This chapter discusses the theories and research on human motivation. It will first offer an overview of theories and research on human motivation before going into the factors affecting motivation.

### 2.1 HUMAN MOTIVATION

The significance of motivation in human activity has been recognized in the field of social psychology and education for centuries. Motivation is seen as a trait of the individual’s personality, which can be influenced by internal or external factors such as attitude, self-confidence and environment. Motivation is essential to determine the extent of the learner’s active involvement and attitude towards learning. Motivation is also a key element in successful language learning. It is defined as a complex set of variables, including the effort expended in acquiring the language, as well as the reason for second language learning (SLL), which serves as a goal to realize the learning of the second language (Noels, 2003).

Thus, as far as SLL is concerned, motivation is regarded as an important predictor of second language (L2) success. Theories on motivation have been discussed since the nineteenth century. Motivation became a popular topic in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in 1959 through the work of Gardner and Lambert (cited in Gardner, 1985). They focused on two types of motivation in language learning, namely integrative and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation refers to the desire to learn the language to integrate successfully into the target language community, while
instrumental motivation refers to the learner’s desire to learn a language for utilitarian purposes such as educational requirements and employment.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) highlighted the importance of learners’ ‘psychological responsiveness’ which indicate learners’ ability to accept various aspects of the behavior of the target community. They proposed that learners must have an open, curious, unprejudiced attitude and a friendly stance towards the target community in order to excel in learning the second language. They also stated that different attitudinal, motivational and proficiency variables may operate in different settings. Various studies have verified Gardner and Lambert’s theories. For example, a study by Lukmani (1972) on 60 Marathi’s speaking females in Bombay found that the subjects were instrumentally motivated to learn the target language. The learners were motivated to learn the target language for utilitarian purposes such as to get a good job or to meet educational requirements. Another, a study by Dornyei and Clement (2000, cited in Dornyei, 2001) found integrativeness to be the most prominent factor among a group of learners in Hungary. These Hungarian learners learnt the target language in order to integrate successfully with the target community.

Gardner (1985) proposed a socio-educational model on motivation which includes three elements. The elements are:

i. learners’ effort that relates to the amount of studying and learners’ drive to learn the target language;

ii. learners’ desire that involves the degree of proficiency in the language which learners want to accomplish; and
According to Gardner’s socio-economic model, more than one factor influences learners’ success in the learning of the target language. The factors include the social or cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting in which learning takes place, and linguistic outcomes. The social or cultural milieu refers to the context or environment in which an individual lives. This context determines how a person thinks and believes about other languages. Individual learner differences refer to the variables of intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and anxiety, while the setting or the context in which the learning takes place refers to the classroom. Linguistic outcomes refer to the actual language knowledge and skills.

In the 1990s, Tremblay and Gardner (cited in Dornyei, 2001) extended Gardner’s (1985) socio-educational model by incorporating two new elements, namely expectancy-value and goal. Expectancy-value and goal build on “the belief that humans are innately active learners with an inborn curiosity and an urge to get to know their environment and meet challenges” (Dornyei, 2001:20). In other words, there are two additional important factors that motivate learners to perform various tasks. The factors are firstly, the learner’s expectancy of success in the given task and secondly, the value the learner attaches to success on that task. If the learner has a high expectation of success in the task and the enticement value of the goal is also great, he or she will have a high degree of positive motivation to perform well in the task. In the contrary, if the learner is convinced that he or she cannot perform the task successfully no matter how hard he or she tries, or the task he or she does not lead to valued outcomes, he or she is not motivated to perform
in the task. Based on this theory, researchers like Weiner (1992), Covington (1992) and Bandura (1993) have developed further theories which relate to factors determining the expectancy of success.

Weiner (1992) postulated the attribution theory which is based on the processing’s of one’s past successes and failures. It focuses on the determinants for the successes and failures of the past and the effects of those determinants on future successes and failures. It has been found that the most common determinants affecting success or failure in the school environment are ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood, family background and help or problems from others (Graham, 1994).

Covington (1992) postulated the self-worth theory which relates to learners’ attempt to maintain their self-esteem. He proposed that there is a direct relationship between learners’ ability and effort, performance and self-worth (O’Keele, 1996). According to Covington (1992), there is a direct relationship between self-worth and learners’ face-saving behaviours in school setting. Learners are highly motivated to maintain their self-esteem. “They would deliberately withhold their effort by not trying to perform any tasks in order to save face” (Dornyei, 2001:23). For learners, self-acceptance is the key element to be successful in any given tasks. They would rather not perform due to lack of effort rather than to low ability (Dornyei, 2001).

Bandura’s (1993) self-efficacy theory deals with learners’ opinion of their ability to carry out tasks and their sense of effectiveness which determines their choice of the
activities they attempt. As with Weiner (1992), past experience is a significant factor for Bandura. He proposes that learners’ self-efficacy is determined by their past performance, explicit learning (learning through observing models), verbal encouragement from others, and physiological reactions such as anxiety. According to Bandura (1993), learners with low self-efficacy will worry about their incompetence to perform in the task rather than focus on how to perform the task successfully. As a consequence, they lose faith and are likely to give up easily.

Goal theories are another element that has been incorporated into Gardner’s (1985) socio-educational model for understanding the motivational process. The two influential goal theories are the goal-setting theory and goal-orientation theory. The goal-setting theory, proposed by Locke and Latham (1990), claims that human action is caused by purpose, and for action to take place, goals have to be set and pursued by choice. This theory states that commitment can be enhanced when learners believe that their goals are achievable. The goal-orientation theory, on the other hand, explains childhood learning and performance in a school setting (Dornyei, 2001). Ames (1992) stated that there are two goal orientations that learners demonstrate in their language learning. The orientations are firstly, the mastery orientation, which refers to the belief that effort will lead to success, and secondly, the performance orientation, which focuses on demonstrating ability, getting good grades, or outdoing other students in order to gain public recognition, which in this case would be the learner’s peers.

Another motivation theory is the self-determination theory (SDT), which was made popular by Deci, Ryan and Noels (Dornyei, 2001). SDT involves intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and also amotivation. Intrinsic motivation describes the pleasure
and interest one takes in a voluntarily chosen activity (Dornyei, 2001). Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, involves results from the accomplishment of the task, not pleasure from simply doing the task (Dornyei, 2001). Amotivation is the opposite of any other kind of motivation. Amotivated students feel that they are required to perform, for example, take a particular course as part of a school or degree requirement. Therefore, they do not value the activity and do not believe they will perform well in the activity (Dornyei, 2001). SDT allocates a central role to the individual who has preset goals that drive his or her motivation. The theory also stresses the vital role of the environment. In SDT, the source of motivation is both internal and external.

Dornyei (2001) also postulates a comprehensive construct on motivation which is appropriate to second language classroom motivation (see Table 2.1). He believes that motivation is composed of three levels which operate individually. The levels are:

i. the language level which focuses on motives and orientations or factors related to L2; it includes the culture it represents, the community in which it is spoken, and the motivational dimensions described by the types of motivation which the learner has, i.e. instrumental and integrative;

ii. the learner level which relates to the emotions and cognitions that form fairly stable personality features, and the need for achievement and self-confidence, or in other words, individual characteristics that a learner brings to the learning process; and

iii. the learning situation level which involves motivational elements such as the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching methods, the learning tasks, the teacher’s personality, behavior, teaching style and the group dynamics of the learner group.
In this framework, Dornyei (2001) focuses on the three levels separately. According to him, motivation is influenced either by the language level or the learner level or the learning situation level, and never a combination of these three levels. This is because each of these levels invalidates the effects of the other levels on the overall motivation of a learner. For example, a learner who has a positive attitude would normally show high self-confidence (learner level) which affects his or her degree of motivation in the target language.

Table 2.1 Dornyei’s Framework of Second Language Motivation (Dornyei 2001:113)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LANGUAGE LEVEL</th>
<th>●0 Integrative motivation subsystem</th>
<th>●1 Instrumental motivation subsystem</th>
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<tr>
<td>LEARNER LEVEL</td>
<td>●0 Need for achievement</td>
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However, human beings have very complex characters which at times change due to either internal or external drives or sometimes both. Thus, learners can become motivated due to their intrinsic motivation or according to the term used by Dornyei (2001), the learner level. At this level, the learner’s motivation is influenced by either his/her self-confidence level or his/her needs for achievement. Learners can also become motivated due to extrinsic motivational factors such as the way the teacher teaches in class, the teacher’s attitude towards them, the course offered, the setting of the class, and also the learning materials used in the class. These variables correspond to the learning situation level of Dornyei’s framework. Besides that, learners can also become motivated due to their socio-cultural background, integrative and instrumental motivation, which corresponds to the language level of Dornyei’s framework. Any of these levels can contribute to the different degrees of motivation of a learner. Each level plays a different role that will influence a learner’s degree of motivation in second language learning.
Therefore, it is important to analyze these three levels as interrelated factors.

Dornyei (2001) also stated that the four most essential factors in the learning environment which will motivate learners to perform in the target language are learners’ parents, teachers, friends and school. Parental influence on learners’ performance in second language learning has long been recognized by educational psychologists. They believe that family characteristics and beliefs are related to learners’ achievement in school. Studies on parental influence show that a learner’s academic performance is affected by the parents’ general beliefs and behaviors, the parents’ child-specific beliefs, and the parent-specific behaviours (Dornyei, 2001). Teachers, friends and schools also have an influential role on learners’ performance in second language learning. These factors create an environment for learners to use the target language and to obtain exposure to the target language.

To conclude, motivation is recognized as a vital element in second language learning which influences learners’ performance in second language learning. Many factors contribute to its effect on learners’ performance and these will be discussed in section 2.2.

2.2 FACTORS AFFECTING MOTIVATION
Motivation is significant in determining success in the learning of a target language. Many factors have been studied by researchers of second language learning in relation to motivation. However, the researcher will only review four factors which are related to this study, namely the socio-economic background, use and exposure to English Language, attitude towards English Language and perception of English Language instructors.

2.2.1 Socio-economic Background

Many scholars have identified the important role of socio-economic background (SEB) in determining language learners’ achievements in the acquisition and learning of a target language. SEB relates to learners’ academic achievement in terms of the value they place on education, their cultural beliefs about the learning of the target language and the social support for academic fulfilment from family members and peers (Chan & Stevenson 1995, as cited in Dornyei, 2001). These beliefs shape learners’ attitude, which in turn influence their learning outcomes. They also determine learners’ learning opportunities. Ellis (1994) states that the socio-economic class and ethnic background of a learner influences the nature and the amount of language input to which he or she is exposed. For Ruin (1967), three factors that affect students’ success in learning a target language are the aptitude of the students towards their studies, the attitudes of their family members towards their studies and the economic background of the family. Hussein (1979:12) confirms the findings of Ruin when he states that “socioeconomic factor is a strong factor influencing school performance”. He echoes Kahl (1953, cited in Hussien, 1979) who states that students’ background factors play a significant role in determining their
level of achievement in school. Likewise, according to Floud (1970), social class can be a barrier to opportunity for learners.

SEB is a term used normally to describe economic status based on monthly income earned by both parents of the family. However, there are other variables used to determine the SEB of an individual, namely parental occupation and level of education (Trudgil, 1983), the location of the house, whether urban or rural (Connant, 1961), and the learning environment (Asiah, 1977; Chandrasegaran, 1979; Mohana, 1984). Wee (1971) argues that income and home environment are sufficient to SEB. Idris (1995) argues that housing and income are just as important as occupation and level of education. Others are the opinion that parents’ education level (Svensson, 1971), parents’ occupation (Connor, 1983), and parents’ income (Khoo, 1996) are the key determinants of SEB.

Numerous studies have shown that SEB has a considerable influence on educational attainment. Kailsan (1983) believes that parents’ income and occupation play an important role in determining one’s accomplishments, i.e. the higher the parents’ income and their occupational level, the better the educational achievement of a child. Chong’s study also (1993) showed a positive correlation between parents’ occupation and children’s academic achievement. The study found that parents’ high occupational level influences positively children’s academic attainment. Connant’s study (1961) showed that students from urban areas who have families with a high level socio-economic background have a better command of the target language compared to those from rural areas. Douglas (1970) found that children from a middle level socio-economic background do better in school than children from lower socio-economic background.
Wee (1971) found that income and home environment are contributing factors to respondents’ linguistic achievements. It was found that the respondents’ linguistic achievements are better when the parents’ income’s level is high and the respondents’ home environment is good. The same finding is reflected in Svensson’s study (1971), which found that children of highly educated parents obtained higher marks than children of lower educated parents. Thus, the environment from which learners come affects their acquisition of a second language (Asiah, 1977; Chandrasegaran, 1979; Mohana, 1984).

In addition, other studies have shown that SEB affects students’ achievement in school subjects (Loveday, 1982). Mariam’s (1983) study showed that students’ area of residence and their SEB affected their attitude towards English. In her study, students of a high level SEB from urban areas had a positive attitude towards English and this contributed to their high achievement in the English Language. Mohana’s (1984) study also showed that high SEB correlates with high proficiency in the English Language. Tan’s study (1986) on SEB and students’ achievement in the English Language in Singapore also showed that SEB correlated positively with the students’ achievement in the English Language. As the SEB of the students increased, the use of English also increased and this resulted in a higher achievement in the English Language.

Lim (2003) who studied Malay students ranging from 13 to 17 years of age found that low SEB contributed to students’ lack of command in the English Language which resulted in poor academic performance in the language. Seetha (2006) also found that there is a significant positive correlation in the proficiency levels of students from higher SEB and lower SEB. She found that students from higher SEB did significantly better in
English proficiency than students from lower SEB.

Connor (1983) found that parents’ occupation had a positive effect on the students’ reading performance. According to Tan (1986), SEB determines the quantity and quality of the reading materials available to students. The higher the SEB, the better the opportunities the students get to read in English. Parents with low incomes would have problems purchasing English reading materials for their children, while parents with high incomes would have more opportunities to access English reading materials. This ease of accessibility to English reading materials could explain why students with higher SEB achieve better grades in their English Language.

Despite many studies that show a positive correlation between SEB and learners’ proficiency in the target language, there are studies that show that there is either minimal or no correlation between SEB and the target language proficiency. Lanzas and Kingston (1981) and Connor (1983) show that students’ SEB and social characteristics were almost minimally related to their success in English. Khoo (1996), in her study on the personal and social variables affecting the English proficiency of Normal Technical Stream Pupils in Singapore, found that the parents’ level of education and income did not really influence the students’ language proficiency. Students with highly educated parents did not perform better than those with less educated parents. Chong (1993) also found that parents’ educational level does not influence students’ achievement in the English Language. Therefore, while there is compelling research evidence to show that SEB and language proficiency are positively correlated, it can be concluded that SEB does not necessarily affect learners’ performance in the target language.
2.2.2 English Use and Exposure to the Language

A learner’s learning development is very much affected by the environment he or she lives in. Interactions with surrounding cultural and social agents such as parents and friends contribute significantly to a learner’s intellectual development. This intellectual development helps a learner to perform in the target language. Language acquisition takes place when learners have exposure to the target language be it in a formal or informal context (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).

Language exposure refers to the sum total of contacts with the target language. The use of language according to Jamali (1992) includes a wide variety of situations including exchanges in restaurants and stores, conversations with friends, watching television, reading street signs and newspapers as well as classroom activities. Dulay, Marina and Stephen (1982) describe the language environment as a situation which contains everything that a language learner hears and sees in the target language.

Studies show that it is very important for a learner to have wide exposure to a target language and to be in the language environment, so that he or she can hear and use the language. Hale and Budar’s (1970) study has shown this positive influence of exposure. Their study on the immigrant non-native speakers of Honolulu shows that language exposure correlates with the attainment of English Language proficiency. The subjects in the study attained a high degree of proficiency in English because they immersed themselves in the use of English with English Language speakers. Briere’s
(1975) study on 920 Native Mexican children showed similar results with Hale and Budar’s (1970) study. The study shows that the more exposed the children were to the Spanish language, the higher the grades they achieved in their Spanish language test. This is further supported by studies by Carroll (1965), Fathman (1976), Seliger (1977), Chesterfield, Hayes-Latimer, Chesterfield, and Chavez (1983), Lee (1984), Ong (1986), Jamali (1992), Fillmore (1991) and Littlewood, Liu and Yu (1996). Their findings show the importance of maximum exposure and use of the target language for a learner to be proficient in a language. A non-supportive environment can only affect negatively the attainment of the English Language of a learner (Jamali, 1992).

In addition, studies also show that factors such as parental expectations, parental belief system and behavior patterns influence students’ academic achievement. Parents have a strong influence on their children’s achievements, attitude and behavior. Sandra (1983) and Khoo’s studies (1996) show that parental encouragement correlates to students’ achievement in the English Language. When parents encourage their children to excel in the target language, in this case, the English Language, they provide the means, such as English reading materials, to help their children to improve their English Language. High intensity of motivation by parents enhances learners’ proficiency in the English Language. Apart from parental encouragement, parents’ income, occupation and level of education also affect learners’ performance in the English Language. Asmah’s study (2001) on the upper secondary Malaysian students showed that the use of the English Language is elevated when the students’ parents’ income as well as level of education are high. She also found that parents’ type of occupation is important in determining the level of usage of the English Language. According to her study, the students’ use of English is closely related to the socio-economic status (SES) of their
families. Students who came from a higher SES had a tendency to use the English Language more frequently than those who came from the middle and lower SES groups. Muna Sakura’s study (2001) also showed similar findings, i.e. students who had more exposure to English achieved a higher level of English proficiency. All these findings show that parents’ income, level of education, type of occupation, encouragement and beliefs determine the degree of exposure to the English Language and ultimately, the level of achievement of English proficiency in students.

Another factor that affects learners’ performance in the English Language is the exposure to English reading materials. As discussed earlier in this section, environment plays a role in influencing learners’ attainment in the English Language proficiency. A learner has to be in the language environment in order for him or her to hear the language input and use the language input to communicate in the language successfully. One of the ways for a learner to be in a language environment is for the learner to be exposed to reading materials. Several studies have shown that reading materials influence learners’ proficiency in a target language. Gradman and Hanania’s study (1991) on 101 students at Indiana University had shown that active exposure through extracurricular reading had positively affected the students’ TOEFL scores. Hamida’s study (1996) also shows a similar finding. Her study on UUM students showed that the students speak English well due to high exposure to English reading materials. Sawhney (1998) also showed that the more exposure students have towards the target language, which in this case, the German Language, through magazines, novels and newspaper, the more proficient they become. Apart from reading materials, these studies also elicited the importance of listening to the target language via various media. Hamida (1996) found that the more the learner listens
to English via radio, television and movies, the more competent the learner is. The high exposure to the speaking environment and communicative use of English affect positively learners’ performance in the English Language examination (Gradman & Hanania, 1991).

On the other hand, limited exposure to and use of the target language can lead to low levels of proficiency in the target language. The lack of English usage and exposure to the language influences negatively learners’ confidence to speak and use the language. This is shown in Littlewood et al.’s study (1996) on Hong Kong tertiary students, where the lack of English usage among them contributes to their low confidence in speaking the language. According to Jamali and Hasliza (2001), the lack of exposure towards English and the lack of usage of the language to communicate are the main drawbacks that prevent learners from achieving proficiency in the English Language. This is further confirmed by Subramaniam’s study (1976) on Malay medium pupils in selected schools in Selangor which revealed that learners who are not competent in English were those who come from a non-English speaking environment. The same result was also attained by Khoo (1996) whose study found that the majority of the technical stream students in Singapore have limited exposure to English at home and this has a negative effect on their proficiency in English.

In addition, Hamayan, Genesee and Richard’s study (1977) also showed that students who use less French are less proficient in oral and written French. Similar findings were also found by Chihara and Oller (1978), Yu and Atkinson (1988), Ee (2001) and Seetha (2006). In these findings, a non-supportive environment, lack of usage
of and exposure to English as well as learners’ negative attitude are found to play a vital role in influencing negatively learners’ performance in the English Language.

In conclusion, all these findings show that the use of and exposure to the English Language are significant in determining learners’ level of proficiency in the English Language. It verifies the postulation that exposure and the use of English correlates positively with learners’ competency in the language.

2.2.3 Attitude Towards the English Language

According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), success in language learning is related to attitudinal variables such as attitude towards the language and the speakers and culture of that language. Attitude influences learners’ motivation to learn a target language. Gardner (1985) defines motivation in his integrative motives as a learner’s positive attitude towards the speakers of the target language increases his or her motivation to learn the language.

Several studies have shown that a positive attitude towards English, the speakers and culture of the language, influences learners’ performance in the English Language. Ainsfield and Lambert’s (1961) study on Grade 8 and 9 Jewish students studying Hebrew found that there was a significant relationship between the attitudes of the students towards Hebrew and their grades in the language. Spolsky’s study (1969) also found a significant relationship between the attitudes of 315 foreign students towards English and their grades in the language. Both studies found that the positive attitude of these students affect positively their grades in the target language.
Rajagopal’s survey (1976) on 240 Form 5 Malay students in Selangor, Malaysia also showed that students with a positive attitude towards English performed significantly better in the language than those who had a negative attitude towards the language. This is also shown in Subramaniam’s study (1976) on 120 Form 5 Malay medium students from rural and urban schools in Selangor, Malaysia. He found that the students performed better in English when they have a positive attitude towards the language. Similar findings were also elicited in Oller, Hudson and Liu (1978) research on Chinese students who studied ESL and Oller, Baca and Vigil’s (1977) study on a group of Spanish speaking students in Mexico. Both studies revealed that the students’ positive attitude correlated positively to their proficiency in the English Language. There are also other studies which further confirmed that attitude plays a significant role in influencing students’ attainment in the target language, namely studies by Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp and Chalow (1990), Fahmy and Bilton (1992), Khoo (1996), Lau (1999), Muna Sakura (2001), Rahimabe (2002), Lim (2003) and Iwashita and Liem (2005). Their findings show that students’ positive attitude affects positively their achievement in the target language.

Despite the large number of studies showing significant relationship between attitude towards the English Language and achievement in the language, there are studies that have shown no significant relationship between attitudes and English Language achievement. In Chihara and Oller’s (1978) study on the relationship between attitudes and proficiency level among Japanese students of English showed a low correlation between students’ attitude and proficiency in learning the English Language. The similar
finding was also discovered in Pierson, Fu and Lee’s (1980) study. They studied the relationship between attitude towards the English Language and English proficiency among Chinese secondary students and found that the students’ low proficiency in the language is not due to their attitude towards English. Both studies show that in some cases, attitude has a minimal effect on a learner’s proficiency in learning the English Language.

This is further verified by a study on the attitude of 104 first year Malay undergraduates towards the learning of English in UTM by Anie (1982) which shows a weak relationship between English Language achievement and students’ attitude towards the language. A study on 120 Form 4 Indian students from rural and urban schools in Malaysia by Sathiadevi (1996) and Hamida’s (1996) study on UUM undergraduates’ attitudes towards the learning of English showed that there was no significant relationship between the students’ attitudes towards the English Language, its community and culture and their performance in the English Language. Subrayan’s study (1986) on the relationship between students’ English attainment and their attitude towards the English Language in UKM also showed that there is a weak relationship between the students’ English attainment and their attitude towards the language.

A similar result was also found in Meedina’s study (1993) on 294 Bumiputra matriculation students. She not only found that there was a weak relationship between students’ performance in the English Language and their attitude towards the language but also discovered that the students felt that learning English was boring and that knowing only the Malay Language was enough to allow them to be successful in life. In
other words, the learners’ negative attitude towards English and language learning played a significant role in influencing their performance in the English Language. Jayatilaka’s (1982) study, however, contradicts this postulation. The study found that students who attained high marks in the English Language test had a negative attitude towards the culture of the language. This shows that despite having a negative attitude towards the culture of the English Language, students can still perform well in learning the English Language.

In conclusion, it can be stated that attitude alone does not influence learners’ motivation to perform in the target language despite the positive results found in some studies. This is because there are studies which have shown insignificant or negative results, where attitude does not play a significant role in determining learners’ motivation to perform in the target language.

2.2.4 Students’ Perception of the English Language Instructors

In foreign or second language learning, it is very important to take into account the relationship between teachers and learners. It is because learners’ confidence in learning the target language is influenced by their teachers’ attitude (Lai, 1994). Communication between teachers and learners is essential. A stressful atmosphere will only result in learners becoming reluctant to participate in the class activities. When this happens, learners will experience language anxiety, which will normally stop them from participating in class activities, especially oral classroom activities (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).
Language anxiety can be defined as the feeling of tension and apprehension specially associated with a second language context, such as listening, speaking and writing (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991), language anxiety can have a serious influence at all stages of language learning and production. Anxious learners will either excel or fail in the process of learning the target language. Studies have shown that language anxiety produces negative effects on students’ academic achievement, such as grades and standardized proficiency tests (Young, 1986; Cope-Powell, 1991, cited in Oxford, 1998).

According to Price (1991), teachers play a significant role in the amount of anxiety each student experiences in a class. Teachers of a foreign or second language class can significantly influence the atmosphere in class, both positively and negatively (Young, 1998). Some instructors increase the students’ anxiety to learn a language. If instructors display a great concern for error correction rather than students’ effort, students’ anxiety will be leveraged (Young, Lee & Vanpatten, 1998). Students’ beliefs or perception of the English Language teachers can contribute to high language anxiety in the English Language classroom (Phillips, 1998). This can inhibit language acquisition (Gardner & Tremblay, 1998). Therefore, by implication, teachers are in position to either reduce or increase the level of language anxiety among their students.

Language anxiety will increase in second or foreign language learning when the classroom experiences a “style war” (Oxford, 1998). This can happen when a student’s
preferred approach for learning is different from a teacher’s preferred approach when teaching (Oxford, 1998). If these two styles are conflicting with each other, the environment of the classroom will become tense and this will result in high language anxiety among students. Price (1991) echoes this when he states that students’ fear to communicate and participate in a classroom where there is high language-anxiety is likely due to students’ negative relationship with teachers. Therefore, it is important for learners and teachers to have a positive relationship in order to facilitate language learning.

Ryan, Stiller and Lynch (1994) reiterated this when they point out that teachers play a vital role in facilitating students’ learning outcomes when they provide supportive relationships. Teachers act as the key figure influencing the motivational quality of the learning process by providing mentoring, guidance, nurturance, support and limit setting (Dornyei, 2001). This shows the importance of student-teacher relationships in shaping school motivation, adjustment and self-regard. Positive relationships will heighten students’ motivation to learn the target language and at the same time, it will decrease students’ language anxiety.

Studies show that a positive attitude on the part of the language teachers is a vital element that students look forward to in the target language class. When teachers display a positive attitude in class, students’ perceptions of the language class are affected positively. The students feel more confident and believe in their ability to succeed in the target language. This will further enhance the learning atmosphere in the classroom. Sanchez’s study (n.d.) showed that language anxiety served as the prominent predictive
variable for English achievement for the Spanish students enrolled in Grades 6, 7 and 8 who attended a public school in Madrid and studied English as a foreign language. Silberman (1969, cited in Sanchez, n.d.), who studied the interaction of ten third-grade teachers with students, found that students who were not preferred by teachers received less teacher contact and less positive evaluation, whereas students who were preferred by teachers received more teacher contact. He found that the teachers’ perception of the students influenced the way they treated their students.

The same situation also applies to learners. Learners who have positive perceptions of their teachers will show a higher commitment to lessons. A study by Nikolaou (1998) on 170 senior secondary school pupils in grades 1 to 3 from three public schools in Greece revealed that there was a positive and significant correlation between motivational intensity and students’ perception of their English school teachers. According to Gardner (1985), motivation and achievement in the classroom are generally associated with learners’ positive attitudes towards their second language teachers. Clement, Dornyei and Noels (1994) discovered that there is a relationship between learners’ success and their evaluation or perception of their teachers’ rapport with the class. Learners’ evaluation or perception of their teachers influences their linguistic self-confidence and anxiety. Dornyei (2001) also suggests that learners’ motivation is linked to teachers’ affiliative drive, authoritative style, and manner of presenting tasks and providing feedback. Noels, Clement and Pelletier’s (1999) study on a small group of English learners of French found that these learners’ perceptions of their teacher as autonomy-supportive and as providing informative feedback were related to their high intrinsic motivation. Noels’s (2003) study of a group of students learning Spanish as a
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Learners’ performance in second language learning is often evaluated by the grades they achieve in second language assessments. However, learners’ performance is often influenced by a variety of motivational factors. The focus of this study is the relationship between the four following motivational factors, i.e. the respondents’ socio-economic background, the extent of their use of and exposure to English, their attitude towards the English Language and their perception of their English Language instructors, and the respondents’ grades in their English Language assessments.

3.1 THE RESPONDENTS

100 respondents from Pusat Penataran Ilmu dan Bahasa (PPIB) of Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS) in Kota Kinabalu, Sabah were selected for this study. These respondents had completed Level 2, i.e. English for Reading and Writing. Level 2 focuses on reading
second language found that the more the teacher was perceived as controlling, the less the students felt they were learning Spanish by their own effort. The students felt they had fewer choices about learning the language and they felt they were forced to learn the language. However, the students felt more competent about learning the language when the teacher was seen to be actively involved in the students’ learning, for example when the teacher gave information, praise and encouragement for the students’ efforts.

On the other hand, Vijchulata and Gan’s (1985) study found that there was no significant relationship between students’ perception of their lecturers and students’ English grades. Despite the positive encouragement showed by their lecturers, the students did not seem to be motivated to achieve good grades in the English Language class. This contradicts other studies which have clearly shown the influence of positive relationships with language instructors on learners’ grades. The influence of positive relationships between teachers and learners of the second language should not be ignored. Many studies have shown that the more relaxed and less anxious the teachers are, the better the academic achievement and the students’ performance in the target language, be it in speaking, listening or writing.

2.3 CONCLUSION

The factors discussed, namely the socio-economic background of students, their use of English and exposure to the language, their attitude towards the English Language and their perception of their English Language instructors, do play a role in influencing their motivation to excel in the English Language class. The next chapter, that is Chapter 3,