beginning group. Finally, the research findings added to the understanding of motivation in second language, and substantiated further examination of new motivational constructs and questionnaire in future studies on motivation in the field of second language acquisition.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

One of the main purposes of this study was to explore new kinds of motivation and their effects in foreign language (FL) courses at the college level. The study focused primarily on whether: 1) college students in FL classes were likely to have more secondary-goal than primary-goal types of motivation; 2) the possible relationships exist between certain kinds of motivation and students' willingness to pursue their language studies further; 3) significant differences could be observed between different levels of FL acquisition in terms of specific types of motivation (e.g., primary-goal vs. secondary-goal) and levels of motivation (e.g., higher vs. lower). (For the purposes of this research, the meanings of FL and second language terms were used interchangeably, unless they refer specifically to identify different target language learning environments.)

In order to delve into the specific aspects of this research study, it was necessary to examine research that assessed various factors of motivation in foreign language education. Foreign-language learning is a complex phenomena composed of many different internal and external factors. Second-language acquisition (SLA) scholars, such as Ellis (2008), Brown (2004), and Larsen-Freeman (1997), thought that second language (L2) learning could not be explained by using one single approach, but rather by looking at L2 acquisition through a holistic prism consisting of a number of different perspectives. However, this was not an argument for SLA

researchers to abandon looking for the particular venues in their studies. Larsen-Freeman (1997) emphasized that scholars in the field still needed to analyze separate parts of L2 learning while keeping in mind the bigger SLA picture. One of the primary areas of research in the field is the role of motivation in language acquisition, specifically the influence of educators on foreign-language learners. In general, MacIntyre (2002) concluded that “questions about motivation tend to address two issues: (1) why is behavior directed toward a specific goal, and (2) what determines the intensity or effort invested in pursuing the goal” (p.46).

The significance that motivation plays in L2 learning has interested SLA scholars for over half a century. Many of them consider motivation in L2 acquisition as one of the determining variables in successful L2 acquisition. In effect, researchers (Gardner and Lambert, 1972) in the field sought to understand what motivation means in language acquisition and how it affects students’ learning experience. Dörnyei (2005) described the undeniable impact of motivation on second language acquisition: “It is easy to see why motivation is of great importance in SLA: It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process” (p. 65). For him, “all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent” (p. 65). In other words, FL learning is different from other academic fields because it requires regular amounts of effort and endurance in order to become proficient in L2.

Not surprisingly, Dörnyei (2005) concluded that,

Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-

term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions ... (p. 65).

In light of the fact that motivation could be viewed as a largely unobservable phenomena (i.e., motivation has been measured through observing related phenomena, such as the amount of time spent on learning the language, Gardner, 1985), motivation theories in the SLA field have been influenced largely by the theories from the field of psychology. Gardner (Gardner, 1985), Dörnyei and Csizér (2002), Noels, Pelletier, and Vallerand (2000), and other SLA scholars created or adopted various psychological-measurement instruments (Gardner's AMTB) in order to assess FL students' motivation for learning the target language.

Over the years, SLA scholars have demonstrated that a strong link exists between students' motivation and language acquisition. Gardner and Lambert (1972; 1959) could be credited with the pioneering research that examined the role of motivation in FL learning. The results of the studies conducted by Gardner and Lambert showed a strong correlation between motivation and the L2 proficiency. Specifically, Gardner and Lambert (1972) argued that "integrative motivation" (i.e., motivation to learn language to become similar to speakers of the target language) was strongly related to a learner's rate of "achievement" in L2.

Other studies that followed in the footsteps of Gardner and Lambert's mostly confirmed the results of their original work (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). In fact, since its inception, Gardner (1985) and his colleagues (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003;

Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & Smythe, 1981) found strong correlations between L2 *achievement* in language learning and *integrative motivation*. For Gardner, language learners with integrative motivation were likely to have higher chances of achievement in learning another language than learners with “instrumental motivation.” For them, *instrumental motivation* referred to learning the FL with instrumental orientation, such as using the target language in a future career. Gardner (1985; Gardner, Glicksman, and Smythe, 1978) could be credited also as the first among SLA researchers to formulate the theoretical framework for motivation – Social-Educational Model – in L2 learning. Gardner (1985) also designed a psychometric questionnaire – the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) – used to assess the relationship between various motivational variables and achievement in second language acquisition.

Despite the fact that a number of studies (Gardner, 1985) demonstrated positive results tying integrative motivation to successful L2 acquisition, other studies (Crookes & Schmidt; 1991; Dörnyei, 1990; Au, 1988; Oller, 1981; Lukmani, 1972) indicated possible issues with Gardner’s concepts and claims. In the latter studies, the scholars found: a lack of generalizability (e.g., acquiring the target language in L2 vs. FL environment) of Gardner’s claims (Dörnyei, 1990); issues with the validity and reliability of the AMTB (Au, 1988); and an inconsistency in obtaining higher results for “integrativeness” over instrumental motivation (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Lukmani, 1972). Nevertheless, a wide literature review of studies that used AMTB (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003) showed that integrativeness

was correlated with a higher probability of achievement in L2 learning. Even though his concepts and assertions are still being debated, Gardner was instrumental in opening the discussion on motivation in SLA. Specifically, Gardner's assertions helped to foster further research of motivation in L2 learning.

In fact, SLA researchers such as Dörnyei (2005; 2000; 1994b), Noels, Clément, and Pelletier (2000) adopted other motivational concepts from other fields of study to describe further phenomenon of motivation in L2 acquisition. For instance, Dörnyei (1994b) hypothesized that since acquisition of another language takes place in different language-learning environments (L2 versus FL learning environments), researchers might not arrive at the same results when assessing motivation of language learners. In his other works, Dörnyei (Dörnyei, 2000; Dörnyei and Ótto, 1998) thought that the theoretical agenda for motivation in SLA should include an appraisal of motivation as a "process" taking place on several levels: "preactional," "actional," and "postactional".

Likewise, Noels et al. (2001; 2000) chose to incorporate the Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; 1985) in an attempt to capture other aspects (e.g., travel) of motivational variations in SLA not explicitly researched by Gardner and his associates. For her, motivation in SLA should not be classified only as either instrumental or integrative, but rather as "intrinsic" and "extrinsic" types of motivation. *Intrinsic motivation* could be described as being motivated to do something for its own sake (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Extrinsic motivation (somewhat similar to instrumental motivation) describes motivation in learning language for

reasons other than the “pure” enjoyment of learning the L2 (Noels et al., 2000). For Deci and Ryan (1985), several different types of extrinsic motivation existed on the continuum of “internalization” and “integration.” The more people identify with their goals, the more extrinsic motivation becomes *internalized* and *integrated*. In fact, Noels et al., (2001) thought that in some ways integrative motivation was similar to intrinsic motivation. For example, Gardner’s integrative motivation could be interpreted as an *identified* extrinsic motivation (Noels et al, 2001). In this sense, if an individual desires to learn the L2 in order to communicate with native speakers, he or she could be said to have an extrinsic goal that is internalized. However, integrative motivation could be similar to intrinsic motivation based on how the person approaches the L2 learning.

Aside from the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and the Socio-Educational Model (SEM), scholars in the field of SLA also looked at how other socio-cognitive theories related to self-assessment (MacIntyre, Noels, Clément, 1997), anxiety (Horwitz, 2001) and self-confidence (Clément, Dörnyei, Noels, 1994). These and other concepts (e.g. learning strategies, previous success, etc.) were linked to motivation in SLA. In addition, between many other factors and motivation in SLA are yet to be explored.

Provided that human motivation (in a general sense) may be influenced by both affective and cognitive factors (e.g. anxiety, interest, appeal, external/internal benefits, expectation of success/failure, self-efficacy, self-confidence, ability/lack of environmental control, and the list goes on), one can only imagine a great number of

various factor combinations that may affect the motivational state of an individual learner. Thus, the consensus on what constitutes motivation remains yet to be reached, and an all-encompassing motivation theory is yet to be formulated.

At the same time, the primary objective of any such motivation theory would need to take into account the dynamic nature of language and the fluid interrelationship of its parts (Csizér, Kormos, & Sarkadi, 2010; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 1997). In the meantime, addressing all possible variables that shape motivation in FL learning is beyond the scope of this dissertation. Instead, this dissertation focuses on certain factors of motivation in FL learning while taking into consideration *the bigger picture* of L2 acquisition.

Purpose of the Study

This study had several goals. The main objectives of this study were the following: 1) to determine if college students in FL classes have more secondary-goal types of motivation than primary-goal types of motivation; 2) to investigate possible links between the higher levels of some types of motivation in FL learning and students' willingness to pursue L2 acquisition; 3) to examine if significant differences existed in specific types and levels of motivation (e.g., primary-goal vs. secondary-goal types of motivation) between different language acquisition levels of college students.

Along with those goals, this study also examined the validity and reliability of the motivational constructs and the questionnaire, all of which were created,

tested, and put into effect for the first time in this study. In general, the study sought to define and evaluate new forms of motivation in foreign-language learning. The general pedagogical implications of the study were: to understand different types of motivation college students might have in FL courses; and to suggest particular strategies (ensuing from the study's results) that might help FL instructors to encourage their students to be more motivated in learning the target language. The study also hoped to add the newly-formulated constructs and the instrument to the field of SLA.

The survey was administered (after two independent pilot studies) to 74 participants. After collecting data, I selected randomly the responses from the total of 60 students enrolled in beginning and advanced foreign language courses. The questionnaire included the demographic section and motivation scales composed of the questions pertaining to primary-goal and secondary-goal types of motivation. The demographic section consisted of eight descriptive items, such as: academic standing, college major, the amount of time spent learning the language, age, gender, time spent in the target language country, and preferences for teaching.

The motivational scales measured different types of motivation, various components of the main motivational categories, as well as the willingness to continue learning a FL. The motivation section was composed of 40 response items with the measurements based on a four-point Likert scale. In turn, 40 items were sub-grouped into five motivational indices and the four motivation subcategories that corresponded to the equivalent number of major motivational constructs in the study.

Along with the motivation measurement categories, the Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses (MCFLC) questionnaire also included three items related to the students' desire to continue FL learning. Here are examples of some of the questions that were included in the motivational sections.

In order to assess a primary-goal type of motivation (e.g., appreciative primary-goal motivation), one of the questions was phrased as "I am learning Spanish because it is fun." Or, to determine a secondary-goal type of motivation (e.g., facilitative secondary-goal motivation) levels, another question was formulated as "I am studying Spanish to use it in my future career." The outcomes of the survey were analyzed using several statistical methods including descriptive statistics, t-tests, and correlation. The analysis section of the study also reported on the reliability of the motivation measurement elements.

Research Questions

Several research questions are posed and tested in this study. They are, as follows:

Question 1

Do college learners in more advanced foreign-language courses have higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than the learners who are in beginning language courses?

Question 2

Are college students in beginning and advanced foreign language courses with higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of

motivation likely to express a willingness to continue their foreign-language learning?

Question 3

Do college students at both the beginning and advanced levels of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than primary-goal motivation?

Question 4

Do college students at the beginning level of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than students at the advanced level?

Statement of the Problem

Motivating students to succeed in acquiring the target language, whether by initiating or maintaining the motivation, may be one of the most important aspects of an instructor's work. While this does not imply that educators are solely responsible for motivating students, teachers undoubtedly can help students to be motivated in academia. Furthermore, many studies in the field of SLA (Dörnyei, 2007; 2005; 2001) affirm the necessity of understanding motivation as it applies to L2 learning. As a result, it is advantageous for FL educators and researchers to understand what motivates L2 learners at different language acquisition levels.

At the same time, "we are all responsible for understanding as much as we can how to create contexts for optimal acquisition among learners" (Brown, 2004, p. 309). This research study attempted to make its own contribution in explaining particular aspects of motivation in language learning at the college level. SLA

scholars (Dörnyei, 2005; Noels et al., 2001; Gardner, 2000) have maintained that types of motivation with some sort of internal attachment to language learning objectives (e.g., integrative, intrinsic) are more effective in the attainment of L2 proficiency. In an ideal situation, students enroll in language classes because they are internally motivated. They take language classes because they like to communicate in a new language or perhaps they like to learn it as a new subject. However, one does not rule out the fact that students may enroll in FL courses because they are required to do so. At many colleges across the nation, students are often required to take a certain number of FL credits as part of their degree requirements.

The motivational context may be different for students who take foreign language classes because they plan to choose FL studies as their majors or minors. But, can one argue with absolute certainty that those students are internally motivated? What about FL learners who are motivated to acquire L2 in order to use it for their career or travel purposes – are they internally motivated? A nationwide survey conducted by the Modern Language Association of America (MLA) with the support of the U.S. Department of Education found considerable increases in enrollment in FL courses at U.S. colleges and universities. According to the MLA survey's results, college student enrollment in FL classes was growing since 1998, and was at its highest point (in 2006) since MLA started measuring enrollment in the 1960s.

The outcomes of the survey indicated that, despite the increase in the number of students enrolled in beginning FL courses, the lion's share of them chose not to continue FL education beyond the introductory classes. Interestingly, the survey outcomes pointed out that the FL classes with the highest level of enrollment in 2006 was Arabic with the increase of 127%, and Chinese with an increase of 51%. Would it be reasonable to attribute these increases to the prevalence of external types of motivation? What about the majority of students stopping short of going beyond the beginning level of language courses? Would it be logical to assume that all of the above factors could be interpreted as external motivation?

The aforementioned reasons for taking FL courses might explain why many students decided to take FL courses at the college level, and those reasons might be classified as external motivation. However, this is not to say that external types of motivation have stronger correlations with L2 learning than internal types of motivation or that external types of motivation are more predictive of the FL proficiency than internal types of motivation. Based on my personal experience, I take it for granted that I am more motivated while engaging in an enjoyable activity than when I do not find an activity enjoyable. However, taking part in such an activity may be considered an ideal scenario. This scenario may not be practical in typical college settings where FL courses are offered.

As one may gather from the previous discussion, students tend to make their decisions about studying a foreign language based largely on *secondary-goal* or external types of reasons rather than *primary-goal* or internal type of reasons. But, is

it necessarily ‘bad’ for students to be motivated externally when it comes to learning a foreign language? Are secondary-goal forms of motivation less effective in L2 acquisition? The answer is affirmative for both questions if we perceive motivation as an *either or* construct. However, one of the premises of the study was to approach the description and assessment of the construct of motivation in FL learning on a continuum, – where certain types of motivation applied to individual language learners in specific circumstances. Thus, an *either or* construct ignores the larger context of motivation and is ineffective.

In sum, the main focus of the study was to address new kinds of motivation in FL learning at the college level. In particular, the study analyzed the following hypotheses: *secondary-goal* motivation might play a prevalent role in FL learning at the college level; and students with higher levels of certain types of *primary-goal* and secondary-goal forms of motivation were more willing to continue their FL education than their peers at all levels of L2 acquisition. Finally, I examined if there were significant gaps between the different levels of students in FL courses in terms of specific types and levels of motivation.

Significance of the Study

I hope that the results of the study can help to further understand the role that secondary-goal motivation plays in college language acquisition. While it is likely that language students were successful in acquiring the target language when they learned it for primary-goal motivational reasons, it may appear that motivation in FL

learning at the college level may be more external than internal. Consequently, the study explores the possibility that secondary-goal motivation has more potential influence on the FL acquisition of college students than primary-goal motivation.

The study also looked to answer the research question related to possible differences in types and levels of motivation between college students enrolled at different levels of FL acquisition. Likewise, I hope that the study results support the assumption advanced in one of the study hypothesis; that is, the possible correlations between higher levels of certain types of motivation in L2 learning and the willingness to continue FL education. In conjunction with these research questions, I examined the validity and reliability of motivational constructs conceptualized for this study. Furthermore, this study employed a new motivational measurement instrument I designed specifically for the purposes of this research. Above all, I hope that the newly-defined and validated forms of motivation and the questionnaire will be useful to educators and other researchers studying motivation in SLA.

Definitions of Key Terms

1. Second Language Environment – refers to the target language environment.
2. Foreign Language Environment – is the first language environment in which foreign language is acquired.
3. Foreign language acquisition – learning the target language in the first language environment – primarily in classrooms.

4. Second Language Acquisition – refers to L2 learning in general (including FL settings).
5. Integrative: for Gardner (1985), integrating meant learning language for the purposes of becoming like native speakers.
6. Instrumental: Gardner (1985) described it as learning language for economic gains or social status (i.e. using it for a job).
7. Socio-Education Model – consists of integrative motivation, attitudes toward the learning situation, integrative and instrumental orientations, and explains the relationship between (integrative) motivation and successful L2 learning (Gardner, 1985).
8. Self-Determination Theory – Deci and Ryan (2000; 1985) proposed that people were more motivated when they perceived themselves as autonomous and competent; the theory includes the description of two types of motivation: extrinsic and intrinsic.
9. Intrinsic motivation – means to be motivated to do something for its own sake.
10. Extrinsic motivation – means to be motivated to pursue a specific activity in order to procure external rewards or escape punishments.
11. *Motivation – cognitive and affective state that describes reasons for engaging in a particular activity and eagerness or commitment (committing time and efforts) to obtain specific goals relevant to the subject/activity.* In the context of motivation in FL environment, the two main components of motivation

can be considered as: 1) reasons for learning foreign languages; 2) eagerness or commitment of time and efforts to acquire the target language. By implication, both the reasons and eagerness/commitment components are attached to the “sole” goal of acquiring or studying foreign languages.

12. *Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses*– is a construct composed of primary-goal and secondary-goal forms of motivation. It is important to avoid black-and-white categorizations of primary-goal and secondary-goal kinds of motivation. Learners can have different amounts of several types of motivation at the same time. The amount of motivation present in FL learners can fluctuate due to the influence of multiple internal and external factors. For the same reason, motivation in FL students can transform from one form into another (e.g., from primary-goal into secondary-goal motivation).

13. *Motivation to Gain Foreign Language Skills* – refers broadly to *motivation to acquire certain level of proficiency in a foreign language*. For the purposes of the study, MGFLS consists of socializing primary-goal, appreciative primary-goal, and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation. However, the distinct differences can be observed between types of motivation instrumental in gaining foreign language skills (e.g., facilitative secondary-goal) and types of motivation instrumental in non-learning of a foreign language (provisional secondary-goal).

14. *Primary-goal motivation* – a combined concept that is based in part on the concepts of integrative and intrinsic motivation that refers to more “internal” types of motivation. Primary-goal motivation is in a similar category of motivation as integrative and intrinsic types of motivation, but has a different connotation than the aforementioned terms.

Primary-goal motivation can be described as *being eager or committed to learn a foreign language for the reasons of communication with speakers of the target language and/or for aesthetic and intellectual reasons*. The term *primary-goal* indicates that FL learners study a foreign language for the sake of learning it, – because it is their primary objective.

The primary-goal motivation includes two kinds of motivation – *socializing* primary-goal motivation and *appreciative* primary-goal motivation.

Socializing primary-goal motivation refers to *being eager (investing time and efforts) to acquire a foreign language for the reasons of communication with the foreign language interlocutors*. Concurrently, *appreciative primary-goal motivation* depicts *the eagerness to learn the target language for aesthetic and intellectual reasons*.

15. *Secondary-goal motivation* – a combined concept that refers to more external types of motivation. As is the case with primary-goal motivation, while the concept of secondary-goal motivational reasons is based in part on the concepts of instrumental and extrinsic motivation, secondary motivation has a different meaning than those types of motivation. In this sense, secondary-

goal motivation is in a similar category as instrumental and extrinsic motivation, but has a different connotation.

Secondary-goal motivation can be interpreted as *being eager (expending energy) to study the foreign language to use as a vehicle in order to achieve other goals* (e.g., for higher-paying jobs). The term *secondary-goal* indicates that FL learners study foreign language because studying foreign language is not their main objective, but rather means to an end.

In turn, secondary-goal motivation can be defined in two categories:

facilitative secondary-goal motivation or being motivated to acquire language *in order to use it to procure certain side benefits* (e.g., for career purposes). On the other hand, *provisional secondary-goal motivation* refers to *being motivated to study foreign language for only short periods of time and only to satisfy certain requirements* (e.g., school requirements).

16. *Willingness to continue foreign language learning* – is a concept that is closely related to FLLM and describes the willingness or desire to continue one's foreign language education beyond the required number of foreign language courses.

Summary

In this chapter, I described the main objectives of this study. They were to examine the following hypotheses: 1) whether college students in FL classes had more secondary-goal types of motivation than primary-goal types of motivation; 2)

whether there was a link between higher levels of certain types of motivation in L2 learning and the students' willingness to pursue their FL studies in the future; 3) whether significant differences could be found in specific types and levels of motivation (e.g., primary-goal vs. secondary-goal motivation types) among different levels of college students. In addition, the principal purpose the study was also to establish the validity and reliability of the motivational constructs and the questionnaire designed to explain and evaluate the newly-defined forms of motivation not discussed previously in SLA literature.

The purpose of Chapter 1 was also to provide the study background, the statement of problem, and the significance of the study, as well as to emphasize the necessity of the present research. In addition, the chapter provided a list of key terms that appeared throughout the dissertation. Finally, I hope that the study will contribute to the growing research on motivation in FL acquisition, as well as to improving the understanding of how educators can help language students to achieve success in learning foreign languages.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation Research in SLA

Learning another language is a challenging undertaking for many foreign-language students. Over the years, SLA scholars have attributed a multitude of reasons as to why learning another language is a difficult process. As explained in the last chapter, “educational settings differ from many achievement situations in that most of the decisions and goals are not really the learners’ own products but are imposed on the by the system” (Dörnyei and Ótto, 1998, p. 45). Other reasons as to why language learning was difficult arose from the perception of language as a complex and continually evolving organism (Ellis, 2008, de Bot 2008, Larsen-Freeman 1997). Because of the complexity and changeability that characterize languages, language learners face a number of various factors in their quest to acquire a foreign language. Some of those factors are more general and apply to the majority of people acquiring another language, such as pervasiveness of accents. Other variables are more unique to individual learners, such as levels of classroom anxiety. Thus, motivation can vary greatly from learner to learner. Motivation is one of the factors in language acquisition that is affected both by general and individual variables (Dörnyei, 1994b; Gardner, 1985).

Not surprisingly, motivation in SLA has been a focal point of different teaching approaches for many years. The implicit use of motivation was employed in foreign language classrooms when the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) was the

most popular methodology employed in the foreign-language classroom. ALM derived its roots from the behavioral approaches based on the premise of “operant conditioning” (Skinner, 1957). Skinner applied the principles of his *operant conditioning* construct to how people produced the language. For him, the verbal output was in direct relationship to its reinforcement (e.g., praise). The implication of Skinner’s assumptions for teaching is that language instructors could motivate their students to acquire the target language by “conditioning” them to produce linguistic output with the use of verbal reinforcements.

However, the concept of motivation was not at the forefront of SLA scholarship until Gardner and his colleagues (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gardner, Glicksman, & Smythe, 1978; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Lambert 1959) began to emphasize the importance of motivation and its relationship to the L2 proficiency in the late 1950s. In general, Gardner (1985) asserted that motivation played an important role in successful L2 learning. He defined motivation as a composite of three main elements: positive attitudes towards the target language, “motivational intensity” in learning L2, and the desire to learn it. By his definition, FL students were considered to be motivated when they had a goal, the desire to acquire the target language, and the “motivational intensity” to learn it.

At the same time, Gardner emphasized that neither one of the factors on their own could be considered to be motivation. For instance, no matter how hard one tried to learn the language, he or she would not be successful in becoming fluent in it

if they lacked the desire to become proficient. Moreover, the student had to maintain a positive attitude towards learning the target language. Similarly, Gardner (1985) suggested that sometimes the efforts exerted to learn the language might not be related directly to liking the language, but might occur due to the following reasons: “compulsiveness, desire to please a teacher or a parent, a high need to achieve”, or due to “a demanding teacher, impending examinations, or the promise of a new bicycle” (p. 10). Likewise, having positive attitudes towards the language did not necessarily translate into motivation to learn L2. Even though people “may want to learn the language and may enjoy the activity,” they might not learn it if the desire to learn and positive feelings associated with the language were not reinforced by persistence in learning (Gardner 1985, p. 11). Gardner (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) also noticed that motivation was linked to certain “orientation” factors. He (Gardner, 1985) described *orientation* as a kind of predisposition towards certain type of goals.

Although Gardner (Gardner 2000) acknowledged the existence of other orientations, he (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; 1959) focused primarily on two orientations – “integrative” and “instrumental.” *Integrative orientation*, in its broadest interpretation, referred to the individual’s “socio-emotional” goals (Gardner, 1985) to integrate or the “willingness to be like valued members of the language community” (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271) in order to be able to communicate with them. Furthermore, Gardner (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) underlined the importance of integrative orientation in tandem with the concept of motivation – as integrative motivation, to L2 learners’

success in the L2 acquisition. The second orientation term – *instrumental orientation* (not as thoroughly developed by Gardner as integrative orientation) Gardner defined as “a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 14). For instance, an instrumentally-orientated person might choose to acquire a foreign language for career purposes.

However, Gardner (1985) readily admitted that the division between the concepts of “instrumental” and “integrative” orientations was not clear. In earlier studies, Gardner (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) depicted the concepts on the opposite sides of the goal orientation gamut. In his words, the initial orientation index used to measure integrative and instrumental orientations “contrasted” the concepts and “consequently led many to consider orientation in terms of this dichotomy” (Gardner, 1985, p. 12). He suggested that a researcher should analyze the concepts beyond the scope of a mere dichotomy. If integration meant learning the target language for communication reasons, then instrumental orientation would be a subcategory of integrative orientation (Gardner 1985).

In general, Gardner and his colleagues (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Smythe 1981; Gardner et al., 1978; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) asserted that successful language learning had a correlation with integrative motivation rather than with instrumental motivation. At the same time, Gardner’s assertions regarding the definition of integrative motivation spurred the growth of a great multitude of works that either supported (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay,

1999; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) or questioned (Noels et al, 2001; Dörnyei, 1994, Au, 1988; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Oller, 1981; Lukmani, 1972) his concepts and claims of links between integrative motivation and success in L2 acquisition.

Studies supporting integrative motivation

As part of the review of literature on motivation, I provided a brief overview of some of the influential studies in SLA that founded the concepts of instrumental and integrative types of motivation. One of those studies that can be considered as a point of departure for this overview is the one conducted by Gardner and Lambert in 1959. This was the study in which they described the concepts of integrative and instrumental orientation. During the course of the study, they administered a questionnaire to 75 high-school level students studying French. The analysis of their study results yielded four factors, including two related to language competence. The factor of motivation had four variables: 1) integrative/instrumental orientation index, 2) attitudes toward French Canadians, 3) proficiency level in French, and 4) levels of motivational intensity. The results of the measurements showed correlations between motivation, integrative orientation, and achievements in language learning.

Gardner and Lambert's (1972) study also included samples of students who studied French. In this case, the scholars decided to conduct their study in a different cultural environment. They recruited student participants from schools in several

states in the US. Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that the results of their study were similar to the study in 1959 – motivation and integrative orientation correlated positively with achievement in French acquisition. However, the authors also found that some of the motivational variables varied depending on the particular environment. For example, in Louisiana, motivation had a high correlation with perceived encouragement from parents.

In another large study Gardner, Smythe, Clément, and Glicksman (1976) surveyed about 1150 students. The participants were learning French as a second language. The study took place over three years in several regions of Canada. The results of their study indicated a strong integrative motivation factor in all of the grades. The results suggested that integrativeness was “generally an important predictor” of L2 achievement and “consistently better predictor than instrumentality” (Gardner et al., 1976, p. 203). The researchers also claimed the results of their study demonstrated that motivation was more influential factor than aptitude in L2 achievement. Furthermore, their findings showed that students who intended to continue studying L2 were “more highly motivated” (Gardner et al., 1976, p. 203).

In the same vein, Gardner, Smythe, Clément, and Glicksman (1978) looked at the possible links between motivational factors, language achievement, and the desire to continue language studies (French). The researchers obtained the results that indicated a direct link between students’ motivation and their intention to continue learning the target language. Interestingly, Gardner et al. (1978) also

confirmed that the motivation factor had the strongest effect, among other variables, on the success rate of learning L2.

Clément, Gardner, and Smythe (1977; 1980) obtained similar results as Gardner et al. (1978). In their first study (Clément et al., 1977), the scholars recruited of about 300 high school students for their research; and for their second study, the researchers (Clément et al., 1980) enlisted over 200 school students to participate in their study. The results of both research studies demonstrated that “integrative motive” or integrative orientation correlated with the intent to continue L2 studies. In addition, the researchers suggested that there was “a possible link” between self-confidence and *integrative motive* (Clément et al., 1980, p. 299).

Similar to the results obtained by Clément et al., (1980), Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcroft (1985) found positive correlations between integrative motivation and successful language acquisition. The results of the study showed strong links between the scores on the language tests (e.g., cloze test) of 170 participants and the integrative motivation measurement on Gardner’s Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery. Gardner and his associates reported that participants who were “high on integrative motivation” had a higher learning curve than those “who were low” on integrative motivation (Gardner et al., 1985, p. 206). The study results echoed Gardner’s earlier findings (Gardner et al., 1976).

Among the more recent studies, Bernaus and Gardner (2008) also reported similar outcomes in their investigation of the effects of teaching strategies of students’ motivation and achievements in FL learning. An analysis of the study data

from over 700 participants demonstrated clearly that “integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and instrumental orientation predicted the motivation” to acquire the target language (p. 387). Thirty years later after the Gardner et al. (1978) study, Bernaus and Gardner’s research findings indicated similar results, that is, – the factor of motivation had the strongest impact, among other variables, on the success rate of learning a foreign language.

The results of Gardner and his associates’ studies were derived primarily from the analyses of Gardner’s AMTB questionnaire. Gardner (1985) developed his questionnaire to measure a number of motivational variables, including integrative and instrumental orientations. Along with the orientation scales, AMTB named eight other measurement subcategories: “attitudes toward French Canadians”, “interest in foreign languages”, “attitudes toward European French people”, attitudes toward learning French”; “French class anxiety”, “parental encouragement”, “motivational intensity”, and “desire to learn French.”

In later works (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003), Gardner has re-grouped his original measurements into four main categories: “attitudes toward the learning situation,” integrativeness, motivation, and orientation. *Attitudes toward the learning situation* incorporated evaluation measurements of the course and the course instructor. Integrativeness was comprised of attitudes toward the FL community, interest in learning other languages, and integrative orientation. Motivation measurements were derived from the scores for motivational intensity, attitudes toward the learned language, and the desire to learn the target language.

The orientations “subscale” referred to the original concepts of integrative and instrumental orientations scale in the original AMTB (Gardner, 1985).

Gardner (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; 1959) suggested that language learners had a higher chance of success of mastering the language provided that they had positive attitudes toward the target language community and toward the target language itself. Gardner also included general interest in L2 learning in his concept of integrativeness. Despite the fact that Gardner (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) regarded attitudes toward the learning situation as a highly fluctuating component of the motivational measurements, he included the scales measuring these attitudes in the AMTB. Gardner (2000) also contended that positive attitudes have more influence in monolingual communities where parents and teachers encourage students to learn another language.

Gardner (1985) listed the measurements of motivation needed to address many of the aspects of motivation. For him, the “totality of motivation and its relation to other characteristics of the individual” had to be considered “in any investigation of the role of motivation or attitudes in second language learning” (Gardner, 1985, p. 56). However, Gardner (2000) would likely agree that AMTB did not measure every single shade of motivation in language learning. As discussed earlier, even the items that appeared to be specific in what they measure, such as attitudes toward learning the language could be interpreted to have “multi-dimensional” characteristics (Gardner, 1985, p. 40). The results of several studies by Gardner and his associates (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003;

Gardner, 1985; Gardner et al., 1985) demonstrated that motivation may be the only component in the AMTB that showed a strong correlation with proficiency in the target language.

Finally, in an extensive investigative analysis of about 80 independent studies that included statistical results from a grand total of almost 10,500 participants, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) demonstrated that research using Gardner's constructs mostly supported his claims. According to the authors, the meta-analysis of the studies supported Gardner's (Gardner et al., 1978) previous claims that the "correlation between achievement and motivation are uniformly higher" than that between achievement and other attitudinal variables (e.g., integrative or instrumental orientations) (p. 169). Masgoret and Gardner emphasized that, despite the premise that integrativeness correlated positively with language learning, it was the factor of motivation that had a higher correlation with L2 competence.

In later studies that also used AMTB, Gardner (Bernaus and Gardner, 2008) confirmed that "clearly there is a correlation between student motivation and L2 achievement" (p. 399). Furthermore, Masgoret and Gardner's study results revealed that "it is conceivable that an individual who is instrumentally oriented" could be conceivably "more motivated than one who is integratively oriented" (p. 175). On the other hand, the authors agreed that their meta-analysis demonstrated a "strong support for the proposition that integrative motivation promoted successful second language acquisition (p. 201)." In fact, Masgoret and Gardner's research indicated correlations between success in L2 learning and integrativeness. In fact, they

observed a higher correlation between integrative orientation and motivation than they did between instrumental orientation and motivation.

Studies questioning integrative motivation

It would be hard to underestimate the importance of Gardner's and his associates' work in defining motivation as a major component of SLA. Many SLA researchers agree, in principle, with the existence of the relationship between motivation and L2 proficiency. However, other SLA scholars (Noels et al., 2001; 2000; Dörnyei & Ótto, 1998; Crookes & Schmidt, 1994; Dörnyei, 1990; Au, 1988) would disagree with Gardner's theoretical concepts and claims.

In the following section, I provide a brief overview of the research that raises possible issues with Gardnerian constructs. In his later works, Gardner (2000; 1985) admitted himself that the concepts of integrative and instrumental types of motivation are not the only existing types of motivation in L2. He also contended that integrative and instrumental types of motivation should not be considered opposing concepts. However, a common confusion in understanding the earlier definitions and differences between his concepts influenced a number of the works that followed Gardner's earlier studies.

Oxford and Shearin's (1994) study was one of the works that addressed the possible issues with Gardner's claims. In their study, the authors surveyed about 280 high schools students about their motivation to learn Japanese as a foreign language. Overwhelmingly, (almost 70 percent of the participants) chose reasons different from

integrative and instrumental orientations for studying Japanese. The authors also contended that reasons for learning a foreign language could not be held static because they change over time. For instance, one of the authors demonstrated (using an example from her personal life) that reasons for learning the language often varied depending on certain interests in the target language she had at a specific time in her life. Oxford and Shearin purported that another possible issue with Gardner's concepts is the lack of general application across the different language environments (e.g., second vs. foreign). Similar to Clément and Kruidenier (1983), the authors also questioned whether language learners in different linguistic milieu were likely to exhibit the same type and the same intensity of motivation. Moreover, "adaptations of the AMTB itself suffer from a similar problem" (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 50). MacIntyre (2002) emphasized that due to the fact that the same items might have different meanings in different cultures, "the theory underlying the AMTB should be examined closely for its applicability" (p. 50).

Another second language researcher, Au (1988), asserted that the classification that Gardner and his colleagues used to group scales "is not of an empirical nature" (p. 79). In the same vein, she doubted the reliability of some of Gardner's motivational scales, and she wondered if the relationship of what was measured related to the motivation in L2 learning. Au also noted the lack of generalizability of the AMTB scales, since researchers who used AMTB scales rarely used the AMTB in its entirety. She added that integrative motivation could not be validated as a "unitary concept" due to the lack of consistency in the

predictability of the measurement results (p. 82). Similar to Gardner's (1985) own conclusions, Au indicated that the ability to succeed in L2 learning did not always correlate with all of the elements of integrative motivation. Furthermore, she questioned in line with Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) claims, her analysis of the field research also casted doubts on the motivational concepts when applied to different cultural contexts.

Perhaps one of the main disagreements other scholars had with Gardner's theoretical assumptions was a perceived vagueness of the distinction between his concepts of integrative and instrumental types of motivation. Ely (1986) saw that it would be problematic to make the distinction between those two concepts. This confusion was due to the fact that the reasons for second-language learning could be attributed to either integrative or instrumental orientations based on other contributing variables. For example, learning language for travel purposes might be viewed as instrumental orientation or as integrative orientation, (the latter applicable if travelling involves communication with the target community). Therefore, "a desire to learn a second language may indeed not coincide" with either of Gardner's factors of motivation (p. 28).

Ely emphasized that those reasons varied from one individual learner to another one, and he listed 17 major different categories that describe those reasons. Those categories included fulfillment of college requirements, application of L2 for travel purposes, application in study abroad; communication with relatives, realization of one's desire to speak more than one language, and many others. In

fact, the participants in his study described over 180 different reasons for enrolling in language courses. Clément and Kruidenier (1983) also found that Gardner's theoretical framework posed certain issues: vagueness in defining the concepts of integrative and instrumental orientations and a failure to address sufficiently the differences between various L2 environments. Dörnyei (1994b) echoed their frustration by describing that the understanding of Gardner's theory was challenging at times because of the perceived ambiguity in the definition of integrative motivation. As discussed earlier, even Gardner (1985) himself acknowledged possible confusions related to the original description of the integrative and instrumental orientations. Like Ely, Clément and Kruidenier also brought up the issue of the "correct" meanings of those concepts. In general, while researchers in the field may agree about the meaning of instrumental orientation, the scholars are yet to arrive at a consensus regarding the meaning of integrative motivation.

In addition, Clément and Kruidenier asserted that the learning context, specifically, "the ethnicity of the learner, the availability of other ethnic groups in the community, and the specific target language" might all have an impact on motivation in L2 (p. 277). According to the scholars, the researchers might find differences between learners from a linguistic minority who were studying the language of linguistic majority versus learners from the linguistic majority group who were studying the language of the linguistic minority. Consequently, it was likely that different motivational forces would influence second language students in those two

situations. Not surprisingly, Clément and Kruidenier stated that the results of their study “do not support the construct of general integrative orientation” (p. 286).

Concurrently, scholars like Ramage (1990) advocated the inclusion of a FL requirement when considering learners’ reasons for acquiring another language. Ramage conducted a study with about 140 high students in which she assessed motivation for studying and continuing to learn foreign languages. Not surprisingly, she found that the participants who chose to discontinue learning foreign languages were also the ones who enrolled in FL courses to fulfill the school requirement. Along with this “requirement” motivation, Ramage also described the concepts of extrinsic and intrinsic types of motivation – “means to other goals” and “interest in the language itself” respectively (p. 207). Ramage’s study results showed that “intrinsic motives emerged as stronger contributors than extrinsic motives” and were “attributed more importance” by the students who decided to continue their FL studies (p. 208).

Finally, scholars like Noels and her colleagues (Noels et al., 2001; 2000) proposed adopting different psychological categories for measuring motivation. Noels supported applying Deci and Ryan’s (1985) categorization of motivation based on intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. Similar to Ramage’s findings, the results of her studies (Noels et al., 2001; 2000) demonstrated supported for the use of intrinsic and extrinsic constructs to measure motivation in L2 learning. Noels used Deci and Ryan’s (1985) original definitions of intrinsic/extrinsic types of motivation. As opposed to Ramage’s interpretation, Noel defined intrinsic motivation as

engaging in an activity for its own sake. Conversely, extrinsic motivation referred to doing something because of the external rewards linked to the activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In this regard, intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation were both similar and different from the concepts of integrative and instrumental types of motivation. Likewise, Noels et al., (2000) thought that instrumental orientation and extrinsic motivation were also alike in some instances.

However, she (Noels, 2000) also maintained that other orientations (e.g., travel, knowledge), could be connected to intrinsic motivation. In her research, Noels et al., (2000) also observed potential issues with the definition of integrative motivation. Even though both intrinsic and integrative orientations seemed to point to internal reasons for studying a language, it was hard to perceive clearly the link between the integrative and intrinsic motivation. In some instances “the integrative orientation could be conceptualized” as a type of intrinsic motivation, and at other times as part of external motivation (Noel et al, 2001, p. 54).

Motivational theoretical frameworks in SLA

In general, Gardner’s research was significant because it defined the construct of integrative motivation and created the widely used AMTB. At the same time, Gardner’s other contribution to motivation research in SLA was his socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985; Gardner et al, 1978; Gardner et al., 1976). The main premise of the SEM was that “second language is a social psychological phenomenon” (p. 2). Because language and culture are considered to be connected,

Gardner (Gardner et al., 1978) assumed that L2 learning is “dependent upon the individual’s willingness or desire” to incorporate the target culture as “part of his own behavioral repertoire” (p. 181). The SEM consisted of four main components (Gardner, 1985): 1) idiosyncratic variations; 2) socio-cultural environment; 3) language learning settings, 4) learning goals. For Gardner, the process of language learning could be seen as “involving a particular causal interplay of these four types of variables” (Gardner, 1985, p. 146).

Other constructs included in the SEM also appeared in the AMTB. Here is brief description of them (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003): 1) attitudes toward the learning situation; 2) integrativeness is comprised of attitudes toward the target language group, interest in learning other languages, and integrative orientation; 3) motivation is composed of motivational intensity, attitudes toward the target language, and desire to learn L2; and 4) integrative and instrumental orientations. Gardner (Gardner and Lambert 1972; 1959) described the term integrative (as in integrative motivation, integrativeness, and integrative orientation) as the desire to get closer to members of the target language community or become like them. At a later time, Gardner (1985) defined his “integrative” term as “the social-emotional aims” linked to learning L2 “in order to communicate with the other community” (p. 12). Thus, integrative motivation referred to a combination of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation. He associated the term *instrumental* (as in instrumental motivation; instrumental orientation) with the desire to achieve economic gains as a result of learning another language.

According to numerous studies by Gardner and his associates (Gardner et al., 1985) integrative motivation had a strong correlation with success in L2 acquisition. Similarly, Gardner (2000) depicted integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation “as correlated causes (or supports) of motivation in language learning” (p. 16). For him, integrative motivation “does promote second language acquisition.” Gardner added emphatically (in part responding to the criticism of his concept of integrative motivation), “if it looks like a duck [integrative motivation], walks like a duck, and quacks like a duck, then, for all practical purposes, it is a duck, even though you can’t ever demonstrate it unequivocally” (Gardner, 2000, p. 21). At the same time, Gardner (Bernaus and Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 1985) also suggested that motivation is the main predictor of proficiency in L2.

Furthermore, one of the underlining themes for the SEM was the notion that L2 acquisition involves to a large extent integration with the target community. Specifically, “the principal legacy” of the SEM was the “understanding of the motivational role of attitudes towards target language speakers and their culture” (Ushioda, 2006, 149). Many SLA scholars would agree with the notion that “the principal legacy” of Gardner’s theoretical framework was the “understanding of the motivational role of attitudes” towards native speakers and their culture (Gardner, 1985, p. 149). The SEM also stipulated that four types of individual characteristics had the more impact on the achievement in the L2 acquisition than other variables (Gardner, 1985, p. 147). These characteristics were: motivation, intelligence, aptitude, and anxiety. Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) found significant

correlations between the successful in L2 learning and the characteristics (e.g., $r = .37, p < .001$ for L2 aptitude).

At a later time, SLA scholars such as Noels et al., (2001); Dörnyei (2005), Oxford and Shearin (1994), and Crookes and Schmidt (1991), proposed looking outside the SEM to explain motivational variations beyond Gardner's theoretical framework. Dörnyei (2005) provided a succinct summary of the main reasons why the transition took place in SLA motivational studies during the 1990s:

Gardner's theory has been highly acclaimed among L2 researchers and practitioners, but it is fair to say that the popular interpretation has been rather different from the actual theory because L2 scholars tended to pay attention only to two prominent motivational components: integrative orientation of integrative motivation and instrumental orientation of instrumental motivation (p. 69).

Likewise, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggested looking at other psychological theories that explored motivation from the teacher's perspective. They proposed that the theoretical framework for motivation needed to incorporate motivation in practical ways. The scholars identified four types of connections between the L2 acquisition and motivation: 1) in the classroom; 2) in the learner; 3) in the curriculum; and 4) outside of the learner. In general, they accentuated the importance of addressing links between motivation and: relationship and classroom activities, feedback, learners' attention, self-control, learning strategies, and their ability to apply language skills to everyday situations.

Oxford and Shearin were also in favor of augmenting Gardner's motivational framework with additional types of motivation in language learning. The scholars

mentioned the “omission of some key motivational and developmental theories taken from many areas of psychology” and the “teacher’s lack of knowledge about their students’ real reasons for learning a language” (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 13).

Oxford and Shearin indicated that these issues may obstruct the understanding of the elements of motivation in SLA. The researchers also recommended including constructs related to “need-based” concepts of motivation in the new motivational model in language learning. In this case, language learners’ motivation would change based on their specific needs (e.g., physical, cognitive, emotional).

Along with these need-based theories, Oxford and Shearin also called for supplementing the SEM with “expectancy value”- based and “outcome”- based theories. They argued that FL students had certain expectations in terms of their success or failure and particular rewards associated with learning the target language. The scholars also thought that FL teachers influenced students’ motivation and that they might impact language learning negatively if the teachers were “unaware of their students’ specific motivations” (p. 16). As Oxford and Shearin saw it, another problem that might cause de-motivation was focusing the L2 curriculum on what can be described as “performance” goals (e.g., grades). Thus, the orientation on performance rather than competence in L2 learning might result in lower levels of motivation in FL students.

While some SLA scholars looked for ways of incorporating Gardner’s motivational concepts (Dörnyei, 2005), Noels (Noels et al., 2001; 2000) suggested using a different theory – self-determination theory (SDT) – that she adopted from

the field of psychology (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Noels, et al., (2000) explained that L2 researchers needed to look at theoretical frameworks created by researchers in other academic fields. In addition, she (Noels et al., 2000) thought that the motivational constructs applicable to other fields may be used in similar ways in SLA. Noels and her colleagues (Noels et al., 2001; 2000) implied that the concepts of extrinsic and intrinsic types of motivation derived from the SDT provided more extensive and accurate explanations of motivation in SLA than Gardner's constructs. Specifically, Noels (Noels et al., 2001) examined the links between integrative/instrumental types of motivation and intrinsic/extrinsic types of motivation. For instance, integrative motivation could be considered as intrinsic motivation when L2 students experienced a satisfaction from FL learning. On the other hand, integrative motivation could be categorized under extrinsic motivation if some external rewards were involved.

The main differences between Gardner's SEM and the SDT were the focus of the latter on a learner's choice and competence. Deci and Ryan (1985) thought that individuals' motivation ranged from one end of the spectrum of "self-determination" to its opposing end. They (Deci & Ryan, 1985) defined intrinsic motivation as referring to the engagement in activity for its own sake. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation referred to engagement in an activity in order to receive external incentives. However, Deci and Ryan went beyond the simple distinction between the two concepts and assigned several subcategories to each of the motivational types. For example, intrinsic motivation could be separated into: "knowledge" related; "accomplishment" related; and "stimulation" related (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Extrinsic motivation could also be classified as: “external regulation” and “introjected regulation” or when one is “taking in but not accepting a regulation as one’s own” (e.g., abiding by class schedule) (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991, p. 329).

Deci and Ryan (1985) also added “identified regulation” and “integrated regulation” (e.g., integration of the external factors into one’s value network) as subcategories of external motivation. In addition, SDT also described the concept of “amotivation”. Contrary to both intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation, *amotivation* resulted from an individual “not valuing a behavior or outcome” due to the lack of belief in connection between the former and the latter (Deci and Ryan, 2008, p.16). In some ways, amotivation could be interpreted “nonmotivation” (Vallerand and Bissonnette, 1992) or as an abandonment of the goal. Through her studies, Noels et al., (2001; 2000) demonstrated that motivation in L2 learning could be assessed using intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. She also added that the study results also indicated the differences between the two concepts.

Similar to Oxford and Shearin (1994) and Noel et al., (2001) Dörnyei (Dörnyei, 1994b) stressed the importance of re-conceptualizing second language motivation to include other variables that might play a part in the motivation to learn language. He thought that the “general framework of L2 motivation” in FL learning was composed of the following elements: “language level”; “learner level”, and “learning situation level”. At the *language level*, Dörnyei’s (1994a) description of motivation was similar to Gardner’s concept of motivation in that “the focus is on

orientations and motives”, which played a part in the acquisition of foreign language (p. 279). In fact, he explained that this “dimension” of motivation could be “described by an ... *integrative and instrumental motivational subsystem*” (Dörnyei, 1994a, p. 279).

For Dörnyei, the *learner level* was defined by a “need for achievement” and “need for self-confidence.” The concept of *self-confidence* could be affected by “language use anxiety”; “perceived L2 competence”; “causal attributions”; and “self-efficacy” (Dörnyei, 1994a). The *learning situation level* was based on “intrinsic and extrinsic motives and motivational conditions”, such as: “course-specific motivational components”, (e.g., teaching methodology), “teacher-specific motivational components”, (e.g., lesson presentation), and “group-specific motivational components” (p. 281). In Dörnyei’s (1994a) view, it might be important to include those motivational elements in order to understand motivation in FL learning. For him, social and practical parameters of motivation in L2 were inevitably “dependent on *who* learns *what* language *where*” (Dörnyei, 1994a, p. 275). Moreover, Dörnyei (1994b) added that despite what seemed like intuitive features of Gardner’s socio-educational framework, certain components of motivation (e.g., its cultural aspect) in FL learning could not be generalized. Furthermore, the perception of stability with respect to unique individual features in L2 learners might not be scientifically reliable (Dörnyei, 2010).

At a later time, Dörnyei (Dörnyei & Ótto, 1998) formulated the “process-oriented model” which addressed motivational fluctuations over time. In his words,

only a select “few” of the motivation theories in SLA “contain a temporal dimension” (Dörnyei & Ótto, 1998, p. 45). Dörnyei and Ótto emphasized further that “even within the duration of a single course,” most FL students’ levels of interest and learning efforts might be affected by “a regular fluctuation” (p. 45). The main premise of his model was the perceived dynamism of language learning. According to the scholars, motivation was changing continually as time passed. In turn, the amount of efforts put in to accomplish specific goals in learning the target language is also subject to what one can describe as the *peaks and valleys* effect. This view of motivation could be compared to the beliefs shared by SLA scholars who embraced the application of the principles of the dynamic systems theory (DST) to L2 learning. In general, DST supporters believed that: language is a live “organism” (Larsen-Freeman, 1997) and each L2 learner had a unique “trajectory” or path (van Geert, 2007) in his or her quest to acquire another language.

For Larsen-Freeman (2006), the learning process was defined by “a great deal of variation... in learners’ performances”, as well as “clear instability over time” (p. 593). The implication is that L2 learning varied due to multiple factors with their many inter and intra variants. In light of this argument, SLA researchers regarded motivation as not only a “constant state but rather a more dynamic entity that changed over time” (Dörnyei & Ótto, 1998, p. 4). Similarly, Larsen Freeman and Cameron (2008) considered the phenomenon of motivation in foreign/second language acquisition as one of the continually changing factors in a “coadaptive”, “complex”, and “dynamic” system, that is, language. In this sense, Dörnyei’s

general framework of L2 motivation seemed to capture the changes of L2 learning over time. Dörnyei and Ótto (1998) described how a language learner's motivation is expressed in its progression from "preactional" to "actional" and then to "postactional" phases. In the *preactional* phase, L2 learners developed their initial interest in acquiring the target language. In the *actional* phase, language students persisted (e.g., showing motivational intensity) in acquiring the FL. In the last *postactional* phase, learners assessed what they had learned in relation to their goals.

One may see certain similarities between Dörnyei's (Dörnyei & Ótto, 1998) "general framework of L2 motivation" and his (Dörnyei, 2009; 2003) other model – the "task-processing system." According to Dörnyei, the main purpose of the task-processing system was to dissect the "complex and prolonged L2 learning process" by breaking it into "discrete segments with well-defined boundaries" or tasks, and by explaining how motivation related to those tasks are "negotiated and finalized in the learner" (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 15). The task-processing system (TPS) consisted of three integral parts: "task execution", "task appraisal", and "action control." *Task execution* described the behaviors of learners pursuing specific tasks outlined by an instructor or by themselves. The *task appraisal* factor of TPS referred to the process of a learner's internal juxtaposition of various environmental inputs with his or her expected outcomes. *Action control*, the last variable in TPS, referred to "mechanisms" of internal monitoring that promote task execution. In turn, Dörnyei (2009; 2003) depicted TPS as a kind of *balancing act* situation in which learners

executed tasks while continuously appraising and responding to the stimuli via the action control mechanism.

Moreover, Dörnyei (2005) continued to refine motivational theory by classifying the motivational framework in SLA in terms of three integral motivational components: the “ideal L2 self; “ought-to L2 self”; and “L2 learning experience”. He (Dörnyei, 2005; 2010) called this system the “L2 Motivational Self System.” He originally adopted the first two theoretical constructs from the field of psychology (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Higgins, 1987). Markus and Nurius (1986) perceived the concepts of “ideal self” and “ought self” as part of a more-encompassing concept known as “possible selves.” They defined *possible selves* as “cognitive components of hopes, fears, goals, and threats” that provided “the specific self-relevant form, meaning, organization, and direction” to those elements (p. 954). Similarly, Higgins (1987) described that the *ideal self* represented certain personal characteristics (e.g., hopes, goals) one would like to have. On the other hand, he defined the *ought self* as a “representation of attributes” (e.g., responsibilities) that one *ought* to have (p. 321). Higgins, Markus and Nurius also included some other variations of possible selves that were not emphasized in Dörnyei’s (2005) new theoretical framework.

Similarly, Dörnyei (2005) argued that the concept of possible selves provided researchers with “the most powerful”, as well as “the most versatile motivational self-mechanism” (p. 99). Possible selves could be interpreted as motivation-based phenomenon that was rooted in the past but could extend into the future. The ideal

self, then, represented what one wanted (Markus & Nurius, 1986). In its application to SLA, Dörnyei (2005) defined the *ideal L2 self* as “a powerful motivator” to learn another language “because of the desire to overcome” the distance “between our actual and ideal selves” (p. 106). He (Dörnyei, 2005; 2010) specified that the ideal L2 self could only become a motivating factor when the L2 learners had a clear, detailed, and attainable image of what constituted the ideal L2 self. For Dörnyei (2010), L2 learners should be willing to pursue the image by using effective strategies and adjusting goals in order to realize their ideal L2 self...

The latter assumption points to *ought-to L2 self*, which refers to the specific features L2 learners need to have in order to deal with the negative repercussions that they may encounter in their quest to learn the target language. By adopting the aforementioned constructs of possible selves, Dörnyei (2005) took on the challenge of reconciling the existing motivational concepts from other motivation related theories in SLA in his new theoretical model. For instance, he (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005) equated the concept of the ideal L2 self with the meaning of having integrative motivation. By looking at Gardner’s integrativeness in “a broader sense”, Csizér and Dörnyei interpreted the concept “as the L2 representation of one’s ideal self” (p. 29). In a similar fashion, one might find parallels between the concepts of intrinsic motivation and the ideal L2 self.

Similarly, one may assume that the concept of ought-to L2 self seems to capture some aspects of other prevalent motivational concepts, including extrinsic motivation (e.g. taking a required language course). The third element of Dörnyei

L2 Motivational Self System – *L2 learning experience* – seemed to address environmental factors and covered motivational factors linked to “the immediate learning environment and experience” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). At the same time, it seems to me that the concept of the L2 learning experience was loosely based on the elements (e.g., *language level; learner level, task appraisal, action control*, etc.) comprising Dörnyei’s (1994a) *general framework of L2 motivation* and (Dörnyei and Ótto, 1998) *process-oriented model*. Dörnyei (2005) proposed organizing “motivational L2 teaching practice” around four main fundamentals by: 1) establishing the “basic conditions” for motivation in L2 language learners (e.g., constructive learning environment); 2) by encouraging motivation in students (e.g., promoting positive values, attitudes, and goals related to L2 acquisition); 3) by continually reinforcing motivation to learn the target language (e.g., increasing students’ self-confidence); 4) and by supporting “positive retrospective” self-assessment (e.g., giving positive feedback and academic rewards).

As the research on motivation in SLA continued to grow, the scholars in the field pursued development of other theoretical models that further explored motivation in L2 learning. For instance, Csizér et al., (2010) suggested a theoretical framework for understanding the construct of motivation in SLA settings. As a result of their qualitative study, the researchers arrived at the conclusion that “attitudes and motivated behavior” of language learners tended to “fluctuate dynamically throughout their language careers” (p. 483). Like Dörnyei (2005; Dörnyei and Ótto, 1998), the authors concluded that motivation should be viewed as

a dynamic property of language acquisition. In fact, Dörnyei (2010) acknowledged that the commonly accepted portrayal of “learner characteristics fueled by the ‘individual differences’” fell short of describing the “dynamic, fluid and continuously fluctuating nature” of various factors and their “internal and external interactions” in the FL learning process (p. 253).

Furthermore, in their “model of nested systems in motivation”, Csizér et al., (2010) conceptualized motivation as part of a “closely interrelated co-adaptive system” that included goals and attitudes (p. 483). In the overall scheme of the model, these systemic variables were influenced by two other internal factors (e.g., “self-perceptions” and “cognitive factors”), as well as three factors that were part of the “learner” subcategory. The model had two other primary categories: “milieu” (e.g., parental and individual influences) and “instructional setting” (e.g., instructional methods). Finally, the authors assumed that “social context” (e.g. social values, educational policies) affected all motivational variables.

Summary

In this chapter, I looked at some of the seminal studies that laid the groundwork for the study of motivation in SLA. As part of the literature review, I also examined several conceptual frameworks of motivation in SLA. Over a half-century passed since Gardner (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) opened the discussion on motivation in the field of second-language learning. Yet, Gardner and his colleagues’ research of the instrumental and integrative types of motivation, AMTB,

and the socio-educational model still affect the field research, even though his original concept of motivation has undergone some changes in terms of its meaning and practical application.

Through this process, SLA scholars agreed that instrumental and integrative orientations should not be viewed on the opposite sides of the motivational continuum and that the meanings of such concepts as integrativeness and integrative motivation needed to be clarified. Furthermore, some scholars asserted that integrative motivation had a higher correlation to language achievement than any other motivation. Gardner himself (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Gardner, 2000; 1985) was one of the first ones to acknowledge those changes. Noels et al., (2000), Oxford, and Shearin (1994) also proposed looking into theories from the other fields of knowledge to help understand motivation in SLA. For instance, Noels and her colleagues (Noels et al., 2001) applied the SDT theory from field psychology in order to explain motivation in FL learners. Similarly, Oxford and Shearin described the benefits of using need and expectancy-value theories to define motivational factors in language acquisition.

The transformations in the motivation branch of SLA affected not only Gardner's concepts, but also gave rise to newly-formed motivational constructs (Csizér et al., 2010; Dörnyei, 2005; Noels et al., 2001; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). In fact, SLA scholars (Dörnyei and Ótto, 1998; Dörnyei, 1994b) advocated using other theoretical frameworks to include other forms of motivation not found in Gardner's Socio-Educational Model. For instance, Csizér et al., (2010) and Dörnyei (2010)

suggested considering motivation as a dynamic element in an overall dynamic picture of FL acquisition. For them, motivational factors were affected by a number of individual and environmental variables that were continually interacting with each other. In line with the principles of dynamic systems theories, Dörnyei (2010) recommended analyzing different combinations of interacting variables in order to establish the predictability of particular patterns.

In addition, Dörnyei (2005) offered using the L2 Motivational Self System as a means to conceptualize motivation in L2 acquisition. His motivational framework was able to “synthesize a number of influential approaches in the field”, and simultaneously generalized and made applicable theoretical constructs of L2 motivation in many different L2 environments in an “increasingly globalized world” (p. 257). For Dörnyei, the theory helped to elucidate how possible selves, specifically the ideal L2 self, created a strong drive in L2 learners to become successful in learning the target language.

The purpose of Chapter 2 was to provide an overview of the literature related to motivation in SLA. Specifically, I looked at some of the important studies that supported or questioned Gardner’s motivation concepts. In addition, the chapter provided a brief review of the theoretical works pertinent to L2 motivation. In sum, one may argue that all of the discussed theoretical frameworks foregrounded the study of motivation in FL learning. However, more research is still needed to test the newly emerging theories of motivation in SLA before they can be considered for generalized application.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

In this chapter, I will describe the components of my research study: the questionnaire, the assessment objectives, the process of data collection, the study design and its limitations, and the participants of the research.

The primary objective of the study was three-fold. First, the main purpose of the study was to find answers to the research questions posed in the first chapter.

They were as follows:

Question 1

Do college learners in more advanced foreign-language courses have higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than the learners who are in beginning language courses?

Question 2

Are college students in beginning and advanced foreign- language courses with higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation likely to express a willingness to continue their foreign language learning?

Question 3

Do college students at both the beginning and advanced levels of foreign-language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than primary-goal motivation?

Question 4

Do college students at the beginning level of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than students at the advanced level?

Along with seeking answers to these research questions, this study was designed with a pedagogical purpose in mind. In other words, I hope that the results of the survey can be helpful to educators in their ongoing quest to make more informed decisions about what motivates college students in the FL classroom. The study design is focused specifically on attempting to find answers to questions that many language educators might encounter in their classes, such as: What motivates students at different levels of FL acquisition? Does motivation play a significant role in students' willingness to continue their FL learning? Is there a difference in types of motivation among different levels of students in FL courses? What are the differences in levels of motivation between beginning and advanced students?

The third aspect of the study objective is to explore the possible implications for the current research in the field. Although the study occupies a certain niche in terms of its specific focus, I hope that the study results will be able to contribute to the existing research on motivation in SLA. In fact, the principal objective of the study is to substantiate the existence and significance of primary-goal and secondary-goal forms of motivation in college FL settings.

Participants

Sampling Process and Group Design

For the purposes of this study, I chose the participants from a pool of about 75 university students who had taken the survey. The total number of participants totaled 60 university students. Thus, the sample ($n=60$) was selected randomly from the population of students ($n=74$) at different learning levels of Spanish at Wayne State College (WSC) during the spring semester of 2011. For the purposes of the study, I assigned randomly the respondents to two independent groups based on their enrollment in certain levels of FL classes. I divided the groups as follows: Group 1 included thirty ($n=30$) college students who were enrolled in advanced Spanish; and Group 2 consisted of an equal number ($n=30$) of college students who were in the beginning Spanish sections.

Characteristics of Population

The majority of the students participating in the study were female with about 58% of the respondents. Most of the participants also belonged to two age groups, with an overwhelming 70% of them in the group with an average age between 18 and 20 and about 22% of the participants in the other group with average ages between 21 and 23.

While it was expected that many students at the advanced level would be foreign language majors (35%), the demographic data showed that an identical proportion of students majored in education at about 35%. The remaining 30% were

found to major in other specialties, such as business (6.7%). Many of the participants ($n = 42$) declared education ($n = 21$) or Spanish ($n = 21$) as their major.

Almost half (45%) of the respondents indicated that they had studied Spanish for three or more years. About 37% of the students were learning Spanish between one to three years, and the rest (18%) indicated that it was their first semester studying the language. Approximately 15% of the students spent time living or studying in a Spanish-speaking country; and the equivalent of 6.7% of the students spent six months or more abroad. Some (20%) of the participants indicated that they spoke Spanish with their relatives. Finally, the results of the survey showed that more than half (53.3%) of the students were going to teach in the future (however, not all of them were going to teach Spanish).

Human Subject Issues, Seeking Approval, Special Concerns

The instrument was administered to the college students in several FL classes at advanced and beginning levels during the spring semester of 2011. Before the instruments (and the pilots) were administered, I requested permission to conduct research involving human participants (namely, students at WSC). In addition, I obtained permission from FL college professors to administer the research questionnaire in their classes.

Survey administrators briefly informed the participants of the nature of the research and asked for their voluntary participation before the survey was administered. In addition, the participating students were informed in advance of the

confidentiality of their responses. The duration of the survey averaged less than 10 minutes, although the designated class time was 15 minutes. I determined the specific time length for completion of the survey based on time averages for completion of the pilot studies with the same amount of items. The class instructors also agreed to allocate extra time to students for whom English is not a native language.

Instrument

The study results were based on the outcomes from the evaluation of the quantitative questionnaire – Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses (MCFLC) – that I designed, specifically for surveying students in FL courses (Spanish in this study) at the college level. One of the reasons for designing a new motivational questionnaire for FL learning was to provide researchers and practitioners alike with a valid and reliable instrument to assess primary-goal and secondary-goal kinds of motivation in FL courses at the college level. In general, the MCFLC questionnaire was designed to measure different forms of motivation college students might have in their pursuit of learning a FL. Another reason for creating a new instrument was to gather the necessary data to answer the research questions.

MCFLC also had the purpose of validating the motivation-related constructs defined in this research study. Although the questionnaire drew inspiration from past research, the items in MCFLC were generated specifically to test the constructs

developed in this study for their validity and reliability. In fact, the motivational measurement categories of MCFLC were anchored in the main motivational constructs described in Chapter 1 of the study (e.g., primary-goal motivation, secondary-goal motivation). The instrument used eight descriptive items (background information) and 43 items with Likert-type scales (four-categories) ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (4) Strongly Agree. The items relevant to measurement of motivational constructs were devised according to my personal experience in the SLA field, college FL professors' accounts, and previous scholastic research on motivation in SLA. As a result, the items in the questionnaire were inspired by anecdotal evidence and existing research (Noels et al., 2000, Ely, 1986; Gardner, 1985; and Clément & Kruidenier, 1983). The prompts selected for the final version of the questionnaire covered several types of motivational factors defined for the first time in this study.

In order to ensure the content and construct validity of the instrument, I examined the items in terms of their correspondence to the existing theoretical framework of motivation in the SLA field. I also solicited guidance and advice from several SLA scholars, experts in educational measurement, and the foreign language professors at WSC. Furthermore, the questionnaire was pilot-tested on two different occasions with close to 100 college FL students to determine its validity and reliability, as well as to gather valuable student feedback.

The first pilot of MCFLC was administered to college students ($n = 44$) in several FL classes at both advanced and beginning levels at the end of fall semester

of 2010. The pilot revealed strong construct and content validity of the overall motivational scale. However, after reviewing the results of the pilot and discussing the items with the resident FL and linguistics professors, several items were modified and some items were replaced in order to increase validity and ensure high internal reliability of the MCFLC during its second pilot. It is very likely that those items may be still applicable with a different type of surveyed population. For the same reasons, some new items were added to provide an equal number of items per scale. In addition, the scale for the first pilot study was changed to give the participants more options and increase the impartiality of the survey. The data for the second pilot study was collected in the beginning of spring semester 2011. The survey was administered to 46 college students in two beginning Spanish classes. The reliability scores were measured during the second pilot of MCFLC using the Cronbach alpha coefficient for an estimation of any internal consistency of the items. The second pilot yielded a relatively high alpha for its overall reliability with $\alpha = .80$.

After several revisions and modifications during the pilot studies, the final instrument – MCFLC – retained the same measurement scales and the exact number of items used originally in the pilot surveys (51 items). Eight of the survey items are included to gather descriptive data relevant to the study. The rest of the 43 statements, as in the pilot studies, are designed to measure different types of motivation of the respondents. Given the high reliability scores for the second pilot, it was expected that the actual instrument would have equal or higher validity. The instrument was administered to the college students in several advanced and

beginning level of FL classes during the spring semester of 2011. As expected, the reliability statistics for MCFLC yielded high scores of internal consistency of its items. In fact, the obtained Cronbach alpha score for MCFLC ($n=60$) was much higher than the reliability scores for its last pilot study, with $\alpha = .95$. I also calculated the Cronbach coefficient of internal consistency of items for five scales comprising the overall construct of motivation as described in the study. Similar to the overall scale reliability results, the reliability analyses of each of the motivational subscales in the final version of MCFLC also resulted in high alpha scores.

The first three statements of the general motivational measurement scale make up the index of Willingness to Continue Foreign Language (Spanish) Learning (WCFL), an index designed to measure the WCFL variable. The participants are given the option to express their opinion about whether they are willing to continue their FL education by choosing one of the four choices on the WCFL scale. A sample statement for WCFL is the following: I will continue learning Spanish after this semester. The reliability results for WCFL index showed a high reliability score ($\alpha = .87$). The next 40 items on MCFLC are employed, specifically, to measure new types of motivation among college FL students. Similar to WCFL, the responses on all five of the motivational indices were measured on a Likert-type scale.

The overall motivational scale consists of two parts: Primary-Goal Motivation and Secondary-Goal Motivation scales. The Primary-Goal Motivation scale is divided into its own two sub-categories: Socializing Primary-Goal

Motivation (SPGM) and Appreciative Primary-Goal Motivation (APGM). Likewise, the Secondary-goal Motivation index also contains two sub-scales: Facilitative Secondary-Goal Motivation (FSGM) and Provisional Secondary-Goal Motivation (PSGM).

Finally, each of the measurement sub-categories (SPGM, APGM, FSGM, and PSGM) consists of Motivational Reasons subscale and the Motivational Eagerness subscale (relative to each category). (Refer to Figure 6 for the graphic representation of the motivational components created to explain and assess the new kinds of motivation described in this study.) Motivational reasons scales include: Socializing Primary-Goal Reasons (SPGR), Appreciative Primary-Goal Reasons (APGR), Facilitative Secondary-Goal Reasons (FSGR), and Provisional Secondary-Goal Reasons (PSGR).

For the purposes of this research, I computed reliability statistics for all five motivational measurement sub-components (e.g. APGR). In line with the highly reliable results for the general motivational measurement scale ($\alpha = .95$), the reliability analysis for the motivational categories also displayed high internal consistency scores for those categories. The analysis of the scale for SPGR yielded a high Cronbach alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .93$), which demonstrated the high reliability of the PSGR construct. The scale of eight items was created to investigate whether college students are motivated to study foreign language for socializing primary-goal reasons. A sample statement for this scale is “I am studying Spanish to make friends.” Another subscale of the Primary-goal motivational grouping is the

motivational subscale of APGR. The scale is composed of eight items measuring whether students are motivated to learn a foreign language for aesthetic or intellectual reasons. An example of an APGR item can be students who are learning a foreign language because they were fond of the FL literature. Similar to the reliability analysis of SPGR, the reliability analysis of the AGR scale produced equally high reliability scores with $\alpha = .94$.

Motivational Eagerness (ME) is the next motivational index on the questionnaire. I assumed it to be an integral part of every motivational construct employed in this study. As is the case with the other five main motivational scales that compose the motivational constructs, ME consists of eight items attempting to assess whether FL college students put in the time and efforts necessary to acquire the target language. A sample statement for this category is “I put in the necessary time and effort to learn Spanish.” The reliability scores obtained for the ME scale were as high as for the first two measured categories, with Cronbach $\alpha = .94$.

The next two scales of MCFLC consist of items that attempt to measure secondary-goal motivational reasons (SGR) for acquiring the foreign language. The first subscale in SGR is the facilitative secondary-goal reasons (FSGR) index, which includes eight items designed to determine if college students are motivated to study foreign language for facilitative reasons. An example of FSGR can be students who are acquiring the target language to be successful in their future careers. The reliability analysis of FSGR index showed $\alpha = .82$. The other part of the SGR scale is the provisional secondary-goal reasons (PSGR) index, which also includes eight

items used to examine whether college students were motivated to learn language for provisional reasons, such as taking foreign language courses to fulfill the college requirement. The reliability analysis showed $\alpha = .72$ for the PSGR scale.

This section on reliability results for MCFLC also included the outcomes of reliability analyses of the main motivational categories based on the motivational concepts defined in the study. The Primary-Goal Motivation scale is composed of 24 items from the SPGR, APGR, and ME scales. The high Cronbach alpha scores for PGM clearly showed that the scale was highly reliable with $\alpha = .97$. Similarly, the reliability results for SPGM and APGM, the motivation sub-categories of PGM, also displayed high scores with $\alpha = .96$ for SPGM containing 16 items and $\alpha = .97$ for APGM consisting of 16 items.

The test of reliability for Secondary-goal Motivation that includes 24 items from FSGR, PSGR, and ME, also showed that the SGM scale was reliable with Cronbach $\alpha = .80$. The reliability test of FSGM, the first of the two motivation sub-categories of SGM, showed that the reliability score ($\alpha = .94$) was higher than the reliability score for SGM scale itself.

The reliability score obtained for PSGM, the other SGM subcategory, was lower than for FSGM with Cronbach $\alpha = .60$. (The following chapters elaborate on the findings related to the relationship of PSGM with the other motivational constructs in the study). Finally, the Cronbach coefficient scores for overall Motivation scale with 40 items was also high with $\alpha = .94$.

Procedures

After obtaining satisfactorily valid and reliable pilot results, the final version of the Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses questionnaire was administered to 74 college students at different levels of FL acquisition during the spring semester of 2011. The survey administrators briefly informed the students of the nature of the research and asked for their participation. The survey took place during the last 15 minutes of a regular class time (50 minutes, in some cases 75 minutes).

Analysis of the results

The study results were analyzed using statistical software SPSS version 17. I used several statistical tools in order to analyze the obtained data and determine, subsequently, whether the results of analyses confirmed the study hypotheses. In addition, descriptive statistics and reliability tests were examined as part of the overall statistical analysis.

Descriptive Analyses

As indicated, descriptive statistics were calculated based on the data submitted by the students as part of their responses to the research survey. Statistical analysis included computation of frequencies, percentages, and means for the following descriptive categories: college major, gender, age, length of time invested

in learning foreign language, time staying overseas, communication with relatives in the target language, and intent to teach in the future.

Research questions, research hypotheses, and statistical analyses

Question 1

Do college language-learners in advanced foreign language courses have higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than the learners who are in beginning language courses?

Hypothesis 1

College language-learners in advanced foreign language courses have higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than the learners who are in beginning language courses.

Statistical analysis for Hypothesis 1

Two independent t tests were conducted with the course level (beginning or advanced) of FL courses as the independent variable and motivation (PGM for the first t test and FSGM for the second t test) as the dependent variable.

Question 2

Are college language students in beginning and advanced foreign language courses with higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal forms of motivation likely to express a willingness to continue their foreign-language education?

Hypothesis 2

College language students in beginning and advanced foreign-language courses with higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal kinds of motivation are likely to express a willingness to continue their foreign language education.

Statistical analysis for Hypothesis 2

Two Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were calculated for correlations between higher levels of PGM and FSGM in both groups as the independent variable and the willingness to continue foreign learning education as the dependent variable.

Question 3

Do college students at all levels of foreign-language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than primary-goal motivation?

Hypothesis 3

College students at the beginning and advanced levels of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than primary-goal motivation.

Statistical analysis for Hypothesis 3

A paired sample *t* test was conducted with the motivation level of PGM and SGM as the independent variable and the course level (beginning or advanced) of FL courses as the dependent variable

Question 4

Do college students at the beginning level of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than students at the advanced level?

Hypothesis 4

College students at the beginning level of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than students at the advanced level.

Statistical analysis for Hypothesis 4

An independent *t* test was conducted with the course level (beginning or advanced) of FL acquisition as the independent variable and SGM as the dependent variable.

Limitations

As expected, the results of this study largely supported the research hypotheses. In the same vein, the findings (discussed in later chapters) demonstrated and explained the existence and significance of the newly-defined forms of motivation and their components in college FL settings. On the other hand, some results of the analysis yielded results contrary to the assumptions hypothesized in the research. While the study results helped to answer the research questions, the study did not account for all of the motivational variables in SLA. Furthermore, one expects that more studies need to be conducted using the constructs developed in this study to verify the reliability and generalized applicability of the research hypotheses, the motivational (primary-goal and secondary-goal types of motivation) concepts, and the MCFLC questionnaire. Since the results of the study relied on the

participants' ability and willingness to evaluate items impartially, it was also likely that some of the participants' responses to the questionnaire items carried certain individual bias. Similarly, despite efforts to use concise and precise wording and subject-relevant language, it would be fair to assume that some items might have had different connotations for individual participants. And once again, motivation in FL learning is subject to the influences of a multitude of internal and external factors, most of which vary over time. Furthermore, many scholars would agree that Likert-type scales cannot assess completely what respondents may think and feel about specific items. In this sense, one may argue that a usual Likert-type scale offers fewer options than what an average person considers at a given time. Finally, since it was a one-shot survey, more similar surveys may be needed to establish a reliable continuity of the instrument for this particular school setting. Given the aforementioned and other rationale (not discussed here), the likelihood of finding differing results always exists. At the same time, diligent actions were undertaken to ensure the validity and reliability of the instrument and the motivational constructs. The results of the statistical analysis of the measurements are described in the following chapter.

Summary

In this chapter, I discussed the methodology of the study, including the research design, participant population, procedures, statistical analysis of the survey data, and some of the limitations of the conducted study. A report on two pilot

studies was included as a part of the chapter discussion. Along with the overall statistical analysis, Cronbach reliability coefficients of internal consistency were obtained for the overall MCFLC scale and its individual parts. The reliability results demonstrated unequivocally the strong reliability and validity of MCFLC. The next chapter delves into a more detailed demonstration of the statistical analyses in relation to the research hypotheses and the constructs described in earlier chapters.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter provides a detailed report of the findings in how they address the main themes of this research study: 1) whether students with higher levels of primary-goal and secondary-goal facilitative motivation are more willing to continue their FL studies than those with lesser levels of those types of motivation; 2) if significant motivational differences exist between the advanced and beginning levels of college students in FL learning classrooms. I obtained the results through the analyses of the data from the MCFLC questionnaire.

Demographics

The participants were 60 university students randomly selected from the population of participating students ($n = 74$) enrolled in different levels of FL (Spanish language) courses. The majority of the students participating in the study were female with about 60% of the respondents. Most of the participants also belonged to two similar age groups, with an overwhelming 70% of them in the group with an average age between 18 and 20. Many of the participants ($n = 42$) declared education ($n = 21$) or Spanish ($n = 21$) as their major. Almost half (45%) of the respondents indicated that they were studying Spanish for three or more years and about 40% of the students were learning Spanish between one to three years. Finally, the results of the survey show that more than half (53%) of the students were going to teach in the future. I conducted t-test analyses to analyze mean differences

among the aforementioned demographic groupings (e.g., gender) as they pertained to the motivation constructs of the study (e.g., primary-goal motivation); however, the results were not significant.

Results of Analyses

Results for Question 1

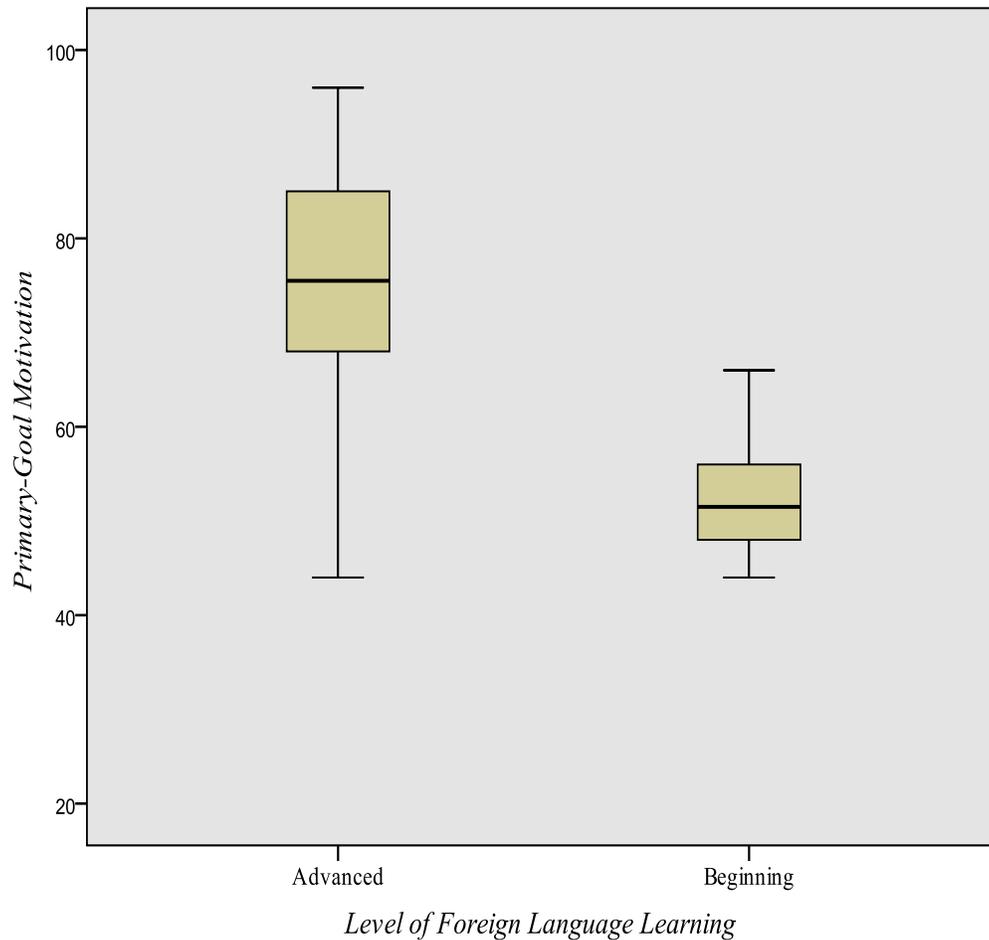
Do college language-learners in more advanced levels of foreign language courses have higher levels of both primary-goal and secondary-goal facilitative motivation kinds of motivation than the learners who are in the beginning language courses?

Question 1 included references to two types of motivation: primary-goal motivation and secondary-goal facilitative motivation. Two independent-sample t tests were conducted to determine if any significant differences existed between the advanced and college FL students.

I used the first independent-sample t test to evaluate the hypothesis that college students in advanced FL classes had more primary-goal motivation than those students at the beginning level. The test results displayed a significant difference in group means. According to the outcome of the analysis, the students in advanced FL classes have higher levels of primary-goal motivation ($M = 76.47$) than their counterparts in beginning classes ($M = 50.83$). The eta square index indicated that 60% of the variance of the primary-goal depended on whether the students were in advanced or beginning FL courses. The η^2 index showed that it was more likely to encounter college students with the higher levels of PGM in advanced FL courses

than in beginning courses. Figure 1 provided an illustration of the differences between student groups.

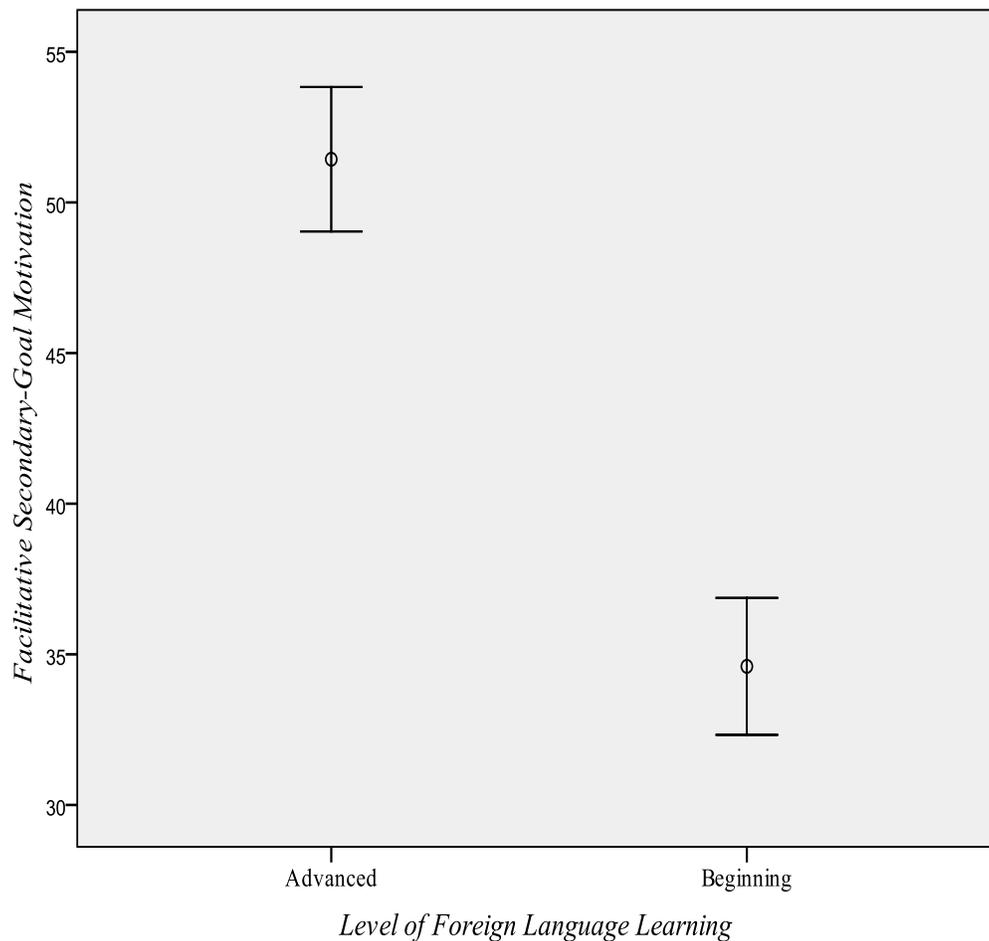
Figure 1. *Differences in PGM between the groups*



I conducted another independent-sample *t* test to measure the mean differences of secondary-goal facilitative motivation between the groups. The *t* test results were significant: $t(58)$ for facilitative secondary-goal motivation is equal to 10.42, $p < .000$. The outcome of the analysis clearly showed that college students at

the advanced level had more facilitative secondary-goal motivation ($M = 51.43$) than their peers at the beginning level ($M = 34.60$). The eta square index indicated that 65% of the variance of FSGM was determined by whether the students were at the advanced or beginning level of language learning. Figure 2 illustrated the differences between participants in the two groups.

Figure 2. *Differences in FSGM between the groups*



Results for Question 2

Are college language students in beginning and advanced foreign-language courses with higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation likely to express a willingness to continue their foreign-language learning?

My second research question sought to answer if the likelihood existed that students with higher levels of primary-goal motivation and secondary-goal facilitative types of motivation were willing to continue FL learning. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were computed to determine the significance of the relationship.

For the purposes of this study, I designated the students with higher levels of motivation as the ones whose primary-goal motivation-mean scores were equal to or more than 51, and whose facilitative secondary-goal motivation-mean scores were equal or more than 34. As a result, more than three quarters of the total number of participants' ($n = 46$) results were selected for the test. The Bonferroni approach was used to control for Type 1 errors across the two correlations; p value less than .03 ($.5/2 \approx .03$) was required for significance. The obtained p value was less than .01. The results of the correlation analysis highlighted significant and considerably large levels of correlations between PGM and WCFL learning with $r(46) = .78$, FSGM and WCFL with $r(46) = .81$, $p < .01$. See Figure 3 for the description of the correlations.

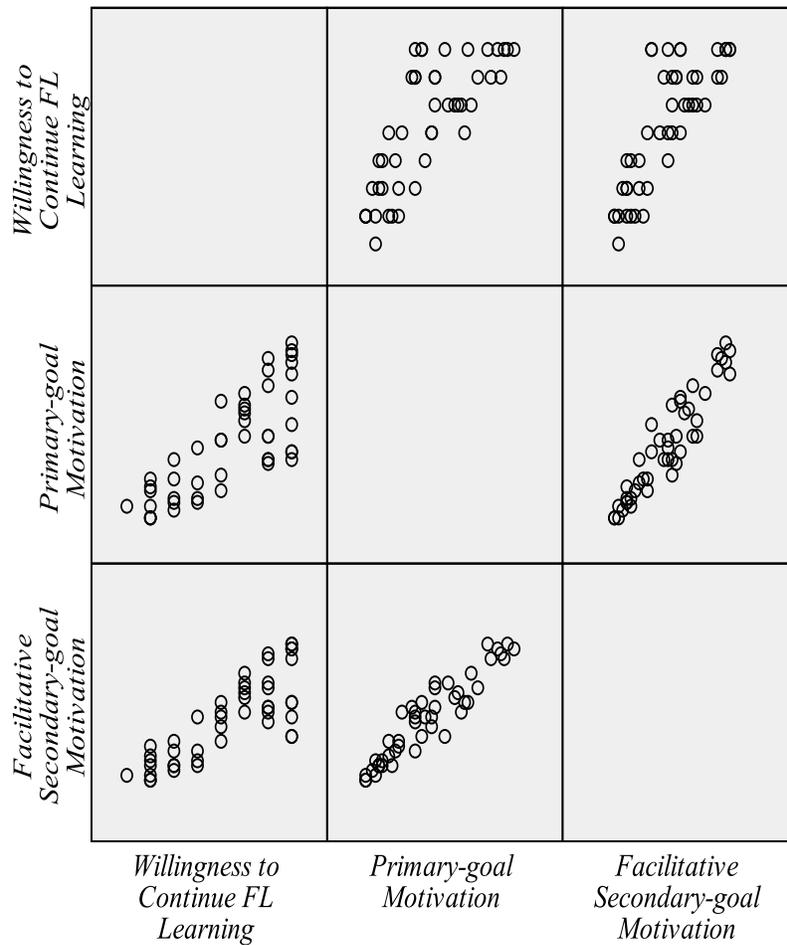
The direct implication of the analysis was the confirmation of the second research hypotheses. In brief, the results showed that college FL students who had higher levels of PGM and FSGM were likely to express WCFL. Moreover, the other significant outcome of the analysis, that is, the higher rates of FSGM with $r(46) = .81$, seemed to be slightly better correlated with WCFL than did PGM, $r(46) = .78$. Arguably, this difference lends indirect support to one of the main aspects of the study that proposes that college students may be more externally oriented in their FL acquisition. However, it was apparent that college FL students who have higher levels of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation tended to express the willingness to continue FL learning in the future.

Results for Question 3

Do college students at all levels of foreign-language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than primary-goal motivation?

A paired-samples t test was conducted to examine whether college FL students in both groups had higher levels of secondary-goal motivation than primary-goal motivation. The test results were significant, $t(59) = 3.08$, $p < .003$, but the results were counter to the research hypothesis. Students on average tended to have a higher PGM ($M = 63.65$) than SGM ($M = 59.75$). The eta square index indicated that 14% of the variance was due to whether the students had PGM or SGM. See Figure 4 for the differences between the two types of motivation.

Figure 3. Correlations between WCFL, PGM, and FSGM



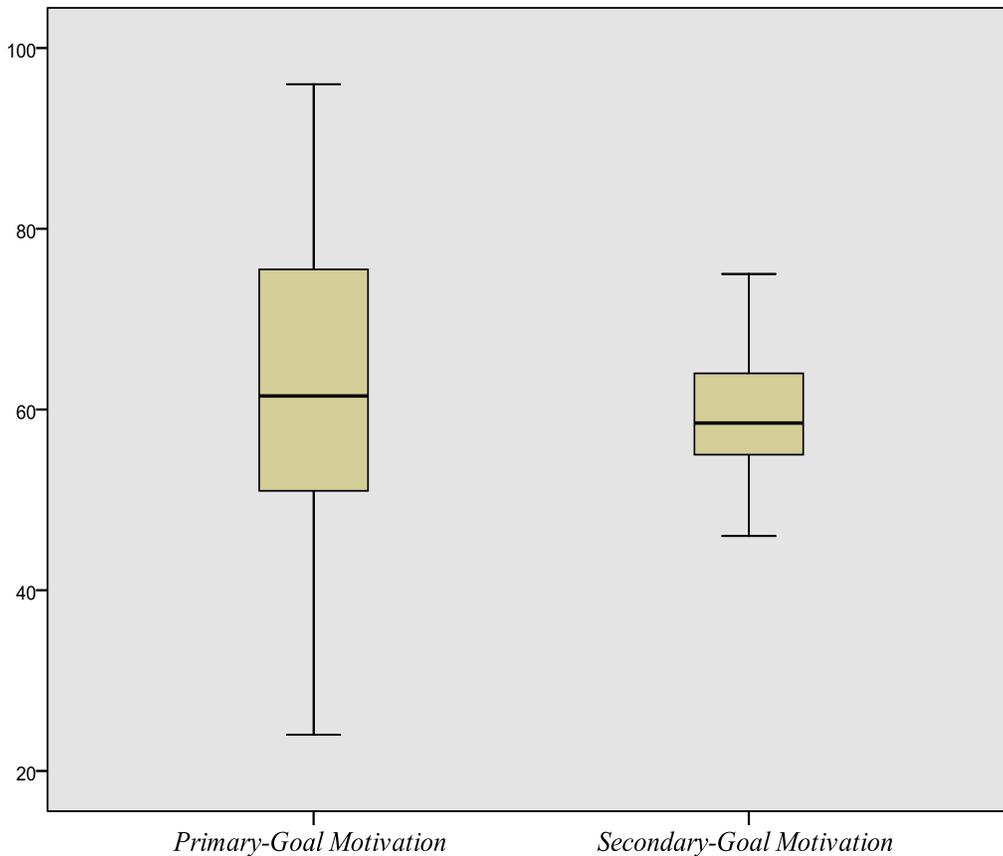
Results for Question 4

Do college students at the beginning level of foreign-language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than students at the advanced level?

The findings illustrated that it was college students at the advanced level of FL acquisition rather than students at the beginning level who had more secondary-goal motivation. The findings were based on an independent-samples *t* test

conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that students in beginning FL classes at the college level have more secondary-goal motivation than those in advanced courses.

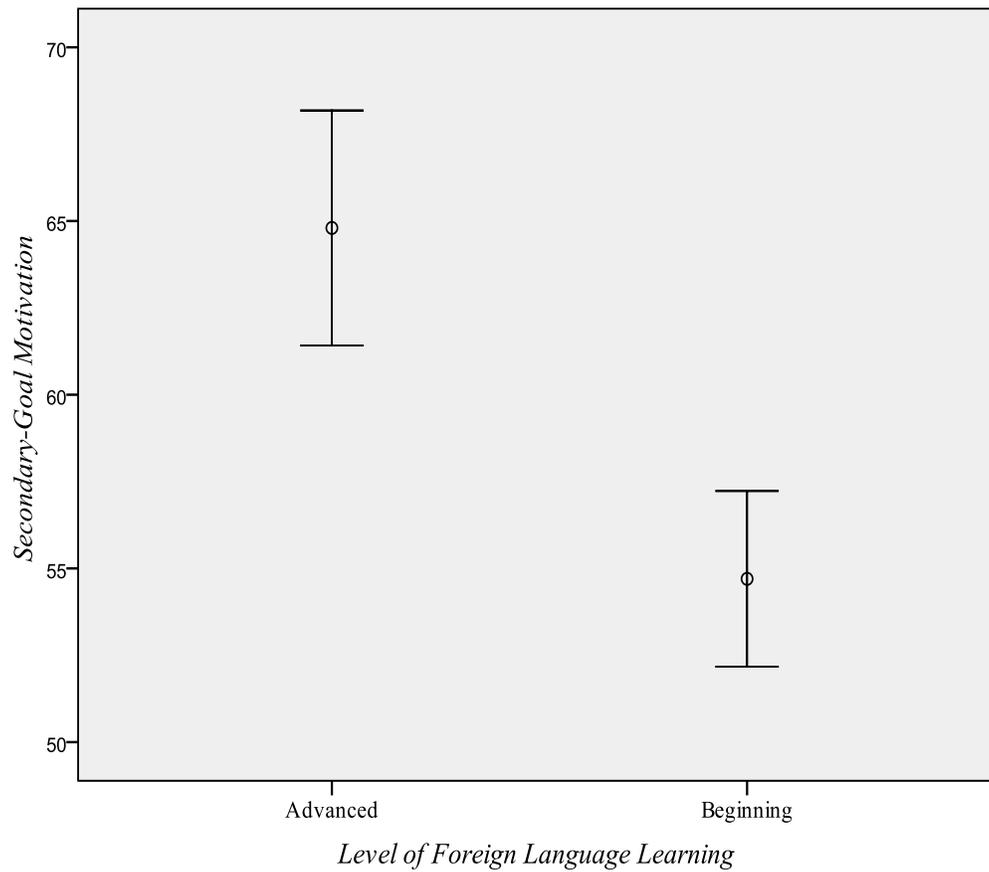
Figure 4. *Overall differences between PGM and SGM*



The test results were significant, $t(58) = 4.89, p < .000$, but the findings were counter to the research hypothesis. The outcome of the analysis indicated that students in advanced FL classes had higher levels of SGM ($M = 64.80$) than their peers in beginning level ($M = 54.70$). The eta square index showed that 29% of the

variance of SGM was dependent on whether the students were at the beginning or advanced levels of FL classes. Figure 5 provided the illustration of differences in SGM between the two levels of FL student groups.

Figure 5. *Differences in SGM between the groups*



Summary

In this chapter, I discussed the findings related to the four primary research questions in this study. The results demonstrated:

1. College students in advanced foreign-language classes had higher levels of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than their peers in beginning classes.
2. College students who had higher levels of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation were willing to continue their FL learning.
3. College students in both the advanced and beginning FL classes had higher levels of primary-goal motivation than secondary-goal motivation.
4. College students in advanced FL courses had higher levels of secondary-goal motivation than their peers in beginning classes.

Overall, the findings confirm the existence and significance of the motivation constructs designed for this study.

The next chapter discusses the findings of the study and delves into the research and pedagogical implications ensuing from the findings. In addition, Chapter 5 reviews the limitations of the study in light of the findings and makes suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Summary of the Study

The discussion of the results concludes in this chapter by focusing on the interpretation of the findings. After this summary, I reflect briefly on the findings in their relevance to the research hypotheses, the educational implications, the limitations of the study, suggestions for FL educators, and suggestions for future research.

Summary of the Study Objectives

The main objectives of this research study were the following:

1. To investigate if there was a link between primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation and college students' willingness to pursue their FL studies further.
2. To find out whether there were differences in levels of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation between college students in advanced and beginning FL courses.
3. To examine whether college students in beginning FL classes had higher levels of secondary-goal motivation.
4. To identify and evaluate the motivational constructs created for this study.

Summary of the MCFLC Questionnaire

The study utilized the Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses instrument to measure motivation constructs. The instrument is composed of three main parts: the descriptive participant's information (eight items), the motivational component (40 items), and a section measuring students' willingness to continue language learning (three items). The descriptive part is composed of items such as: the students' college majors, college standing, gender, and others. The motivation component of the survey is subdivided into two major categories (PGM and SGM) or five individual indices (reasons and commitment).

The MCLFC was piloted twice before its final administration to achieve the validity and reliability. The reliability testing for the second pilot showed high $\alpha = .95$. Similarly, high reliability outcomes were obtained for the individual components of the survey. Along with its pilot-testing, feedback was elicited from professors and students to improve further the validity of the survey. The final version of MCFLC was administered to college students enrolled in advanced and beginning Spanish courses taught at WSC.

Summary of the Results

Here is a brief summary of the results and details of the findings:

1. College students in advanced FL classes had higher levels of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation.

2. Students with higher levels of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation in both groups were more willing to continue their FL learning than their peers.
3. All of the participants displayed higher levels of primary-goal motivation than secondary-goal motivation.
4. Participants in the advanced group had more secondary-goal motivation than their peers in the beginning group.
5. Socializing primary-goal, appreciative primary-goal, and facilitative secondary-goal kinds of motivation were indentified as forms of the *motivation to gain foreign language skills*.
6. Provisional secondary-goal motivation was identified as the motivation most instrumental in taking FL courses for reasons other than to learn foreign language.

Discussion of Findings

Research Question 1

Do college language learners in advanced foreign-language courses have higher levels of primary and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than the learners who are in beginning foreign- language courses?

Discussion of the findings for Research Question 1

The analysis of MCFLC data indicates that language learners in advanced FL classes had higher primary goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than the learners in beginning courses. The independent-samples *t* tests that were

conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that college students in advanced FL classes had more PGM and FSGM than beginning level FL students clearly confirmed the hypothesis. The t tests results were significant, $t(58)$ for PGM = 9.37, $p < .000$; and, $t(58)$ for FSGM = 10.42, $p < .000$. The η^2 indicated that 60% of the variance of the PGM and 65% of the variance of FSGM, respectively, was explained by whether the student was at the advanced or beginning level of FL learning.

Research Question 2

Are college language students in beginning and advanced FL courses with higher levels of both primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation likely to express a willingness to continue their foreign-language learning?

Discussion of the findings for Research Question 2

The findings derived from the statistical analysis demonstrated conclusively that FL students in both the beginning and advanced FL classes with higher levels of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal motivation expressed the willingness to continue their FL learning. The results of the correlational analysis indicated significantly high levels of correlation of PGM, $r(46) = .79$, $p < .01$, and FSGM, $r(46) = .81$, $p < .01$, with the WCFLL for the students with higher levels of PGM and FSGM. The obtained results were similar to the findings of other studies (Ramage, 1990; Gardner et al., 1978; Clément et al., 1977; 1980). Thus, the results confirmed that college FL students with higher levels of PGM and FSGM were willing to

continue their FL education. If one takes for granted the assumption that more voluntary acquisition of new information equals more learning, then those motivated students who choose to continue their FL studies are likely to be more successful than their less motivated peers. In effect, the confirmed link between PGM, FSGM and the WCFLL seems to support previous research (Noels et al., 2001; Gardner et al., 1985).

Gardner, Dörnyei, Noels and their colleagues discovered that certain types of motivation had a positive impact on the rate of success in second/FL acquisition. For Gardner (1985), *integrative* motivation was instrumental in students' ability to achieve success in L2 learning. Similarly, Noels et al., (2001) claimed that *intrinsic* motivation was tied ultimately to students' abilities to succeed in acquiring the target language. She also found that specific types of extrinsic motivation, such as *identified regulations* and *integrated regulations*, were similar to intrinsic motivation in some cases. While constructs of primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal motivation are different from the concepts used by Gardner and Noels, one can discern certain similarities between them and PGM and FSGM. One may also draw parallels between the characteristics of Dörnyei's (2005) concept of the *ideal L2 self* and its role in language learning and the confirmed relationship between PGM/FSGM and the willingness to continue pursuing language learning.

At the same time, the research findings for Questions 1 and 2 provided unequivocal support for the use of motivation constructs to describe different types of motivation in FL acquisition. My objective for defining new concepts to describe

motivation in foreign language (at the college level) was two-fold: 1) to provide a simpler description of motivation in FL learning; 2) to make an assessment of motivation in FL acquisition more straightforward. My reasons for creating the new concepts and the questionnaire were based on assumption that the definition of motivation in L2 should not be derived from the factors that affect motivation, but rather from its principal parts. Arguably, a number of variables influence motivation in L2. But, the question is whether those variables describe the meaning of motivation. Do *attitudes* towards L2 define what motivation is? Does *self-determination* in L2 define what motivation is? Or can those factors be considered as *impact factors* rather than *principal components* of motivation? Similarly, my goal for defining the concepts was not to offer an abridged version of the existing motivation terms; instead, I tried to capture what seemed to be the essence of motivation in college FL courses. A precise and concise definition of the motivation construct and its forms can increase the reliability and generalizability of its measurements (e.g., as in this study). In this sense, researchers can always expand the scope of what they measure by adding more variables, but it may be challenging to apply the constructs containing multiple measurements to every particular scenario. For instance, Au (1988) doubted the reliability of AMTB due to the fact that researchers use some of its parts, but not as a whole instrument.

As mentioned earlier, the meanings of the concepts of primary-goal and secondary-goal kinds of motivation run parallel to such well-known concepts as integrative/instrumental types of motivation and intrinsic/extrinsic types of

motivation. However, for the purposes of this study, it was necessary to formulate the constructs to describe and assess motivation in a simple and straightforward manner. This is not to say that similar results may not be found with the current terms of motivation. And, in fact, for this very reason, one may consider conducting a comparison study using both the concepts of this study and the existing motivational terms (e.g., intrinsic/extrinsic types of motivation). It is also obvious that the results of the study demonstrated unambiguously the applicability of the constructs of PGM and SGM for describing motivation in college FL courses. In a similar fashion, the research findings confirmed the strong validity and reliability of the MCFLC questionnaire for measuring motivation in language learning. In the following section, I provide a brief summary of the definitions of the aforementioned concepts (integrative/instrumental, intrinsic/extrinsic) and point out differences between those terms and my motivational constructs.

As discussed, Gardner's definition of *integrative* in his concepts of integrative orientation, *integrative motivation*, and *integrativeness* spurred a certain amount of controversy as to what the terms meant. Similarly, some of the scholars in the field also found confusing the difference between *integrative* motivation and his other concept – instrumental motivation. Using Gardner's (Gardner and Lambert, 1972) earlier definition, instrumental motivation can be interpreted as a specific type of extrinsic motivation (i.e., to gain economic benefits, achieve social status). Gardner (1985) himself admitted that the division between the original concepts of *instrumental* and *integrative* orientations was not clear. Indeed, he (Gardner, 1985)

stated that instrumental motivation could be considered as a part of integrative motivation. In short, Gardner described motivation as a composite of three main elements: positive attitudes towards the target language, display of motivational intensity in learning L2, and the desire to learn it. For its part, integrative motivation referred to a combination of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation. Integrativeness was comprised of attitudes toward the FL community, interest in learning other languages, and integrative orientation.

The other prominent motivational concepts in SLA were those of intrinsic/extrinsic types of motivation (Noels et al., 2001; 2000). Although the concepts were somewhat different from Gardner's terms, Noels indicated possible links between integrative/instrumental types of motivation and intrinsic/extrinsic types of motivation. For instance, integrative motivation could be considered as intrinsic motivation when the individual experienced satisfaction from the process. On the other hand, integrative motivation could be categorized under extrinsic motivation if some external rewards were involved. The main difference between Gardner's and Noels' concepts was the focus of the latter on choice and competence. Deci and Ryan (1985) defined intrinsic motivation as engagement in activity for its own sake.

Conversely, extrinsic motivation referred to engagement in an activity to receive external incentives. The researchers assigned several subcategories to each of the motivational types. For example, intrinsic motivation consisted of: *knowledge* related; *accomplishment* related; and *stimulation* related (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Extrinsic motivation could also be classified as *external regulation* and *introjected regulation*. Deci and Ryan (1985) also added *identified regulation* and *integrated regulation* as subcategories of extrinsic motivation. Finally, the authors also described the concept of absence of motivation or *amotivation*. For Deci and Ryan (1985), several different types of extrinsic motivation existed on the continuum of “internalization” and “integration.”

As indicated, my constructs of motivation are different in certain aspects from both Gardner’s and Noels’ definitions. (Refer to Figure 6 to see graphical representation of the Model of Motivation in College Foreign-Language Courses. This is the first study that explained and measured these particular forms of motivation (primary-goal and secondary-goal forms of motivation) and their components (e.g., motivational eagerness). To start with, I define *motivation* in terms of its two main components – that is, motivation can be considered as: 1) reasons for learning foreign language (to achieve specific goals); 2) eagerness or commitment of time and efforts to acquire the target language.

My concept of *motivation in foreign language (college courses)* – includes primary-goal and secondary-goal form of motivation. By implication, both the reasons and eagerness/commitment components are based on the “sole” goal of acquiring or studying foreign languages. Similarly, the *motivation to gain foreign language skills* is the motivation to acquire a certain proficiency in a foreign language.

The Motivation to Gain Foreign Language Skills scale consists of socializing primary-goal, appreciative primary-goal, and facilitative secondary-goal subscales that highly correlate amongst each other. For instance, the correlation coefficients were: $r = .97$ for SPGM and APMG, $r = .96$ for SPGM and FSGM, and $r = .96$ for APMG and FSGM, $p < .01$. The Cronbach alpha score for the MGFLS scales, including the indices for all three types of the MGFLS, was high with $\alpha = .97$.

I assume that learners can have different amounts of several types of motivation at the same time (e.g., to have higher primary-goal and lower secondary-goal types of motivation). Amounts and types of motivation in foreign language (college courses) present in learners continually fluctuate due to the influence of multiple internal and external factors. In this sense, my concepts of motivation do not exclude each other. In other words, as the results of the study demonstrated, it is possible for learners to have both PGM and SGM at the same time.

Thus, I do not preclude the assumption that someone may be motivated to learn a language even though he or she does not express explicitly *positive attitudes towards learning foreign language* or display *autonomy* in FL acquisition. Likewise, the concept of *primary-goal motivation* has a different connotation than the integrative/intrinsic pair. PGM can be described as *being eager or committed to learn a foreign language for reasons of communication with speakers of the target language and/or for aesthetic and intellectual reasons*. In other words, the construct only partially resonates with *integrative* characteristics of *integrative motivation*. In addition, the definition of *socializing primary-goal reasons* has a more specific focus

than integrative orientation. Specifically, SPGR refers to learning a foreign language for reasons of communication with the FL interlocutors rather than for becoming like native speakers.

Primary-goal motivation also incorporates *appreciative primary-goal motivation*. The closest term to the APGM meaning is that of intrinsic motivation. However, the notion of communication with native speakers (the premise of SPGM) seems to correspond with the meaning of extrinsic motivation than intrinsic motivation. Neither do I expect that learners with APGM need to experience the sense of *flow* that Deci and Ryan (1985) attribute to intrinsically motivated people; nor do I assign APGM “autonomy” and “self-determination” features present in intrinsic motivation. I simply depict *appreciative primary-goal motivation* as *the eagerness or commitment to learn the target language for aesthetic and intellectual reasons*.

In the same vein, one can also recognize comparable differences between my construct of *secondary-goal motivation* and instrumental/intrinsic pair of concepts. Undoubtedly, secondary-goal motivation refers to more “external” types of motivation. On the other hand, as is case with primary-goal motivation, secondary motivation has a different meaning from that of instrumental or extrinsic types of motivation. In other words, secondary-goal motivation is in a similar category as instrumental and extrinsic motivation but has a different connotation. As discussed earlier, the main difference between instrumental/extrinsic types of motivation and secondary-goal motivation is in what motivation means.

In addition, one may argue that SGM has a more expansive definition rather than learning language for obtaining economic and social status (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). *Secondary-goal motivation can be interpreted as being eager or committed to study the foreign language to use as a vehicle in order to achieve other goals.* In other words, the definition of SGM alludes to many variations of external types of motivation (e.g., college course requirements, economic benefits). At the same time, SGM refers to external forms of motivation without attempting to explain different degrees of *internalization* (Noel et al., 2001). In addition, SGM can be described in two categories, whereas extrinsic motivation includes four different categories.

Its first category is defined as *facilitative secondary-goal motivation, or being eager to acquire language to procure certain side benefits.* On the other hand, *provisional secondary-goal motivation* refers to *being committed to study the foreign language for only short periods of time and only to satisfy certain requirements.* In general, SGM categorizes external types of motivation into motivation to gain foreign language skills (FSGM) and motivation based on reasons other than learning the foreign language (PSGM).

Although it seems that integrative/intrinsic and instrumental/extrinsic types of motivation appear to include more variables, it may be shortsighted to claim that those terms explain L2 motivation in its totality. As many SLA scholars may agree, language has a complex and dynamic structure. In turn, motivation to acquire a language would involve a great number of continually fluctuating and interacting

variables. As a result, every new study of motivation in foreign language presents new scenarios for researchers. Thus, I formulated the new constructs and designed the new instrument to identify and evaluate specific forms of motivation in one such scenario. The results of the study demonstrated plainly the high validity and reliability of both the concepts and the survey.

Furthermore, since my perception of motivation is different than the ones used in other studies, it was necessary to employ my own concepts and instrument in order to explain and assess motivation in college FL settings. In sum, the implied similarities and differences between the constructs devised for this study and the ones appearing in the research literature need to be corroborated with future research studies. At the same time, it is important to consider both the existing and newly-defined variables to be more effective in one's research.

Question 3

Do college students at all levels of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than primary-goal motivation?

Discussion of the findings for Question 3

The findings for Question 3 indicated that college students at both levels of FL courses had more primary-goal motivation than secondary-goal motivation.

I used a paired-samples t test to assess the hypothesis that FL college students in both groups had higher levels of SGM than PGM. The test results were significant, $t(59) = 3.08$, $p < .003$, but the results were found to counter the research

hypothesis. Students at both levels on average seemed to have higher levels of PGM ($M = 63.65$) than SGM ($M = 59.75$).

So, how was it possible that college students tended to demonstrate higher levels of PGM than SGM? Given the data from the recent MLA survey conducted in 2006, one may argue that that college students enrolled in FL courses because they were externally motivated. Based on the report, one might attribute a sudden jump in the number of college students (up 126%) wanting to learn Chinese to those learners' facilitative secondary-goal reasons (e.g., due to strong economic ties between the U.S. and China). By the same token, the outcomes of the analysis of MLA data clearly pointed to the fact that most of the students only took the introductory level of FL courses. In other words, a greater part of the college student population took courses for provisional secondary-goal reasons.

One of the explanations as to why the answer was obtained that was different than the one hypothesized was because provisional secondary-goal reasons did not contribute to the overall construct of secondary-goal motivation. In fact, the Pearson correlation test failed to show any significant correlations with SGM, $r(58) = .00, p < .98$. Moreover, the same correlation test results displayed significant negative correlations for PSGR with FSGM (the other type of SGM), $r(58) = -.44, p < .01$ and with facilitative secondary-goal reasons for acquiring foreign language, $r(58) = -.40, p < .01$. The findings of correlation analysis also illustrated a significant negative relationship between PSGR and motivational eagerness, $r(58) = -.45, p < .01$. In this sense, students with higher levels of PSGR were less committed to learning the

foreign language than the rest of their peers. Not surprisingly, the results demonstrated that PSGR was the only one to have a negative correlation with the willingness to continue FL learning, $r(58) = -.60$.

The implication of this analysis is that provisional secondary-goal reasons for studying foreign language should be considered separately from other motivational reasons defined in this research. Based on the discussed results, my assumption is that motivation for learning a foreign language should be looked at as a separate concept from the motivation for taking language courses based on provisional secondary-goal reasons (as defined in the study).

Table 1. *Correlations of PSGR*

Type of Motivation	Secondary-goal Motivation	Facilitative Secondary-goal Reasons	Motivational Eagerness	Facilitative Secondary-goal Motivation	Provisional Secondary-goal Motivation
Provisional Secondary-goal Reasons	.00	-.40**	-.45**	-.44**	.36**

** $p < .01$

Perhaps formulating the provisional secondary-goal form of motivation as an independent type of secondary-goal motivation may serve this purpose. PSGM seems to encompass a type of motivation that is contradictory to studying foreign languages. In fact, PSGR had negative correlations with both types of primary-goal motivation, $r(58) = -.40$ and $r(58) = -.46$ respectively. In other words, provisional

secondary-goal reasons for studying foreign language should be considered separately from the other motivational reasons defined in this research.

As the outcomes of the correlation analysis illustrated, PSGR were negatively related to motivational elements promoting language learning (e.g. motivational commitment). In other words, one cannot expect to learn a foreign language by choosing not to put in the necessary time and work to succeed. Yet, one takes for granted that some of the college students are taking FL courses for provisional secondary-goal reasons. It is even more important to remember that those students can still “transform” PSGM into a form of *motivation to gain foreign language skills*. Thus, it may be necessary to keep PSGM as a type of motivation in FL learning. Arguably, the definition of PSGM as *begin committed to the target language for only short periods of time and only to satisfy certain requirements* remains pertinent given the findings. However, I propose to re-define the original construct of PSGM to include a different ME (see Figure 6) component.

One assumes that the students who lacked the motivation to gain foreign language skills still put forth the time and efforts to achieve their goals; that is, they studied long enough to fulfill the FL requirement. In this context, the ME component of PSGM refers to the time and efforts undertaken to support their PSGR. Striving to obtain a satisfactory grade may be an example of this kind of ME. Thus, while PSGM does not play a complementary role to MGFLS types of motivation, it still may be considered as part of SGM.

Question 4

Do college students at the beginning level of foreign language acquisition have more secondary-goal motivation than students at the advanced level?

Discussion of the findings for Question 4

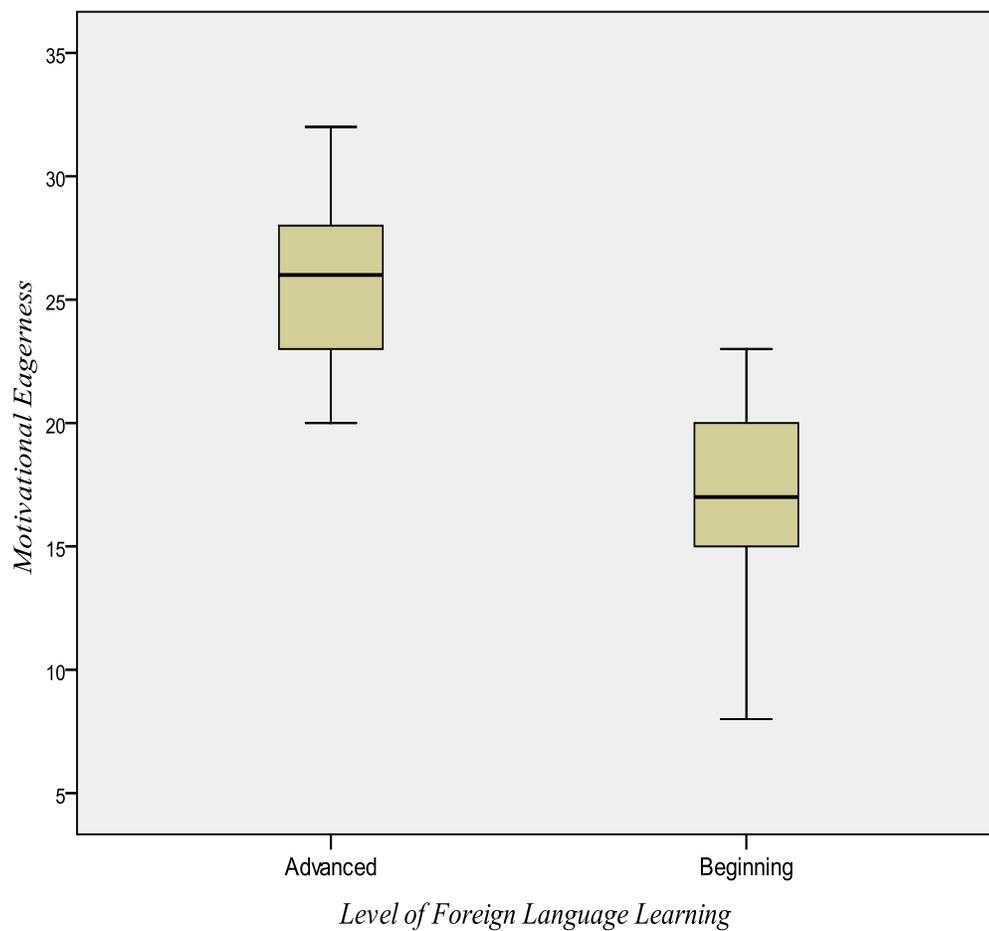
I calculated an independent-samples t test to examine the hypothesis that students in the beginning level of FL classes had more secondary-goal motivation than FL college students in the advanced classes. The test results were significant, $t(58) = 4.89, p < .000$, but the test outcomes contradicted the assumptions of the research hypothesis. The outcome of the t test indicated that college students in advanced FL classes had higher levels of SGM than their counterparts in beginning classes. The eta square index indicated that 29% of the variance of SGM was dependent on whether the students were in the beginning or advanced FL classes.

The findings appeared to support the explanation as to why students might have higher levels of PGM rather than SGM. Based on the results of the earlier correlation analysis, the factor of provisional secondary-goal reasons demonstrated negative relationships with SGM, as well as with the other integral components of SGM. Furthermore, the two components of the secondary-goal motivation construct seemed to measure two different rather than complimentary types of SGM.

In fact, I found further evidence supporting the above assumption by conducting another independent sample t test to test the existence of significant differences in motivational eagerness between advanced and beginning levels of participant groups. The test confirmed a considerable gap favoring advanced level

FL students, $t(57) = 9.49$, $p < .000$. The test numbers indicated that the advanced students ($M = 25.70$) tended on average to be more committed to learning the foreign language than beginning level students ($M = 16.60$). The index η^2 showed that 61% of the variance of the ME factor was due to whether the student was in the beginning or advanced levels of FL classes. Figure 7 provides the illustration of differences in ME levels between the two groups.

Figure 7. *Differences in ME between the groups*

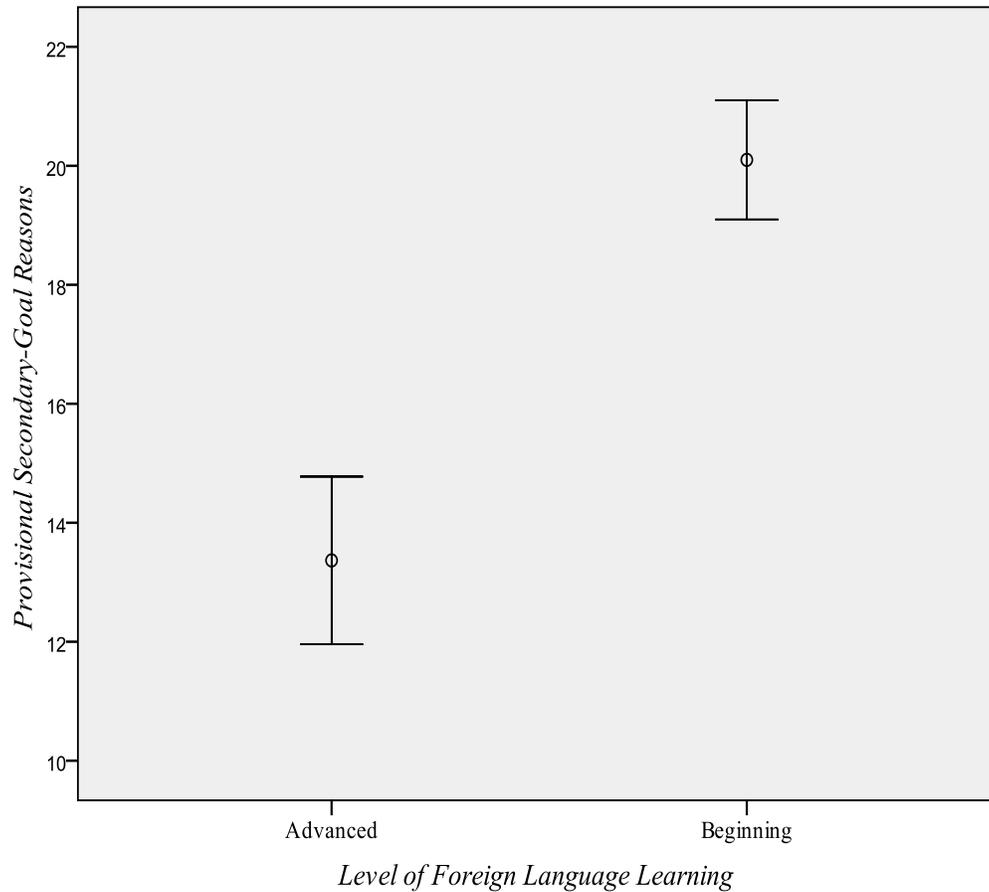


The lack of ME combined with the lack of facilitative secondary-goal motivation might explain why, despite displaying significantly higher levels of PSGR, $t(52) = -7.97, p < .000$, students in beginning classes ($M = 20.10$) still trailed their fellow students in advanced classes ($M = 13.37$) in overall levels of SGM. The eta square index revealed that 52% of the variance of PSGR was dependent on whether the student was in beginning or advanced FL classes. Refer to Figure 8 for the illustration of differences in PSGR between the participant groups. Thus, the students who had provisional secondary-goal motivational reasons for taking FL courses were less likely to be motivated to invest time and efforts to learn the target language.

Furthermore, the reliability test for the provisional secondary-goal motivation category yielded the lowest alpha score ($\alpha = .60$) among all of the motivational scales, including the index for facilitative secondary-goal motivation. In fact, Cronbach $\alpha = .94$ for FSGM strongly overshadows the reliability alpha score of that of provisional secondary-goal motivation. The lower alpha scores can be explained in part by negative correlations existing between parts of PSGM, namely ME and PSGR. In some ways, the negative relationships between PSGR and ME may be interpreted to support the notion of PSGM as *amotivation*. For instance, Vallerand and Bissonnette (1992) found that the factor of amotivation in their study was “negatively related to persistence” (p. 613). In this sense, “people are motivated to move their actual self as far away as possible” from what they are trying to avoid (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, p. 276). In fact, the reliability alpha scores of

PSGM tended to increase proportionally when I removed the items belonging to the PSGR scale.

Figure 8. *Differences in PSGR between the groups*



According to the results of the correlation analysis in the earlier discussion, PSGM had a negative relationship with other components of the secondary-goal motivation (e.g. facilitative motivation reasons). In other words, the two components of secondary-goal motivation construct seemed to measure two different types of secondary-goal motivation. Furthermore, a substantial difference in

reliability scores between the two categories of SGM (PSGM and FSGM) may support the above claim of designating PSGM as a stand-alone secondary-goal motivation separate from FSGM. Furthermore, the findings also supported the argument of conceptualizing provisional secondary-goal motivation as a motivational construct separate from other types of *motivation to gain foreign-language skills*.

Implications for Foreign Language Teachers

Implications for Question 1

The findings based on Question 1 confirmed that college students at the advanced level of FL acquisition had more primary-goal and facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation than their fellow students at the beginning level of FL learning. These outcomes may be used as a reference point for designing, teaching, and assessing class material that maintains and furthers PGM and FSGM among the students in advanced level courses. For example, Dörnyei (2007) affirmed that “long-term, sustained learning – such as the acquisition of an L2 – cannot take place unless the educational context” ensures “sufficient inspiration and enjoyment to build up continuing motivation” in language learners (p. 720). For instance, students may be interested in acquiring specialized vocabulary related to their future careers.

Likewise, students’ primary-goal motivation may be higher if they are exposed to more opportunities to learn about the culture and history of a country in which the target language is spoken. In fact, the descriptive data showed that the

average students' response scores on items related to the native culture and society were somewhat low compared to the average of other items in the PGM and FSGM scales. Arguably, language and culture are closely intertwined. FL scholars, such as Durocher (2007), alleged that “without an understanding of what it is” that described “culturally characteristic behavior,” people with different cultural backgrounds “will continue to misunderstand” one another, even if they could communicate fluently in “each other’s languages” (p. 144). Thus, instructors may be able to strengthen advanced students' PGM and FSGM by linking topics relevant to the FL culture and people.

Foreign-language teachers may, for instance, have their students listen to popular music, watch movies, and discuss current events. Another implication is that, since the students in beginning classes had lower levels of PGM and FSGM, class material may need to develop strategies to foster the forms of the *motivation to gain foreign language skills*. Scaffolding-based instruction can incite students with a lower level of motivation to open up to learning a foreign language. Scaffolding approaches are derived from Vygotsky's (1987; 1978) construct of “zone of proximal development” or ZPD.

Scaffolding makes learning material accessible and achievable through the continuous guidance of the classroom instructor. Or as Gibbons (2002) described it, scaffolding refers to providing L2 learners with temporary assistance “to move towards new skills, concepts, or levels of understanding” (p. 10). As a result, scaffolding helps learners make a transition from the “actual development” level to

the “proximal development” (Vygotsky, 1987; 1978) level with the help of a knowledgeable person – in this case, a foreign-language teacher. In fact, Vygotsky (1987; 1978) defined the *zone of proximal development* as a learner’s potential that can be achieved with knowledgeable guidance. In his observation of learners, he found that they could accomplish tasks beyond their actual abilities when their learning was geared towards the zone of proximal development. Vygotsky (1987) summed it up by stating that “instruction is only useful when it moves ahead of development” (p. 212). ZPD- oriented instruction spurs functional growth which allows the learner to be able to comprehend concepts beyond their current knowledge level. For Vygotsky (1987), “what lies in the zone of proximal development at one stage is realized and moves to the level of actual development at a second” (p. 211).

In turn, FL teachers can possibly enhance levels of motivation among beginning level students by continually guiding them in classroom activities. However, guidance does not imply control of what students do; rather, it is assisting when it is necessary and providing appropriate advice. An example of such guidance would be integrating foreign language into their favorite activities. Provided that the new generation of students are drawn increasingly to communication occurring *online* (e.g. via cell phones, internet, different wireless gadgets), the instruction of foreign language may be more *in-tune* with the students if it comes in some form of wireless technology.

For some time now, e-learning (digital learning) has been gaining prominence even among well-known research institutions all over the country. Smith (2004) affirmed that “on-line and distance learning courses are now offered in some form at many if not most universities” (p. 30). Furthermore, a number of scholarly works (Bohlke, 2003; Smith, 2003) suggests that online communication tools such as web-based chats affect L2 learning positively. Similarly, SLA scholars like Payne and Whitney (2002) asserted that learners using a chat type of communication tended to produce “much more language” than “is possible in most conventional classroom settings” (p. 24). Other SLA scholars, such as Sotillo (2000) already contended that some types of online communication resembled a face-to-face interchange. For her, this kind of web-based communication tended “to encourage communicative fluency, which is generally understood as a quality of oral communication” (p. 102). Consequently, instructors may be able to improve students’ motivation in learning L2 if they take advantage of students’ fascination with new technological *toys*: smart phones, computer tablets, and other wireless devices.

Furthermore, participants’ responses to some of the survey items indicated some of the areas in FL classroom instruction could be enhanced with the new technology. One of the items that garnered a lower score total ($M = 2.43$) than other items in its category refers to enjoyment of reading in the target language. Specifically, students’ responses at the beginning level ($M = 1.83$) confirmed that, for the most part, they were not interested in reading books in the target language.

Perhaps this is due to a lack of sufficient vocabulary in the target language or due to lack of desire to read. It is possible that instructors may be able to encourage the students to read more if the reading of class material can be enhanced using existing technology (e.g. pictures linked to the text).

Implications for Question 2

The results ensuing from the analysis of data for Question 2 clearly demonstrated strong correlations between higher levels of primary-goal/facilitative secondary-goal forms of motivation and the willingness to continue language learning in the future. This is an important finding both for FL teachers and researchers in the field.

It is a given that FL students are likely to do better academically if they choose voluntarily to continue acquiring the target language. Furthermore, one may argue that for the success equation to work in this particular scenario, not only do students need to be willing to continue learning the language, but they also need to be motivated. As a result, teachers can help their students acquire more language by continually finding ways to heighten students' primary-goal and facilitative-secondary goal motivation.

One of the more effective ways to elevate levels of students' motivation is by transforming class activities into meaningful learning. Many other researchers and educators have made strong arguments for building cogent and comprehensible links between classroom information and situations in the real world. For instance,

instructors may make the information more meaningful by including role-playing and simulation type of activities. Role-playing can be defined as “a classroom activity which gives the student the opportunity to practice the language, the aspect of role behavior, and the actual roles he may need outside the classroom” (Livingstone 1982, p. 6). Likewise, simulation activities offer opportunities to practice scenarios in the target language that are “constructed from descriptions of real-life situations” (Joyce, B., Weil, M., and Calhoun, E, 2004, p. 34). In general, role-playing activities have the potential to transform connections between classroom knowledge and the outside world into tangible links while making FL learning an enjoyable experience. In the same vein, Brown (2007) thought that students are likely to find “much more spontaneity” and would be “encouraged to deal with an unrehearsed situation under the guidance, but not control, of the teacher” (p. 242). Such guidance includes setting a personal example with their actions (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Furthermore, FL teachers may increase students’ motivation through “task-based” instruction that is based on various meaningful and authentic information-based tasks students perform in language classrooms. As Skehan (2003) defined it, a task is “an activity which requires learners to use language” in order to “attain an objective” (p. 3). In sum, teaching foreign language in purposeful ways may both increase the levels of motivation in students and establish the belief in the usefulness of learning another language. At the same time, the study findings also indicated that, despite lacking higher levels of MGFLS (e.g., primary-goal motivation), most

($n = 41$) of all of the students were willing to continue their FL education to some extent. In fact, more than half ($n = 34$) of all of the participants expressed clearly their desires to continue FL learning until they were fluent. This finding emphasizes the need for teachers to help their students to stay motivated in FL learning.

Moreover, instructors may be able to structure lesson plans to motivate learners to achieve their goals in language acquisition. Sometimes educators face greater challenges when students lack goals and motivation. In this particular case, it helps that students want to continue learning the language. Teachers may look for ways to structure their lesson to create what Egbert (2003) described as the “flow” experience. *Flow* can be referred to as a state of one’s complete immersion and enjoyment of an activity (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989). Deci and Ryan (1985) compared this type of occurrence to “some of the purer instances of intrinsic motivation” (p. 29). In other words, those who experience the “flow” effect may feel exceptionally captivated by what they are doing. For Egbert, students might experience “flow” in learning the target language if teachers: presented suitable challenges, included interesting tasks, provided immediate feedback, kept the class focused, and allowed enough time to learn new information. However, since FL learning “is a complex task”, it may be “unclear what kinds of challenges may promote or prohibit flow” (Egbert, 2003, p. 504). Thus, teachers may choose to tailor challenges to an individual’s language proficiency levels.

At the same time, teachers who are able to illustrate to students how they can be successful in learning foreign language can instigate students’ primary-goal

and/or facilitative secondary-goal types of motivation. Learners may be more motivated if they can experience the target culture first-hand. For instance, the teacher may bring a native speaker to class to talk about specific customs, organize a cook-a-native-meal day, or discuss slang expressions in the target language to spark primary-goal motivation in students. Likewise, the instructor may discuss topics related to communication rituals in the workplace, jargon specific to different professions, native speakers' perceptions of their fellow non-native speaker work colleagues, and many other similar themes in order to spur facilitative secondary-goal motivation in learners.

Interestingly, the results of the Pearson correlation test for Question 2 gave a slight edge of the higher correlation degree between motivation and willingness to continue FL learning to facilitative secondary-goal motivation with $r(46) = .81$ over PGM with $r(46) = .79$. In effect, the results showed that college students with higher levels of FSGM were more likely to continue FL learning than all other students. In turn, teachers may consider constructing lessons that allow students to exercise FSGM in accomplishing their goals in FL acquisition. However, this is not an argument for revamping one's syllabus to be FSGM oriented, but rather a suggestion to be aware of the role of facilitative secondary-goal motivation in how it relates to students' desire to continue their FL learning. For example, a teacher may administer an assessment to students to find out more about their career aspirations. Then the instructor may decide to include linguistic information in his/her lessons that is related to students' careers based on the information students provide.

Among other methods, educators may choose to explore special themes in the target language focused on students' future careers. For example, if some of the students are interested in pursuing careers in physics and mathematics, FL teachers may familiarize themselves with certain topics in physics and mathematics through collaboration with their colleagues in teaching those subjects. As a result, FL lessons may have more appeal to those students who acquire language primarily for facilitative secondary-goal reasons. Aside from that, this type of inter-subject or inter-departmental collaborations may also be advantageous not only to students in FL classes, but also to students in other departments involved in the partnership. Thus, cooperation among teachers may help to create more concrete and accurate assessments of students' needs across the department.

Implications for Question 3

Since the findings based on test analyses for Question 3 pointed to the fact that all participants had more primary-goal motivation than secondary-goal motivation, one might be tempted to think that students were less motivated about learning language for secondary-goal reasons (e.g. better-paying jobs). One of the reasons why the results were different was because the concept of provisional secondary-goal reasons seemed to be at odds with the overall construct of secondary-goal motivation. In fact, the Pearson correlation tests failed to show any significant correlations of PSGR with the SGM or its constituents. Notably, the findings of the same correlation test also illustrated the highest negative relationship PSGR had with

a component – motivational eagerness – deemed essential in this study for any construct to be formulated as a kind of motivation. In other words, the test results signified that students with higher levels of PSGR were likely to exert the least efforts and spent the least amount of time to learn a foreign language.

Therefore, the main implication for Question 3 is that provisional secondary-goal motivation for studying FL should be considered separately from the other types of motivation defined in this research. Perhaps designating FSGM and PSGM as standalone categories of secondary-goal motivation may serve this purpose. However, the separation of SGM categories should not be interpreted as separating PSGM from the consideration of motivational factors in FL learning. It is obvious that some of the college students who are taking FL courses are motivated by PSGR.

One may argue further that the students who lack the motivational commitment to learn a foreign language still put in a considerable amount of time and effort to fulfill their PSGR-based goals. In this context, the ME component of PSGM may be defined as efforts undertaken to support PSGR. Striving to obtain a satisfactory grade may be an example of this kind of ME. Another important factor is the fact that many colleges and universities in the US and around the world have a FL requirement for matriculation. However, it is possible that students who take FL courses to fulfill college requirements cannot *transform* PSGM into a kind of *motivation to gain foreign language skills* (e.g. primary-goal motivation). Without a doubt, educators face a very challenging task in their attempts to help students transform their PSGM into MGFLS. Yet, one can argue that the students who are in

the FL classroom for provisional secondary-goal reasons provide teachers with opportunities to change their minds about the target language and culture by fostering understanding. In fact, Dörnyei (2007) asserted that the “motivational character of the classroom” was defined “largely” by “teacher’s motivation teaching practice” (p. 726). It may be a point of contention how much motivational power an average FL teacher wields. However, it is reasonable to assume that instructors are able to exert a certain amount of influence on their students.

Unless they are “singularly fortunate with the composition of our class group”, teachers need to look for ways to “actively generate positive student attitudes towards L2 learning” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 727). At the same time, Dörnyei (Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2007) recently demonstrated significant correlations between learners’ motivation and teachers’ motivational classroom practices. Understanding students’ needs may be one of the effective ways to motivate students. For instance, in the first couple of weeks of the course, the instructor may choose to collect information related to students’ experience with language courses.

Often, students resist taking language due to unfavorable past experiences in FL courses. Consequently, students’ attitude toward the subject can be changed by creating a positive and constructive learning environment. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) suggested establishing a nurturing and enjoyable classroom environment. In general, teachers and students can mutually benefit if the teacher attempts to have good relationships with the students. The instructor may also employ techniques that validate students’ previously learned linguistic knowledge by relating it to class

material. Dörnyei (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998) called for increasing “the learners’ linguistic self-confidence” to help them be more motivated (p. 216).

Teachers could also incorporate many in-group activities. It is given that students tend to learn from their peers, especially from the ones who know more than they do. For Vygotsky’s (1987), “the distance between the actual developmental level and the level of potential development” was not only determined under “adult guidance” but also “in collaboration with more capable peers” (p. 86). In this sense, teachers may be able to motivate the students who are taking FL courses for provisional reasons by involving them in group work with their highly motivated peers. However, group activities may still need to be guided to ensure an equal amount of contribution from each group member.

Possibly one of the more effective methods to promote learning is by helping students to turn L2 knowledge into practical application. Many learners appreciate the ability to apply what they have learned in class right away. In a nutshell, FL learning should not be taught as a basic rote memorization of words, but rather in more interactive and meaningful ways. Brown (2007) noted FL teaching should “use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts,” while the linguistic tasks should be oriented to “engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes” (p. 241). The general emphasis in FL instruction needs to be on engaging students with the target language and culture.

Furthermore, teachers may also ask students about their career aspirations and discuss how acquiring the target language can help students in their future jobs. Again, the emphasis is to enhance students' understanding of the potential usefulness and meaningfulness of FL learning in what students do or will do in the future. In a similar fashion, scholars such as Ramage (1990) argued that students might become more motivated to learn a foreign language if schools change the status of foreign languages from a required number of courses to the attainment of a certain level of proficiency. She also made the case for not only changing how schools needed to consider languages, but also to find ways to help students to embrace the idea of becoming proficient in a foreign language.

At the same time, sufficient time and effort need to be allocated to create opportunities for students to pursue their goals for primary-goal reasons. Obviously, the FL learning environment is greatly enriched when instructors are able to introduce authentic materials (e.g. cultural artifacts, inviting native speakers to class). As part of building a positive outlook on language learning, teachers can use simulation exercises to help learners practice their skills in real-world type situations. Acquiring another language also involves the acquisition of culture through cultural connotations embedded in the language itself.

Hence, students' primary-goal motivation may increase if they are exposed to more occasions where they can experience the target culture (e.g. music, artwork). The American Teachers of Foreign Language (ATFL) website states that: "The performing arts are wonderful instruments for language instruction because they

incorporate different learning styles and intelligence types engaging the whole person in verbal and nonverbal multi-sensory ways of self-expression and communication.” For instance, teachers may consider including musical works in the target language. Along with getting acquainted with the music of other cultures, students can become more motivated if they can use song lyrics to improve their language skills. Similarly, teachers may encourage students to join student clubs that promote the target language learning (e.g. Spanish club). In addition, the learner may be more motivated if they have opportunities to practice the target language outside of the class time. For example, those students who indicated that they try to communicate in the target language after class (e.g., during conversation hour), had high levels of primary-goal motivation.

Implications for Question 4

The findings for Question 4 appeared to be similar to the results obtained from paired sample *t* test results conducted for Question 3. The results showed the opposite of the hypothesized proposal that students in beginning FL courses are likely to have higher levels of secondary-goal motivation. Indeed, the findings clearly pointed to higher levels of SGM existing among college students enrolled in advanced FL courses. Furthermore, the findings for Question 1 clearly substantiated that college students in advanced FL classes have higher levels of facilitative secondary-goal motivation than the students in beginning FL classes. FL learners in

advanced classes also outperformed beginning level learners with respect to motivational eagerness.

In addition, the outcomes of another independent sample *t* test indicated that college students in beginning FL courses had higher scores of provisional secondary-goal reasons for studying the target language. However, this finding does not suggest a contradiction to the results of the main independent *t* test conducted for Question 4. One way to explain this perceived incongruence in the results of the two tests is by considering the concept of provisional secondary-goal reasons as it relates to the overall concept of the SGM construct. According to the results of the correlation analysis for Question 3, PSGR had a negative relationship with other components of the SGM.

Thus, while beginners may have higher levels of PSGR, they had lower levels of PSGM due to lower scores in other motivational categories affecting the overall construct of PSGM. In fact, a lack of motivational eagerness combined with low levels of facilitative secondary-goal motivation explained why beginners still trailed their fellow students in advanced FL courses in overall SGM levels. In light of these findings, I proposed earlier that the two components of the SGM construct needed to be considered apart from one another as they seemed to measure two different types of secondary-goal motivation. In addition, more studies need to be conducted to assert conclusively that advanced students have higher levels of SGM.

Nevertheless, the study results demonstrated that students in advanced FL courses had higher levels of motivational eagerness and facilitative secondary-goal

motivation. As a result, one suggests that teachers may encourage students at the advanced level to stay motivated by tailoring lesson plans to include material that affects students' FSGM. Among other things, teachers may facilitate in-group or in-pairs activities where students can communicate about traveling or studying where the target language is spoken. Many SLA scholars would agree that it is beneficial to introduce language learners to the target language culture. Teachers may also choose to share their personal experiences of trips or studying overseas. In the same manner, students can look over travel guides (read, watch videos, browse online), and then compose stories of imaginary travels to other countries. Teachers and students may also decide to take an actual trip abroad to experience the target language and culture first-hand. Study-abroad offices may be helpful in providing useful and detailed information for those trips.

In the meantime, one should not designate learners in beginning FL courses as lacking secondary-goal motivation. Although their fellow students in advanced FL classes had higher levels of SGM, beginning level students' SGM may still increase thanks to the instructor's efforts. Dörnyei (2001) suggested some general approaches teachers can use to motivate students. In general, teachers should attempt to incite student motivation in the following areas: increase students' expectancy of success, promote students' reasonable beliefs about their goals, to encourage students to be goal-oriented, to make class information relevant to students' needs and goals, and to reinforce individual values associated with learning L2 (Dörnyei, 2001). Likewise, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) also recommended that

L2 instructors: “promote learner autonomy”, “present the tasks properly”, and “make the language classes interesting” (215). As indicated, one of the primary ways to stimulate students’ types of motivation is by transforming the class into a positive and meaningful learning environment. Educators need to look for ways to link what students already know in the target language with the newly-acquired information.

In the same vein, teachers can influence students’ motivation by showing learners how to apply FL skills gained in the classroom to the real world. FL learning should be interactive and communicative. Learners should acquire what second language scholars have come to define as “communicative competence.” Savignon (1972) described communicative competence as “the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic” (p. 8). Savignon (1997) added that this type of ability also depended on “one’s understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind” (p. 15).

Thus, instructors can also encourage students to be motivated through creating context and experience in the target language relevant to students’ future career aspirations. In general, teachers are able to have more impact on learners’ motivation to acquire FL when they are aware of students’ background and their goals. In this sense, teachers may opt to administer a preliminary questionnaire to assess students’ background information. It is important also to “personalize the

learning process” for every language learner (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998, p. 217). Similar to the earlier suggestion, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) also propose adjusting course content to students’ needs in order to make the material more motivating. In this regard, I would recommend using the MCFLC questionnaire as a useful instrument for gathering such data.

Limitations

As expected, the results of this study largely supported the research hypotheses. On the other hand, some results of the analysis were different from the assumptions hypothesized in the research. Specifically, the study did not account for all of the motivational variables in SLA. Thus the study would need to be replicated in other equivalent settings to verify the validity and reliability of the research hypotheses. In order for the results of the study to be applied to the other languages and other language-learning environments (e.g. second- language environment), the study needs to be reproduced in those scenarios. The reliability of the results can be further confirmed with larger pools of future participants. Given the self-assessment nature of the instrument, it is also likely that some of the responses to the questionnaire items carry certain bias. Since the results of the study rely on the participant’s ability and willingness to evaluate items impartially, it is challenging to establish with absolute certainty the objectiveness of the outcomes. Despite efforts to use concise and precise wording and subject-relevant language, it would be fair to assume that some items may bear different connotations for every participant. This

especially rings true for participants whose first language is a language other than English. In addition, one may also argue that Likert-type scales cannot assess comprehensibly what respondents may think and feel about the specific items. In other words, it seems that a usual Likert-type scale offers fewer options than what an average person may take into account when considering a particular subject.

As discussed, motivation in FL learners is always subject to a multitude of internal and external factors, most of which vary over time. Describing motivation in FL is complicated further by the nature of language itself. Furthermore, the essence of language as an ever-changing and culturally-complex phenomenon limits the precision in definitions of motivation terms. . One may argue that the complexities of FL learning make it so much more challenging to define and apply constructs related to FL motivation. In effect, for any research findings to be applicable in more than one particular situation, one may need to define only the general patterns rather than exact details of motivation in foreign-language learning. Because the nature of acquisition varies from person to person, it is important to consider that every FL learner will work toward fluency in the target language in his or her own unique way.

For these reasons, similar surveys may be needed to establish a reliable continuity of the instrument for this particular FL acquisition setting. Despite obtaining highly valid and reliable scores on both the two pilot studies and the actual survey, more studies may be necessary to enhance the validity and reliability of MCFLC. In addition, the validity and reliability of the MCFLC scales can be

verified further by practical applications in FL classrooms. For instance, teachers can use the instrument as an assessment of their students' motivation. Educators may also opt to employ the strategies suggested in the analysis of the study results to create a productive motivational environment for foreign-language learning.

Suggestions for Future research

Overall, the results obtained in the study may contribute to ongoing research on motivation in foreign/second language acquisition. Here are some of the main suggestions for future research related to the study:

1. The outcomes reported in the research need to be verified through other studies performed in similar academic settings. In effect, more research studies using the Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses questionnaire should be carried out with analogous types of college student populations in equivalent academic sites.

2. The findings of the study can be generalized to other populations in different L2 learning environments after MCFLC is employed to gather data from those types of scenarios. For instance, one could apply these assumptions to other milieus only if the results the results of other studies echo those of this study.

3. Future studies need to include a repeated-measures type of assessment that takes place over an extended period of time in order to procure more precise results. This is not to say that results obtained here are less reliable. However, researchers may be able to express more certainty in their findings, especially when they look at

correlations between the willingness to continue language learning and types of motivation to gain foreign language skills. In the latter case, future studies may consider taking into account the level of motivation of students in the beginning of their FL studies and when they are done taking FL courses. Furthermore, researchers may also choose to administer a survey half-way through students' FL education.

4. Applied research needs to be performed by educators in the classrooms. Teachers can help to contribute to the study through an application of its findings in the classrooms. One of the main purposes of this study is to evaluate how the study itself and its findings may be beneficial to FL teachers. A number of suggestions for use in FL classrooms were advanced in this study.

5. Undoubtedly, future research studies should test continually motivational constructs developed in this study: motivation, socializing primary-goal motivation, appreciative primary-goal motivation, facilitative secondary-goal motivation, provisional secondary-goal motivation, motivational reasons, motivational eagerness, motivation to gain foreign language skills, and motivation in foreign-language courses. Arguably, such well-known motivational constructs as integrative orientation and motivation defined by Gardner and his associates have been *fine-tuned* over time by other scholars, such as Dörnyei (2005), who adapted its modified version into the motivational term of the "ideal L2 self." By the same token, future research needs to define items for and test a new category of motivational eagerness pertaining to provisional secondary-goal motivation. As mentioned earlier, PSGM entails a type of motivation different from MGFLS. If a new scale of PSGM

produces valid and reliable results, PSGM can be added to the rest of motivational measurement scales (such as MCFLC) in order to determine its relationships with other types of motivation in FL learning.

6. With regard to the diversity of student populations acquiring the target language in different linguistic environments, researchers may consider administering MCFLC in languages other than English to native speakers of those languages. Different results can be expected depending on whether MCFLC is used in the native-language settings or in a non-native language environment. For instance, MCFLC in Spanish employed to survey native Spanish speakers in the U.S. is likely to generate findings distinct from MCFLC used to gather data from Spanish speakers in a Spanish-speaking country such as Spain.

7. Future studies can also benefit from exploring answers to the research questions with mixed methods that include qualitative type examinations along with statistical data analysis, such as with MCFLC. If they are applied appropriately, mixed methods can be very effective in data gathering and data analysis, as they tend to incorporate quantitative and formative tools complementary to each other. For example, a future study may rely on qualitative approaches, such as interviewing, in addition to an MCFLC survey which could be administered two or three times over the course of the study. Qualitative investigations can improve the validity and reliability of the study results. In addition, formative assessments are exceedingly helpful when determining the motivational profile of individual FL learners.

Summary

In summary, the study findings supported decisively the existence of different forms of motivation as defined and evaluated by the newly-created constructs of primary-goal and secondary-goal types of motivation in college foreign-language settings. The results also determined that these new types of motivation were significantly important in L2 learning at different levels of FL acquisition. Along with these new motivation constructs, I have also contributed to the SLA field through the development of the MCFLC questionnaire – an original survey written to assess the existence and significance of the aforementioned constructs. The confirmed high validity and reliability of the primary- and secondary-goal types of motivation and their individual components, as well as the MCFLC, demonstrated undeniably that this research deserves future exploration.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Motivation in College Foreign Language Courses (MCFLC)

Questionnaire

We would like to ask you to help our research on foreign language learning by choosing one of the options to the following statements. Every statement has four options from which you can choose: *Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, and Strongly Agree*. Please put an 'X' in the box which describes your response to the statements. Thank you very much for your help.

Motivation Scale

Willingness to Continue Foreign Language Learning

Willingness to Continue Foreign Language Learning Scale

1. I will continue learning Spanish on my own after this semester.
2. I will continue taking Spanish courses after this semester.
3. I will continue to learn Spanish until I am able to communicate fluently in Spanish.

Primary-Goal Motivational Reasons

Socializing Primary-Goal Reasons Scale

4. I am learning Spanish to communicate like a native speaker.

5. I am learning Spanish because I like meeting native speakers.
6. I am learning Spanish to interact with native speakers abroad.
7. I am studying Spanish to communicate with native speakers in the US.
8. I am studying Spanish to use it when I live in a Spanish-speaking country.
9. I am learning Spanish to make friends with native speakers.
10. I am studying Spanish to better understand the culture and history of people in Spanish-speaking countries.
11. I am studying Spanish to better understand political and social situations in Spanish-speaking countries.

Appreciative Secondary-Goal Reasons Scale

12. I am studying Spanish because it is important for me to be able to communicate in a foreign language.
13. I am learning Spanish because I like Spanish music and songs.
14. I am learning Spanish because it seems like a beautiful language.
15. I am studying Spanish because I enjoy Spanish art and literature.
16. I am studying Spanish because learning Spanish gives me a sense of accomplishment.
17. I am learning Spanish because I enjoy learning new things.
18. I am learning Spanish because knowing a foreign language increases my intelligence.
19. I enjoy studying Spanish because it is fun.

Motivational Eagerness

Motivational Eagerness Scale

20. I like practicing Spanish with other people outside of the class.
21. I decided to put in necessary time and efforts to be able to communicate in Spanish.
22. It is important to me to try hard so I can become fluent in Spanish.
23. I would do extra assignments to improve my Spanish language skills.
24. I like reading in Spanish.
25. I like using Spanish songs or films to practice in Spanish.
26. I like watching Spanish TV programs or listening to Spanish radio.
27. I try to learn Spanish by listening to other people speak Spanish outside of the class.

Secondary-Goal Motivational Reasons

Facilitative Secondary-Goal Reasons Scale

28. I am learning Spanish to use it when I am travelling in Spanish-speaking countries.
29. I am studying Spanish because many employers look for people who have foreign language skills.
30. I am learning Spanish to use it when I go to study or work in Spanish-speaking countries.
31. I am learning Spanish to get a better job.

32. I am studying Spanish because my family or friends convinced me that it was good for me to learn Spanish.

33. I am learning Spanish because it is more practical for me than other foreign languages.

34. I am studying Spanish because it is my major or my minor.

35. I am studying Spanish to use it when I teach in schools or colleges.

Provisional Secondary-Goal Reasons Scale

36. I am taking Spanish only to fulfill a college requirement.

37. I am taking Spanish because my advisor asked me to take it.

38. I am taking Spanish to use it possibly as a replacement for another course.

39. I am taking Spanish because I knew that I had to take it.

40. I am taking Spanish only this semester.

41. I am taking Spanish because my family likes that I am studying it.

42. I am taking Spanish because I thought it was easier than some other required courses.

43. I am taking more than one semester of Spanish because it is required for my major.

Demographic Section

Please check or circle the items below that apply to you. Write in if you need to.

1. Major area of study: _____

2. Academic standing: (1) Freshman (2) Sophomore (3) Junior (4) Senior
(5)_____

3. Gender: Male Female

4. Age: (a) 18-20 (b) 21-23 (c) 23-25 (d) 26 and over

5. Time spent studying Spanish including this semester:

(a) 1 semester (b) 1 to 2 years (c) 2 to 3 years (d) 3 to 4 years (e) more than 4 years

6. Time spent studying or living in a Spanish-speaking country:

(a) 0 months (b) 1 to 3 months (c) 3 to 6 month (d) 6 months to 1 year (e) more than 1 year

7. Do you speak Spanish with any of your relatives? Yes
No

8. Are you planning to teach? Yes No