

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will discuss some of the theories, approaches and models of motivation, specifically in relation to integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, effort, valence, expectancy and ability that affect second language learning. Before determining the differences in motivation between females and males in learning English as a second language, it is important to know how females and males acquire and learn a language. Therefore, this chapter will also discuss gender differences in language acquisition and some hypotheses on why these differences exist. Past related studies on language learning motivation and gender differences in motivation will also be reviewed. The reviewed studies are important, as they will assist the researcher in providing the answers to the research questions and in determining whether the present study will draw the same conclusions as the studies that were reviewed.

2.1. Motivation as a factor influencing ESL learning

The Latin verb for ‘move’ is the basis of the word ‘motivation’ which is the force that makes one initiate something. Motivation is defined as ‘something that energises, directs and sustains behaviour’ (Ormrod, 2003: 368). Earlier psychologists viewed motivation in a mechanistic way rather than affectively. Human beings often behave according to their drives to fulfil their needs and satisfaction. For example, conditioning theories state that one’s behaviour is caused by a response to stimuli and a drive. The drive is the force that initiates the act of doing something and the central basis of initiating one’s behaviour in order to fulfil their needs or satisfaction.

In second language acquisition, on the other hand, motivation has often been defined as something more than influences behaviour. Williams and Burden define motivation as ‘a state of emotional cognitive and emotional arousal that leads to a conscious decision to act, which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain previously set goals’ (1997:120). It is a process that involves goals, physical or mental activity, and is both instigated and sustained (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). Motivation contains favourable attitudes. Gardner (1985) states that motivation is a combination of effort, desire and positive attitudes towards the learning of the second/foreign language. It includes *effort*, *want* and *affect* and it is also goal directed. In addition, Ngeow found that motivation is important as it ‘determines the extent of the learner’s active involvement and attitude toward learning’ (1998:1).

Motivation, in second language education, has also been identified by Gardner and Lambert (1972) as two different orientations: integrative and instrumental. According to Madrid et. al (1992), orientation refers to motives or reasons students may have in acquiring the second language. Spolky (1989, as cited in Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991) states that the importance of the reason (or reasons) to learn a particular language will determine how much effort the learner puts in.

Integrative orientation of motivation is the positive attitude shown towards the speakers and the culture of the target language, while instrumental orientation of motivation comes when learning the language is needed for a practical purpose such as to gain employment or to pass an examination. Integrative motivation is to a large extent ‘intrinsic’ and instrumental motivation is ‘extrinsic’ (Chambers, 1999). Further

discussion on integrative and instrumental motivation will be taken up in the coming section.

2.2. Integrative and instrumental orientations of motivation

In an effort to determine how attitudinal and motivation factors affect second language success, Gardner and Lambert (1972), have divided motivation orientations into two basic types: instrumental and integrative.

Instrumental motivation refers to the learner's desire to learn and acquire a language for utilitarian purposes such as gaining and furthering employment, reading technical material, for translation or for travel (Brown, 1987). This is generally characterised by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson, 2000, as cited in Norris–Holt, 2001).

Meanwhile, integrative motivation refers to the learner's desire to learn a language to integrate successfully into the target language community. In addition, it also refers to the learners' wish to integrate within the culture of the target language so they will be able to identify themselves with the target language community and become part of the society. When learners become residents of a new community that uses the target language for social interactions, integrative motivation is the key component in assisting them develop some level of proficiency in the language.

Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) in their study that lasted more than 12 years concluded that the attitude of the learners towards the target language and the culture of the speaking community are crucial elements in language learning motivation. The two elements are the basis of the Socio-Educational Model, which incorporates the learners' cultural beliefs, their attitude towards learning situations, their integrativeness and their motivation (Williams and Burden, 1997). Through the Socio-Educational Model, the terms instrumental and integrative motivation were coined.

Gardner (1985) outlined four other motivational orientations: *a learning goal, desire to attain the learning goal, a positive attitude toward the learning situation, and effortful behaviour*. Gardner also outlined the essence of second language learning motivation which composed of three characteristics: *affect* or attitude towards learning, *want* or the desire to learn the language, and *effort* or motivational force. Therefore, according to Gardner, a highly motivated individual will take pleasure in learning the language, will want to learn the language, and will finally endeavour to learn the language. A learner who is integratively-oriented would likely have a stronger desire to learn the language, demonstrate more positive attitudes towards the learning situation, and put in more effort in learning the language (Gardner, 1985).

In Gardner and Lambert's study (1972), they found that integrative motivation accompanied higher scores on proficiency tests in a foreign language. This led to the conclusion that 'integrative motivation is a crucial requirement for language learning success' (Brown, 1987:116). Meselu (2003) conducted a study to investigate Ethiopians' students' motivation in learning English. The study consisted of 150 private college students. The findings revealed that the students were integratively motivated in

learning English because of varied reasons, from wanting to make friends with native speakers to wanting to learn English arts and literature. It was also revealed that the students were not motivated in learning English for travel purposes.

Integrative motivation has usually been held superior to instrumental motivation (Brown, 1987). Au (1998, as cited in Kelly, 2001:9) states that theories related to integrative motivation, most of which imply its superiority, can be summarised as five hypotheses:

1. *The integrative motive hypothesis*: an integrative motive will be positively associated with second language achievement.
2. *The cultural belief hypothesis*: cultural beliefs influence the development of the integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related.
3. *The active learner hypothesis*: integratively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners.
4. *The causality hypothesis*: integrative motivation is a cause; second language achievement, the effect.
5. *The two-process hypothesis*: aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning.

Nevertheless, the integrative motive hypothesis and the causality hypothesis have been proven to be controversial, as the interpretations of the empirical data from past research to validate these theories have produced different outcomes (Kelly, 2001).

Wu (2004) attempted to investigate the role of integrative motivation among 41 college students in Hong Kong. The study, which employed the quantitative and qualitative methods, indicated that the students were instrumentally motivated instead. This is in line with the previous findings by Lukmani (1972).

The notion that integrative motivation is superior to instrumental motivation is also challenged by Kelly (2005), Rahman (2005), Ransirini (2006), Liu (2007), and Vaezi, (2008) whereby students were found to be instrumentally motivated in learning English. All the researchers above have found that students were more inclined to learn English mainly due to utilitarian and practical purposes like career development or getting good grades.

In 2005, Rahman conducted a study to determine the motivation types in learning English of 94 undergraduate students in Bangladesh. He reported that the overall results show that the participants were instrumentally motivated. Kelly (2005) conducted a study to investigate the English language learning motivation of 122 first year students in a national teacher training college in Japan. The quantitative study revealed that the participants too were instrumentally motivated. A similar study was conducted by Vaezi (2008) to determine the language learning motivation among 79 Iranian undergraduate students. The tool used in the study was Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (ATMB). The finding of the quantitative study confirmed that the students had a higher degree of instrumental motivation.

Liu (2007) carried out a study to investigate Chinese university students' attitudes towards learning English and their motivation to learn English. The study employed a survey adopted from Gardner (1985) and Clement et. al (1994) to a sample of 202 third-year non-English majors in a university in Southern China. The study revealed that the students had positive attitudes towards learning English and were highly motivated. The students were more instrumentally than integratively motivated to learn English.

The students indicated they were interested in learning English not due to the fact that they could learn and appreciate English arts and literature, nor did they want to know the British and American people. They were more interested in learning English because they wanted to pass their exams or get a job. Furthermore, the results also reflected that students put in less effort in learning English and expose themselves less to the language once they have completed their compulsory English courses and exams.

According to Liu (2007), this could be due to the fact that the students had very little exposure to English and they had little contact with native speakers of English. Noels (2002, as cited in Bergdahl and Thorn 2005) states that the amount of exposure that students have to the language plays a crucial part in the language learning as it enhances the students' perception of the communicative value of the language. Thus, when students do not get a lot of exposure to the language, their motivation to learn it decreases too.

Nevertheless, as mentioned earlier, the students showed that they were instrumentally motivated. To the students, they were motivated in learning English because it would

ensure a better future and enable them to acquire knowledge and information from the Internet. They were also motivated because they would be better educated and would be able to keep abreast with the world's development.

Having said that, the students were also motivated in learning English for travel purposes as they had developed the idea of travelling around the world. They believed English would help them when they travel abroad. They felt English would make life easier for them as it could broaden their perspectives and help them to make friends with foreigners.

Some researches have also indicated that there is not necessarily only a single type of motivation in learning a second language. Some learners are more successful in language learning if they are integratively motivated while others are more successful in language learning when they are instrumentally motivated. The findings also show that these two orientations of motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Second language learning can be balanced by both instrumental and integrative attitudes. To illustrate this point, Thai students learning English in Britain for academic purposes may be relatively balanced in their desire to learn English for academic (instrumental) purposes and to understand the way of life of the British people and, to a certain extent to integrate with their culture (Brown, 1987).

Similarly, in 1993, Kitao conducted a study to determine the orientations of motivation among Japanese students who were preparing to go abroad to take up an English language program. The survey tool used was a questionnaire. The result revealed that

the number one reason students joined the program was because they were motivated integratively. The main reason was to make foreign friends, which was integrative, and the second reason stated by the students was because they wanted to improve their English ability, which was instrumental.

Following the study by Kitao (1993), Ono, (1996, as cited in Kelly, 2001) wanted to investigate if the two outcomes above were possible to achieve from the students' perspectives. Hence, she conducted a study with 23 Japanese students who had just spent twelve weeks in Canada. Her findings showed that upon returning to Japan, the students had a more positive perspective and outlook towards the people around them (the Canadians), their English ability and English as a subject of study.

Moiinvaziri (2007) in his study to determine the types of motivation students demonstrate in learning English found the same results. Students were found to be both integratively and instrumentally motivated. The factors that influence their motivation vary from friendship orientation to building knowledge.

As discussed earlier, with regard to gender and motivation, researchers have found that females tend to be integratively motivated, whereas males tend to be instrumentally motivated. Based on the finding above, in 2000, Kang administered the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery devised by Gardner (1985) to 234 Korean students, consisting of 113 males and 121 females, learning English. The quantitative study aims to investigate the relationship between motivation and gender. The results revealed that

females are more integratively motivated than males. Rahman (2005) also found that the female participants in his study were more integratively motivated than the males.

In 2006, Ransirini conducted a study to determine the motivation patterns of Sri Lankan undergraduates based on the social constructivist approach. The study assessed whether motivational patterns of Sri Lankan undergraduates differ according to gender. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to a sample of 133 undergraduate students. The results showed that females are more instrumentally motivated than males.

Having reviewed these studies, the present study also aims to investigate whether the same conclusions could be drawn from the sample used in this study.

2.3. Intrinsic and extrinsic orientations of motivation

2.3.1. Intrinsic motivation: Cognitive theories

Apart from integrative and instrumental motivation, Deci and Ryan (1985) believe that motivation can also be extrinsic or intrinsic. As mentioned earlier, extrinsic motivation is the motivation that learners have when they are driven to do something in order to seek for external rewards or avoid punishment while intrinsic motivation is the motivation that comes within learners. The cognitive theories are important motivation theories that have relied on the intrinsic orientations of motivation.

The central importance of the cognitive view of motivation lies in the choice one can and is able to make. Psychologists believe our behaviours and actions are orchestrated by the choices we make. Motivation here involves a person's pursuit of meaning and satisfaction in life. Theorists of cognitive approaches believe behaviour is determined by our thinking, not simply by whether we have been rewarded or punished in the past. While the behavioural perspective of motivation refers to external reinforcers such as punishment and reward, cognitive approaches, on the other hand, view motivation as intrinsic by nature.

'The central importance is choice, people have a choice in the way they behave and have control over their actions' (Williams and Burden, 1997:119). Ausubel (1964, as cited in Brown, 2000:161), explained in his theory of cognitive perspective that the construct of motivation relies on six needs. These needs are:

1. *exploration* - the need to explore new things and gain new knowledge
2. *manipulation* - the need to manipulate our surroundings and create change
3. *activity* - the need of being engaged physically and mentally
4. *stimulation* - the need to be stimulated by ideas, thoughts, feelings
5. *knowledge* - the need to create a system of knowledge
6. *ego enhancement* - the need to be accepted by society and others

2.3.1a. Weiner's Attribution Theory

Bernard Weiner's Attribution Theory (1974) is another good example of the cognitive approach to motivation. Attribution theory begins with the notion that we try to reason our behaviours and the behaviours of others by searching for explanations and causes.

Attribution theories of motivation describe how individuals' explanations, justifications and excuses about themselves or others influence their motivation. Weiner (1979, as cited in Woolfolk, 2004), a psychologist of attribution theory of motivation, believes that successes and failures can be characterised in terms of three dimensions:

1. locus (location of the cause; may be internal like effort or ability that is personal, or external like luck or mood that is environmental),
2. stability (does the cause stay the same or does it change over time?), and
3. controllability (if the individual is able to control the cause)

These three dimensions have significant implications on motivation because they affect expectancy and value. For instance, the stability dimension seems to be closely affected by the expectations of the future. If students attribute their failure to stable factors such as the difficulty of the subject, they will expect to fail in that subject in the future. However, if they attribute the outcome to unstable factors such as mood or luck, they can hope for a better outcome the next time. If success or failure is attributed to internal factors, success will lead to pride and increased motivation, whereas failure will diminish self-esteem.

The controllability dimension is related to emotions such as anger, pity, gratitude or shame. Failures make us feel guilty while successes make us feel proud. Failing at a task we are not able to control may lead to shame or anger.

The concept of the attribution theory is that what a person believes to be the causes of past failures or successes will have a major impact upon their expectations and achievements. Nevertheless, past studies by psychologists have indicated that it is highly possible to change individuals' perceptions about performance outcomes (Gray, 2001).

In addition, Seligmann (1991, as cited in Gray, 2001:3) states that past studies in attribution theory have also highlighted that:

1. the way people see causes has consequences for responsibility,
2. people can alter the explanations they make about their failures and successes,
3. they can create new attitudes concerning achievement results, and
4. when external causes are changed into internal ones - in the case of positive occurrences and internal causes are changed to external ones – in the case of negative events, an individual's self-esteem and performance is greatly helped.

Studies have also shown that different attributional patterns exist in females and males. For instance, females tend to focus on effort when explaining their performance (Lightbody, et. al, 1996; Georgiou, 1999; Powers and Wagner, 1984, as cited in Rusillo and Arias, 2004) whereas males focus more on ability and luck as the reasons for their

academic achievement (Burgner and Hewstone, 1993, as cited in Rusillo and Arias, 2004). Furthermore, females also tend to refer to ability when they make external attributions for successes and failures. On the contrary, males usually attribute success to 'stable internal causes such as ability, while failure is attributed to unstable causes such as luck and effort' (Rusillo and Arias, 2004:100).

2.3.1b. Expectancy Valence Theory

As attribution theory relies on value and expectancy, it is crucial that a discussion of the expectancy valence theory is also taken up at this juncture. This theory combines both the behaviourists' concern with the effects or outcomes of behaviour and the cognitivists' interest in the impact of individual thinking (Woolfolk, 2004).

This theory also views motivation 'as the product of two forces: individuals' expectation of reaching a goal and the value of that goal to them' (Woolfolk, 2004:356). In other words, when learners have high expectation in achieving something very important (which carries high value), then the motivation should be strong. In contrast, if they have low expectation on achieving something, then the motivation is zero.

According to Lawler (1969, as cited in Kelly, 2001), effort or motivation is presented as a relationship between three factors: expectancy x instrumentality x valence. The relationship is multiplicative rather than summative which means if any factor is low or absent, motivation is not present. Expectancy refers to 'effort-reward probability'. Instrumentality represents the strength of correlation between the first immediate outcome and the second level, or the ultimate personal outcome. Valence represents

how highly the ultimate result is valued (Lawler, 1969, as cited in Kelly, 2001). For instance, competitive students who are very much bothered by how they are perceived by their peers might believe working harder will improve their grades (first outcome). Subsequently, better grades might improve their social standing in the eyes of their peers (second and the ultimate goal). This ultimate goal is highly valuable to the students.

In 1999, Sim investigated the relationship between motivation and academic achievement among Form Four Malaysian students. Sim also looked at gender and how it influences motivation. The respondents were 101 students from an urban school in Petaling Jaya. The survey tool used was the School Motivation Inventory Malaysia developed from Weiner's Attribution Theory. The result revealed no significant relationship between motivation and gender.

In 2004, Rusillo and Arias conducted a study on gender differences in academic motivation among secondary school students in Spain with 521 students - 285 females and 236 males. The results indicated that female students show lower levels of extrinsic motivation and they generally take responsibility for their failures. In addition, female students also attribute their failures to internal factors such as lack of effort or ability. The male students, on the other hand, show greater extrinsic motivation with them seeking more positive competency judgements and avoiding negative judgements. Nevertheless, the male students consider luck as the cause of good academic results and should there be failures, they attribute their failures to bad luck or the teacher's incompetency.

2.3.1c. Vroom's Expectancy Model and Wen's Motivational Factors

The attribution and expectancy theories led to the formulation of Vroom's Expectancy Model and Wen's Motivational Factors. In Vroom's Expectancy Model (1969, as cited in Schneider, 2001), the learner's motivation in learning a second language is determined by effort, valence, expectancy, ability in achieving goals and instrumentality. Vroom (1969, as cited in Schneider, 2001:3) defines performance as:

"... a product of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence, where expectancy is the belief that effort will result in performance, instrumentality is the belief that performance will be rewarded, and valence is the valuing of the rewards...if valence and instrumentality, the desire for rewards and the belief in receiving them, were kept constant on a task, expectancy would have a positive relationship with the performance of the task".

In 1997, Wen developed a tool for measuring motivation, which is known as the "Motivation Scale". By incorporating the Expectancy Valence theories, Wen (1997, as cited in Abisamra, 2002) identifies these four motivational factors that led to the development of the Motivation Scale:

- motivation of instrumentality,
- intrinsic motivation,
- expected learning strategies and efforts, and
- passivity towards requirements.

The Motivation Scale measures instrumental and integrative motivation, effort, valence, expectancy, and ability. Shaaban and Ghaith slightly modified Wen's Motivation Scale and used it with students at the American University of Beirut in a study conducted by them in 2000. The study that consisted of a sample of 180 students with three different

levels of proficiency aims to investigate differences between males and females in their motivation, mainly in terms of instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, effort, valence, expectancy and perception in ability in learning English.

The results revealed that there were significant differences between males and females in their motivation to learn English. Females were more motivated in terms of their effort and perception of valence. The results also revealed that students with higher proficiency had lower levels of integrative motivation, effort and valence.

Salem (2006) explored this issue further by carrying out a study on the role of gender, motivation and language learning strategies. The respondents consisted of 147 students at the American University of Beirut. Using the Motivation Scale (Wen, 1997; Shaaban and Ghaith, 2000) as one of the tools for the data collection, the data was then analysed using the Pearson Product Moment Co-relation, t-Test and MANOVA. The findings revealed that females put in more effort and put more value on learning than males. The findings also demonstrated there were no significant gender differences in terms of proficiency. High proficiency learners also put in more effort in learning English compared to low proficiency learners.

The Motivation Scale (developed Wen, 1997 and adapted by Shaaban and Ghaith, 2000) will also be used as the instrument to measure the six motivation components that this present study wishes to focus on.

Chen and Sheu (2005) conducted a study to determine the variables that affect students' motivation in Taiwan using the Expectancy-Value theory. 451 college students participated in the study that employed an adapted version of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. The results indicated that the participants demonstrated high valence especially due to the imposed nature of English. Strangely, the fact that the students were forced to learn English by their parents made them place a high value on learning it. The study also reported that valence was strongly associated with and had a direct influence on students' integrative or instrumental motivation.

In 2007, Madileng drew the same conclusions from her research. The study that employed both quantitative and qualitative methods took place in a South African university, consisted of 52 participants. The results revealed that the participants were more inclined to be integratively motivated, although instrumental motivation was also demonstrated. In addition, the participants showed high valence towards their learning outcomes. They also demonstrated an average to good perceived ability. With regard to effort, while the participants agreed that it was an important factor in learning English, they admitted that they put in very little effort in learning the language.

When it comes to ability, Pajares and Valiente (2001) and Rúa (2006) who conducted studies on gender differences, motivation and language learning concluded that females seem to have certainty of the reasons they have for doing academic work. Hence, they have confidence in their ability.

Bernat and Lloyd explored the gender effect on EFL learner's belief about language at an Australian university (2007). One part of the study was to identify students' motivation and expectations. The study was done quantitatively with a sample of 262 students – comprising 155 females and 107 males. The data was analysed using Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test. The findings revealed there are no significant gender differences between males and females in terms of their motivation and expectations. However, the study challenged the notion that females are more integratively motivated, as the result indicated that male students enjoy learning English for the purpose of practicing the language and making friends with native speakers, as compared to female students.

Gao, Zheng, Cheng and Zhou (2004) carried out a study to investigate the motivation types in learning English among Chinese university undergraduates. The study involved 2278 undergraduate students from 30 universities in 29 provinces in China. The quantitative study employed a questionnaire which consisted of 30 items as the research tool in order to determine if the students' various demographic features such as gender, program major, English proficiency, year(s) spent in university and the starting age of learning English influence their motivation. The data was analysed using factor analysis and MANOVA. The findings revealed that the students' program major and proficiency level have a significant effect on motivation but gender, on the other hand, has no significant effect on motivation.

Having reviewed the studies above, the present study aims to investigate whether the same findings will be obtained from the sample used in this study.

2.3.1d. Dornyei's Taxonomy of Motivation

In 1994, Dornyei, based on his research on motivational factors, suggested that motivation goes beyond the integrative and instrumental motives, effort and values. Dornyei, based on his Taxonomy of Motivation (1994), proposed that second language motivation be divided into three interacting components:

1. integrative motive: which is not separate from instrumental motivation
2. linguistic self-confidence: defined by attitude and effort, and
3. appraisal of the classroom environment: how group cohesion brings about positive appraisal.

According to this taxonomy, integrative motivation is connected to linguistic self-confidence. While the teaching environment is an important motivation factor, his research found that it is not connected to integrative motivation or linguistic self-confidence (Abisamra, 2002; Kelly, 2001).

2.3.2. Intrinsic motivation: Humanistic theories

Intrinsic motivation is the motivation that learners have when they are purely interested in the learning experience without any apparent external reward. It is learning for its own sake. Intrinsically motivated learners are fully engaged in learning, as they perceive it as something pleasurable and satisfying. One important motivation approach that has relied strongly on the intrinsic orientation of motivation is the humanistic theories.

From the humanistic perspective, to motivate means to encourage peoples' inner resources – their sense of competence, self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualisation (Woolfolk, 2004). The humanistic viewpoint stresses on intrinsic motivation that is created by the need for personal growth, fulfilment and self-determination. Motivation is based on the social context and the individual's preferences. Motivation is gauged differently, according to one's environment. Therefore, the motivation that takes place is in the cultural and social contexts and it cannot be separated from them.

2.3.2a. Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs

Maslow (1970) views motivation as a construct whereby several hierarchies of needs require to be fulfilled. Based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs (1954), these needs range from lower level – *deficiency needs* (for survival and safety) to higher level – *growth needs* (for intellectual achievement and self-actualisation). The term self-actualisation here refers to self-fulfilment (Woolfolk, 2004; Williams and Burden, 1997; Salem, 2006). The lower level needs must be fulfilled first before one can move up to the higher level needs.

The lower level needs, *deficiency needs*, can be divided further into four levels:

1. physiological (related to physiological requirements such as food, water, sleep and health)
2. safety (the need to feel out of danger, safe and secure in one's environment; no tension or stress)
3. belonging (being accepted and being able to affiliate with others)
4. esteem (to be competent and gain approval and recognition)

Likewise, the higher level needs, which are *growth needs*, can be further divided into four levels:

1. cognitive (to understand and to discover)
2. aesthetic (to appreciate beauty)
3. self – actualization (to find self-fulfilment and realise one’s potential)
4. transcendence (to help others find their self-fulfilment and potential)

The one similarity that the two levels possess is they are based on the concept of ‘needs’. The result of needs being fulfilled is rewarding and as human beings understand the value of reward, they are motivated to gain more rewards that lead to knowledge acquisition, higher self-esteem and autonomy.

2.3.2b. Roger’s Client Centred Therapy

Carl Rogers’s Client Centred Therapy (1969) is also based on the humanistic view. Rogers suggests that human beings will be interested in learning if the subject matter is something that has a personal relevance to them. They are also interested in learning when there is no external criticism. With this kind of learning, human beings will have an active participation, creativity and are independent as the learning encourages self-reliance. Thus, the learning experience is more valuable and has a long lasting effect. Rogers also suggests that the learning atmosphere is vital in encouraging a positive learning experience. Students are to be perceived as clients by teachers. The teachers’ responsibility is to ensure that the ‘clients’ specific needs are fulfilled. While the learning process takes place, it is also vital that teachers have a good, warm and

empathetic relationship with students in order to increase their self-worth and confidence (Williams and Burden, 1997).

2.3.3. Extrinsic motivation: Behavioural theories

Extrinsically motivated persons refer to those who learn for the sake of achieving a reward or avoiding a punishment. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades and even certain types of positive feedback. Extrinsically motivated learners also often initiate or perform a task in order to avoid being punished.

One theory that is linked to extrinsic orientation of motivation is the behavioural theory. The behavioural theory was derived from observing the behaviour of animals in labs. Behaviours are reinforced when needs are met and motivation comes from the result of external forces. From this perspective, motivation is defined as the urge to release tension and satisfy needs.

The central tenet of behaviourism is that all motivation arises from 'basic drives, instincts or emotions in ways that are predictable' (Galloway et al., 1998:23). Therefore, the key concept of motivation, according to the behavioural viewpoint, is that extrinsic motivation is caused by incentives, rewards and punishments. Based on this approach, people behave in a certain way to reinforce outcome in order to avoid punishment and to anticipate reward. The behavioural theory stressed on external stimuli and reinforcement.

Other behaviouristic perspectives are:

a) Skinner's Instrumental/Operant Learning (stimulus - response - reward)

The primary factors for this theory are consequences. To increase behaviour, incentives are reinforced and vice versa.

b) Pavlov's Classical Conditioning

According to this theory, behaviour is directed and energised from associated stimuli through biological responses.

c) Bandura's Observational/Social Learning

This theory relies heavily in imitating others (modelling) and by observing other people.

In learning another language, to keep motivation high and in order to do well, we subconsciously use learning strategies to assist us and to find solutions to our learning problems.

2.4. Social constructivist approach and Sociocultural conceptions of motivation

Williams and Burden (1997) state that a constructivist view of motivation relies on the premise that each individual is motivated differently. One's decision to act is based on their internal disposition and uses their internal qualities in unique ways (Williams and Burden, 1997; Kelly, 2001). Therefore, in terms of second or foreign language learning, what motivates and drives individuals to keep learning until they have achieved the targeted level of proficiency that satisfies them differs from one individual to another

(Williams and Burden, 1997). People make choices and act based on the external factors that are personal to them.

Nevertheless, Williams and Burden assert that, 'an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences.' These will include 'the whole culture and context and the social situation, as well as other significant people and the individual's interactions with these people' (1997:120). Thus, this approach is known as the social constructivist approach. Motivation comes from the combination of both internal (learner's interests or wishes to succeed something) or/and external drives (influence of others).

When motivation is subject to social and contextual influences, this is when the sociocultural conceptions of motivation take place. The sociocultural conceptions of motivation views that the participation of the community is important in determining motivation. The concept of identity is also important as one watches and learns from the other members of the community. An individual is motivated to learn the values and practices of the community in order to be a part of the community as a community member (Lave and Wenger, 1991, as cited in Woolfolk, 2004).

One example in encouraging motivation is through learning communities. Classrooms are structured in ways where students are encouraged to collaborate to formulate questions, and to find the answers together. Each and every student is given the opportunity to participate fully in the community as motivation comes from identity and participation.

With that being said, we can conclude that motivation alone is not enough. The social and cultural influences and interactions surrounding second or foreign language learners are as crucial as the orientations of their motivation.

2.5. Motivation and gender in the ESL context

As gender differences in motivation is also the focus of this present study, this section will discuss how languages are acquired and learned by females and males, and how the way the languages acquired and learned can be factors influencing their motivation.

2.5.1. Gender and language acquisition

Females tend to show more ability in acquiring languages as compared to males. Research on why females do better in language classrooms has been going on for a long time, as early as in the 1950s. Based on a gender differences study in 1958, Anastasia (as cited in Kane, 2010) concluded that females are better than males, both verbally and linguistically. This could be due to the fact that, 'language acquisition is the area of cognitive development in which women develop earlier than men and remain talented throughout adulthood' (Kane, 2010:2). Burman et. al (2007, as cited in Northwestern University, 2008) strengthen this notion by stating that females begin to talk sooner and more clearly and tend to be better at spelling and grammar skills in the language classrooms. Rúa (2006) agrees with the notion that girls are better in terms of overall achievement in languages in general.

There are other hypotheses that demonstrate reasons why females are ahead of males in terms of language acquisition:

a) Infant Directed Speech (IDS)

Infant Directed Speech (IDS) is the speech that mothers use towards their infants that lead to gender differences in language acquisition. The aspects of the speech normally consists of 'shorter utterances, longer pauses, a slower speech rate, higher pitch and hyperarticulated vowels, all of which have been proven to facilitate language acquisition' (Kane, 2010:4). Burnham and Harris, (1992, as cited in Kane, 2010) cite a study done by Kitamura and Burnham in 2003, that concluded that mothers use IDS more towards female infants than males. In addition, the study concluded that mothers also use IDS to attract attention and express affection more with female infants as mothers tend to believe that female infants are more sensitive and more fragile than males, thus, mothers speak to their female infants in what they perceive as a sensitive manner. This finding might be another reason why females acquire language faster than males.

b) The way females and males are spoken to

The way girls and boys are spoken to and the language they hear from their caregiver will influence them later in life. According to Coates, (1986, as cited in Abu-Haidar, 1995:192), 'girls and boys learn in early childhood, the linguistic behaviour appropriate to their sex'. Therefore, how they are spoken to will leave an impact on them. Lagaard and Bleses (2003, as cited in Kane, 2010), in their study, concluded that boys hear direct imperatives from their caretakers more often than girls, and such received speech can cause gender differences in the way they speak. To give another example, in a study carried out by Abu-Haidar (1995) in determining the speech habits of 8 to 11-year-old boys in a Lebanese rural community, she found that the boys' speech lacks fluency and articulate expressions as compared to the girls of the same age.

The girls, from a very young age, spend a lot of time helping their mothers and grandmothers at home, rather than playing with their friends. They also learn to interact with older women. As a result, the girls talk as a mutually supportive group and they are able to produce spontaneous language.

On the other hand, boys under 12 and 13 often do not have any interactions with adults and they often play with their peers. The boys also 'compete' and rush to speak, often at the same time and out of turn. In addition, Abu-Haidar (1995) also asserts that, mothers also bond less with their young sons compared to the bonding between mothers and daughters. As a result, the boys' speech is filled with 'constant interruptions and unmitigated directives, appears to display the aggressive and competitive behaviour of males in a society' (Abu-Haidar, 1995:192).

c) Gender role stereotyping

Gender differences might also occur due to the gender role stereotypes on children. Boys are often encouraged to play with cars and robots as opposed to girls who are encouraged to play with dolls, stuffed animals and cookware sets. Cars often do not promote proximity with the parents, and elicit animated sounds like horns and beeps rather than questions and conversations. However, with girls playing with dolls and stuffed animals, it fosters conversations, role-playing and verbal interaction.

According to Brasted (2010), advertisements play a vital role in gender stereotyping. Girls are always portrayed in traditional roles such as playing house and being beautiful and popular, whereas boys are shown seeking power, physical actions and speed. In

addition, girls are also presented as being cooperative, less competitive, more passive and less aggressive than boys. The fact that girls and boys are fitted into this stereotyping might lead to gender differences. It also influences their language acquisition and their perception of language learning.

In addition, Macklin and Kolbe (1984, as cited in Brasted, 2010:3) further reiterate, 'expectations of sex roles and self-labelling processes have the potential to influence many aspects of a child's life from social interaction to occupational plans, and even to cognitive functioning.'

d) Child models after the same-sex parent

Another hypothesis that demonstrates how females are ahead of males in terms of language acquisition is the fact that a child identifies with and models after the same-sex parent. Some researchers assume that a girl will be more verbal as mothers are generally verbal towards their children. Having said that, this argument is flawed to a certain extent, as some researchers believe that at a young age, children are not able to distinguish the sex of their parents (Bornstein et. al, 2004, as cited in Kane, 2010). In addition, females also show that they are better at spelling than boys and this is something that cannot be copied from a parent.

e) Biological reason

Females develop faster neurologically. They, therefore, develop the structure necessary to learn language at an earlier age. Females also have greater left hemisphere dominance of the brain that is associated with language acquisition.

Hanlon et. al (1999, as cited in Sax, 2005) carried out a research to determine how the brain develops in girls and boys. The research, used electrophysiologic imaging, examined the brain development in 508 normal children: 224 girls and 284 boys from the ages of 2 months to 16 years. The results showed that the areas of the brain that are connected with language and fine motor skills mature about six years earlier in girls.

In another study by Burman, Bitan and Booth (2007, as cited in Northwestern University, 2008), the researchers found that the areas of the brains associated with language work harder in girls than boys. The study measured brain activity in 31 boys and 31 girls aged 9 to 15 using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). The study found that girls showed significantly greater activation in the language areas of the brains than boys.

From the discussion above, clearly, there are differences between females and males in language acquisition and language performance. The next section will discuss some gender issues that have been observed in the language classroom.

2.5.2. Gender issues in the language classroom

Gender differences in language classrooms have been widely observed and reported in the various studies done. In a research done by Maccoby (1966, as cited in Kane, 2010), he found that pre-school females perform better on verbal performance, including their articulation and their sentence length. The research by Maccoby (1966) was further extended by Reznick and Goldsmith in 1989, and they found that females score higher than males in terms of vocabulary (as cited in Kane (2010). The same research was

done by Reynell and Gruber, 1990; Reznick and Goldsmith, 1992; Fenson et. al., 1994 and the same results were reported (as cited in Kane, 2010).

However, according to Sunderland (2000), women and girls' superiority in language performance is not all that clear cut advantageous for women and girls. Due to the notion that girls have the upper hand in language acquisition, there are also concerns being expressed that they get less attention from the teacher in the language classroom (Swann and Graddol, 1995). Delamont (1990, as cited in Mills, 1995: 136) further reiterates this by stating that, 'schools develop and reinforce sex segregations, stereotypes and even discrimination which exaggerate the negative aspects of sex roles in the outside world, when they could be trying to alleviate them'.

Delamont (1990, as cited in Mills, 1995) also feels that, the way teachers talk to boys and girls and the way boys and girls talk among themselves in class could be one of the factors that lead to gender differences and inequalities. Evidence from studies carried out in both primary and secondary schools show that teachers tend to give more attention to boys and that boys often monopolise physical and verbal space (Delamont, 1990, as cited in Mills, 1995).

In addition, teachers also routinely differentiate between boys and girls by allowing certain kinds of behaviour to be acceptable for boys but unacceptable for girls. In some cultures for example, boys are allowed to shout the answer to the teacher while girls are not allowed to do so as the teacher will perceive the girls as being rude.

Furthermore, the nature of class discussions, which are often public, (whereby students have to speak up in front of the whole class, raise their hands to speak, and catch the teacher's eyes) could be competitive and are more favourable to boys. Girls then are often excluded from participating in class (Swann and Graddol, 1995).

The gender differences and inequalities demonstrated by teachers in the classroom lead to girls being educationally disadvantaged as they lack the opportunity to talk in class (Spender, 1982, as cited in Swann and Graddol, 1995). Holmes (1995) states that the fact that women are more polite than men is one of the reasons why they lack opportunity to talk in class. It is harder for them to get talking time as they are unlikely to disagree and to interrupt in class. As a result, females tend to contribute less than males in language class (Howe, 1997, as cited in Fewings, 2010). Although females may have the language learning superiority, being sidelined in language class could bring a negative impact to females, especially as they are not able to practice the language and they do not have the opportunity to contribute in class.

In the long run, it will also affect the career choice made by females (Coates, 1995; Sunderland, 2000) and they are sucked into professional sex-stereotyping (Rúa, 2006). As Van Alphen (1987, as cited in Rúa, 2006:107) states:

“...women apparently learn from a speech style which is more appropriate for the domestic sphere: it is supportive, harmonising, open-hearted, ‘cooperative’. Men apparently learn a speech style for the domain of public discussion: it is dominant, loud, fast, ‘competitive.’ Those differences in speech styles reinforce the (unacceptable) division of labour between women and men: men are more visible in, and ideologically defined by, the public sphere, whereas women are relegated (either actually or ideologically) to the domestic sphere”.

This is evident as more women tend to choose careers as caretakers, teachers and nurses where women are linguistically disadvantaged as they are less skilful at using the adversarial, information-focused style language that is expected of them.

This situation is, however, changing these days as more and more women are entering the public domain and holding powerful portfolios. Rosin (2010, para. 27) states:

“...women are also starting to dominate middle management, and a surprising number of professional careers as well. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (USA), women now hold 51.4% of managerial and professional jobs – up from 26.1% in 1980. They make up 54% of all accountants and hold about half of all banking and insurance jobs.”

The same phenomena can be seen in Malaysia. According to the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development, Malaysia (2007, as cited in the Malaysia's Gender Gap Index), women's participation in the occupational category of legislators, senior officials, managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals has improved. The percentage has increased from 26.8% in 1980 to 35.0% in 2004.

The statistics are important as they reflect that women are no longer just embarking on 'caring' professions like teachers or nurses. The statistics also show that society nowadays is more accepting of women taking up more technical and managerial positions. Thus, professional sex-stereotyping does not exist as much as it used to. In addition, the statistics also imply that either the 'cooperative' speech style is now acceptable in the workplace or women have learnt to speak the information - focused style language.

Females tend to acquire and learn languages faster than males. Having this advantage in acquiring languages, do females still put in a lot of effort in language learning? Does that mean that females are more motivated than males in language learning? What can be said about the degree of motivation females and males demonstrate in language learning? The present study will attempt to answer these questions.

2.6. Summary

This chapter has covered some of the theories, approaches and models of motivation that are significant in language learning, and that are pertinent to the present study. It has also provided some studies done on the six components of motivation: integrative, instrumental, effort, valence, expectancy and sense of ability in learning English among university students that this present study wishes to address. This study has also provided some theories on gender differences and gender issues in the language classroom.

To sum up, some of the studies revealed that students were integratively motivated in learning English (Meselu, 2003; Madileng, 2007) whereas other studies such as Wu (2004), Kelly (2005) and Vaezi (2008) found that students were instrumentally motivated.

On the other hand, studies by Kitao (1993), Ono (1996) and Moivaziri (2007) have shown that students could be both integratively and instrumentally motivated.

In addition to that, Chen and Sheu (2005) and Madileng (2007) revealed that the students showed high perception of valence in learning English, although some of the findings also revealed that students put in less effort in learning the language (Liu, 2007; Madileng, 2007).

The studies by Shaaban and Ghaith (2000), Pajares and Valiente (2001), Rusillio and Arias (2004), Rúa (2006), Salem (2006) and, Bernat and Lloyd (2007) are similar in that they attempted to determine the different components of motivation (whether in terms of integrative and instrumental, effort, valence, expectancy and ability) present among female and male students. These studies in general found that females tend to put in more effort, and are perceived to have higher abilities in learning English as compared to their male counterparts. In addition, Lukmani (1972) and Ransirini (2006) demonstrated that female students were more instrumentally motivated than male students. Whereas, Kang (2000) and Rahman (2005) showed that female students were found to be more integratively motivated than male students.

At the same time, a few studies have also indicated that there was no link between motivation and gender.

Based on the findings of the different studies discussed, it is clear that students are motivated differently and both male and female students demonstrate different degrees of motivation in learning English. The results of all these studies are highly pertinent to the present study as the researcher too would like to ascertain if the findings of the present study will be similar to all the studies that were reviewed.

Chapter Three will continue with a description of the methodology of data collection and analysis used in this study. Chapter Three will also include a description of the study design, tools, the participants and the procedures of data collection and analysis.