

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to provide a background of related theory and research for the study, the first section of this chapter discusses the fundamentals of reading. This is followed by a discussion on the importance of motivation, reading and motivation, theoretical perspectives on motivation, current views on motivation, motivational techniques in learning situations and conclusion.

2.1 What is reading?

It is difficult to define reading. Robinson (1977) asserts that it is an elusive concept. Smith (1983) confirms that it is no point in looking for a simple definition, as depending on the context in which it occurs, it has multiple meanings. Reading has been viewed in terms of cognitive psychology, as social process and as a psycholinguistic process. Grabe (1996:378), as cited in Anderson (1999), points out the complexity of even defining reading by stating “a description of reading has to account for the notions that fluent reading is rapid, purposeful, interactive, comprehending, flexible, and gradually developing”.

Reading is a selective process is how Goodman (1967) defines reading. Grabe (1991) agrees with the definition, he asserts that in the process, readers used knowledge they brought to the reading and then read by predicting information, sampling the text and confirming the prediction. Goodman (1967) claims that reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game, which involves interaction between thought and language. In other words, for the reader to derive

meaning from the text, the reader must first undergo several steps before constructing a plausible model that takes into account all the details in the text. Clarke and Silberstein (1977) concurred with Goodman's idea that characterized reading as an active process of comprehending. Nuttal (1996) supports this and agrees that reading as an interactive process that allows reader to construct meaning by using information obtained from various knowledge structures. Coady (1979) suggested a model based on the view of reading as consisting of an interaction between a reader's background knowledge, his conceptual abilities and processing strategies.

In order to teach comprehension, students must be taught the skills of comprehending. Grabe (1991:377) emphasizes that "it is important for teachers to provide students with a range of effective approaches to texts – including helping students define goals and strategies for reading, to use pre-reading activities to enhance conceptual readiness, and to provide students strategies to deal with difficult syntax, vocabulary and organizational structure".

Otto (1977) however, cautions that we must choose sensibly the skills to be taught and must keep them in perspective. Much of the research in reading as an interaction process has been done on native and first language speakers (Smith, 1971, Rumelhart, 1977). Nevertheless, considerable interesting studies on how second language learners comprehend texts have contributed to the growing literature on the subject (Clarke and Silberstein, 1977, Clarke, 1980, Carrell, 1984).

2.2 Importance of Reading to Second Language Learners

Reading is an essential skill for English as a second or foreign language students; and for many, reading is the most important skill to master (Anderson, 1999). Carrell (1988) agrees that reading is the most important of the four skills in a second language. It is believed that readers with strengthened reading skills will make greater progress and attain greater development in all academic areas (Anderson, 1999).

Grabe (1996) acknowledges that the ability to read English fluently is critical for the work of academic scholars, business professionals and research scientists and engineers. He notes that strong reading abilities in English represent a resource that will be very useful to people in those fields who need to exchange information internationally or who need to use information from internationally-based references and materials.

English language is associated as the language in areas of higher education technology and business. Mackay and Mountford (1976) claim that over 50% of the world's scientific literature are in English. This indicates that those who are not proficient in English would find it difficult to comprehend the vast amount of scientific and technological literature available. Scientists and technologists need to learn English for a number of purposes connected with their specialisms (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984). John and Davis (1983) suggest that in EAP (and ESP generally), texts are 'vehicle information' not 'linguistic objects'. They believe that to be able to read and comprehend written text, learners should focus on the information in the text not on the linguistic form. Undergraduates are

increasingly required to read numerous textbooks in English. As Ewer and Lattore (1969) note that success in undergraduate work is becoming more and more related to the ability to read the appropriate literature in English. Thus, it is necessary for students to cultivate strategies when approaching reading tasks.

Lee's (1994) survey of the reading problems of ESL student at the Mara Institute of Technology found that low world knowledge was cited as one of the main factors, which hindered affective learning from English medium academic text. Cooper (1984) whose subjects were ESL learners at a Malaysian university, claims that the good learners focus on making connection between the ideas in the text in contrast to the poor learners who focus on the details.

During reading, prior knowledge aids the readers in comprehending a text (Carrell, 1984). The readers do this as they interpret the text base on their knowledge or schemata (Rumelhart, 1980). Studies have shown that first language readers who have well-developed content schemata will understand and remember its information better than readers who do not (Rumelhart, 1980). Nevertheless, these approaches need to be taught and practiced for a learner to be well equipped in becoming a good reader.

Ulijin (1980) concurs that the level of proficiency in the target language determines the extent to which the text is comprehended. For second language learners the reading process may be less a psycholinguistic guessing game as they are hindered by knowledge of the target language (Safiah Osman, 1985). Safiah Osman (1985) makes the assertion that the second language learners may not and

most likely cannot make use all the available cues in the text to form and test the necessary hypotheses.

Goodman (1985) stresses that reading is not primarily a process of picking up information from the page in a letter-by-letter, word-by-word manner but reading is a selective process. Burron and Claybaugh (1974) point out that the process of reading is never a passive one; regardless of the topic the writer is treating, the difficulty of the vocabulary he uses, the number and kind of literal or figurative phrases he presents or the complexity of the sentence structure he employs, the reader must be actively engaged. Anderson (1999) points out some of the elements that teachers must consider in preparing for an ESL/EFL reading class such as to teach students how to utilize the skills and knowledge that they bring from their first language, develop vocabulary skills, improving reading comprehension, improving reading rate, teaching readers how to successfully orchestrate the use of strategies and how to monitor their own improvement.

English in an ESP course is taught for a clearly utilitarian purpose (Mackay and Mountford, 1976). At the School of Engineering, the teaching of English in an ESP context is highly significant to cater for the students' needs. EAP classes should also build ESL students' metacognitive knowledge in areas such as criterion tasks, basic structures of academic text, personal strengths and weaknesses when making study plans and a range of task-specific strategies for learning from text, including why, when, where and how to use them and how to vary strategies to suit specific tasks (Brown, Armbruster and Baker, 1986).

2.3 Reading and Motivation

Current interactive views of reading emphasize an active learner who directs cognitive resources to complete the task (Garner and Gillingham, 1987). The outgrowth of the research of the 1980s that emphasized cognitive aspects of reading such as prior knowledge and strategic behaviors (Anderson and Pearson, 1984, Pressley, Borkowski and Schneider, 1987) has resulted in an increase in reading motivation. According to Brown, Armbruster and Baker (1986) successful readers are more aware of purposes for reading and adjust their reading process accordingly, focus attention on major ideas rather than minor details, engage in self-questioning to determine if reading goals are being met, notice comprehension failures, and take action to remedy such failures using “fix-up” strategies. In other words, students need to balance both affective and cognitive aspects of reading development (Gambrell, 1996). The balanced view of reading also includes an emphasis on motivation and social interaction, as well as cognition and knowledge acquisition (Brandt, 1990; Csikszentmihaly, 1991).

Highly motivated readers are self-determining and generate their own reading opportunities (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling & Mazzoni, 1996). According to Gambrell (1996) because of the powerful influence that motivation plays in literacy learning, teachers are more interested than ever before in understanding the relationships that exist between motivation and achievement and in learning how to help all students achieve the goal of becoming effective, life-long readers.

Gambrell et al., (1996) conducted a study on motivational reading program to more than 7,000 children and 4,000 parents from 49 schools in nine

U.S. states. The results showed statistically significant increases in the reading motivation and behaviors of the first graders and parents who participated in the study. Similar to that study, they investigated whether this motivational reading program would benefit children from schools with depressed reading achievement scores. The results of this study indicated that the children who participated were more motivated to read, spent more time reading independently. This study also suggests that a motivational reading program can foster a physical environment and social interactions that encourage and support children in their reading development (Gambrell et al., 1996).

However, it is important to note the role of a teacher in making such reading program to be successful. Teachers need to assist and provide support to students in their reading development. As Medley (1986) asserts the role of the classroom teacher is critical because the teacher is, after all, the point of contact between the educational system and the pupil operates through the pupil's teachers. Thus, he claims maximizing teacher effectiveness should be a major goal of education.

A number of current theories suggest that self perceived competence and task value are major determinants of motivation and task engagement. Eccles (1983) supports this and notes 'an expectancy-value' theory of motivation, which states that motivation is strongly influenced by one's expectation of success or failure at a task as well as the 'value' or relative attractiveness the individual places on the task. According to Paris and Oka (1986) students who believe they are capable and competent readers are more likely to outperform those who do not

hold such beliefs. Similarly, Ford's (1992) motivational systems theory maintains that people will attempt to attain goals they value and perceive as achievable. In a classroom where teacher provides a rich and stimulating environment enables the learners to develop cognitively, whereas a deprived environment stunts this development (Oxford and Shearin, 1994). As stated by Grabe (1996) motivating students to read independently, is perhaps the most intractable of all, yet it is the principle objective of advanced reading instruction. He indicates that students need to be motivated to read more in English; if students are not motivated to read, they will not develop as fluent readers.

2.4 Theoretical Perspectives on Motivation

The area of motivation in language learning over the past twenty years has been dominated by the social-psychological approach of Gardner and his associates. Interest in motivation in second language learning (L2) stems from Gardner's socioeducational model of language learning (Gardner, 1985). Considerable research has demonstrated that attitude and motivation play a role in the learning of a second language (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1989).

Attitude and motivation affect students' abilities to learn (Mazzano & Pickering, 1997). They suggest that when attitude is in place and productive habits of minds are being used, learners are motivated. Thus, according to them enable learners to do the thinking required in learning effectively in the other three dimensions, that is acquiring and integrating knowledge, extending and refining knowledge and using knowledge meaningfully. When attitudes are

negative learning suffers; when they are positive learning enhanced. Both Krashen (1981, 1982) and Gardner (1985) have examined the role of motivation in second language (L2) learning context. However, Krashen emphasizes the importance of motivation, whereas, Gardner sees the link between motivation and learning in informal context.

Gardner (1979:193) asserts, "In the acquisition of second language the student is faced with the task of not simply learning new information (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc.) which is part of his or her own culture but rather of acquiring symbolic elements of a different ethnolinguistic community." Gardner and his associates have been working with a set of social-psychological variables for over 25 years. Figure 1 illustrates Gardner's theoretical model on social psychological.

However, Au (1988) claims that there are several studies that indicated there was zero or negative relationship observed between integrative motivation and L2 achievement. Studies, which showed nil relationship, as cited in Au (1988), were Lukmani (1972), Wong (1982) and negative Au (1984). The model has four major components, which are social milieu, individual differences, language acquisition contexts and outcomes.

This socio-psychological model links motivation with attitudes towards the community speakers of the target language. In addition, it claims that learner's cultural beliefs within a particular milieu could influence the development of the integrative motive and determine success in language learning.

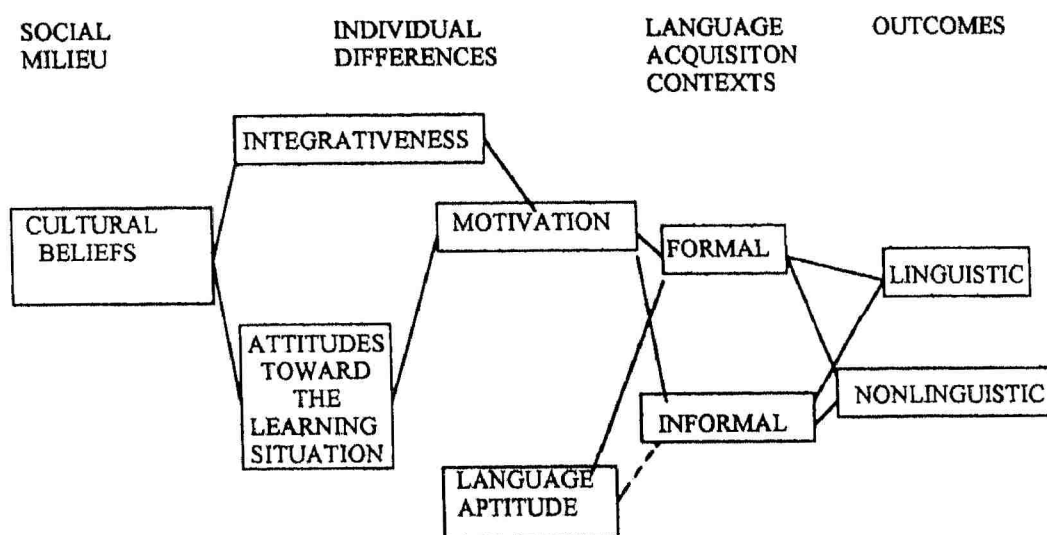


Figure 1: Gardner's (1983) social psychological model of second language learning

Learners with an interest in associating and interacting with native speakers will likely to be more successful in learning the target language than the other counterpart of wanting to learn for instrumental reason such as better job payment, etc. As Gardner (1983) explains:

The model proposes that second language acquisition should be considered within the social milieu in which it takes place and hypothesizes that the cultural beliefs within this milieu could influence the development of two sets of attitudinal variables relevant to language acquisition. (p.27)

When a person has a positive attitude towards learning the target language, the person would likely put some effort to achieve its goal in learning the

language. Gardner (1983) also has identified two types of orientation, which are integrative and instrumental orientations. An integrative orientation is when the learner is studying a language because he or she wishes to identify with the culture of speakers of that language. An instrumental orientation concerns with motivation arising from external goals such as getting a better job or a higher salary. Gardner (1979) claims that integrative motivation is superior to instrumental orientation. Gardner's model has been a great influence in studies of motivation. However, current researchers on motivation argue that the early psychological approaches to motivation overlooked the other aspect of human behavior such as cognition. The early approaches perceive human behavior as influenced by forces that are outside of an individual's control (Williams, 1997). Dornyei (1994) states that Gardner's motivation construct has been understood as the interplay of two components, integrative and instrumental motivations. Crookes and Schmidt (1991:478) agree with the statement and state, "the popularity of the integrative-instrumental contrast, together with the existence of standardized measures, has meant that this particular concept of motivation has tended to dominate all other ways of looking at the idea in the second language field".

Recent views on motivation have given rise to a number of researchers to look at motivation in a cognitive approach. As stated by Dornyei (1994) that Gardner's motivation construct does not include details on cognitive aspects of motivation to learn. He further adds that Gardner's model is only on general motivational components in the social milieu rather than in the foreign language

classroom. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) agree that limitation of Gardner's theory is the lack of attention to classroom learning. Dornyei (1994) argues that L2 motivation should be viewed from an educational perspective. Oxford and Shearin (1994) support this and assert that Gardner's definition on motivation need to be broadened to allow for complicated changes over time in a student's reason for learning a language. Thus, these recent views on motivation have shifted its approach to look at motivation in broader concept. From a cognitive perspective, people have a choice over the way in which they behave and, therefore, have control over their actions (Williams & Burden, 1997).

2.5 Current views on motivation: Cognitive Motivation

In the 1980s, the literature on motivation was enriched by the incorporation of ideas about strategy use from cognitive theories of learning which stems from a constructivist perspective (Blumenfeld, 1992). The current views on motivation have enabled psychologists to focus their attention on actions that are within our conscious control that it became possible to develop an entirely different perspective on motivation that drew upon ideas from cognitive psychology (Williams, 1997). From a cognitive perspective, motivation is concerned with such issues as why people decide to act in certain ways and what factors influence the choices they make (Williams and Burden, 1997). Marshall (1992b) pointed out that constructivist approaches stress that understanding is a function of knowledge construction and transformation, not merely information acquisition and accumulation. With regard to that Williams and Burden (1997:22)

make the assertion that “Language, therefore, rather than involving imparting and receiving chunks of knowledge, is concerned with learners *constructing* their own knowledge or understanding in their own ways, so that what they learn is personally significant to them”. In other words, the learners will take charge of their own understanding in the process of learning.

Motivation from a developmental viewpoint stems from Piaget and Vygotsky’s theory. Oxford and Shearin (1994) note that motivation is a built-in, unconscious striving toward more complex and differentiated development of the individual’s structures. Rich, stimulating environment allows the learner to develop cognitively and a deprived environment proved otherwise. In Piaget’s theory of cognitive development, he proposes that humans cannot be “given” information, which they immediately understand and use. Instead, humans must “construct” their own knowledge. While, Vygotsky (1978) implied that learners need assistance from the teacher in order to move from their current stages of language proficiency to where they could potentially be. He referred to the distance between the learner’s actual developmental level and the level of potential development as the Zone of Proximal Development.

Constructivist’s central idea is that learners build new knowledge upon the foundation of previous learning (SEDLetter, 1996). According to Piaget (1964) and Bruner (1966), students should be encouraged to learn on their own rather than be given information, as they are with reception language and expository teaching. Piaget (1964:5) asserts “We need pupils who are active, who learn early how to find out for themselves, partly by their own spontaneous activity and

partly by (experiences) set up for them, who learn early to tell what is verifiable and what is simply the first idea to come to them”.

As cited in Oxford and Shearin (1994), Piaget’s work suggest that learning a new language, like learning one’s native language, is part of the individual’s progress toward cognitive development. Vygotsky’s work implies that L2 learning goals must be clearly based on learners’ needs and interests for motivation to occur and the input from the teacher must be both relevant and demanding. According to Oxford and Shearin (1994) language development (in the native language or a second or foreign language) deserves and requires a stimulating environment; without this kind of environment, the individual’s inborn, motivated quest for cognitive growth will be hindered.

In a Piagetian classroom, meaning is constructed as learners interact in meaningful ways with the world around them. In other words, learners are more likely to learn if they are engaged in meaningful activities. Whole activities as opposed to isolated skill exercises; authentic activities, which are interesting and meaningful to the students, are emphasized in Piagetian classrooms. In a Piagetian classroom, students must be given opportunities to construct knowledge through their own experiences. They should not act as depositors where every bit of instruction is taught or told by the teacher.

Learning can take place when students engage in experiences and experiments from which they derive their own knowledge and meaning and understanding (Cruickshank, Bainer and Metcalf, 1999). Thus, it is necessary for teachers to provide students opportunities to think independently in order to

obtain knowledge for themselves. As Wyatt (1992) point out that as teachers, we need to help learners see for themselves how to formulate knowledge through collecting, organizing, and manipulating data.

However, Skinner (1968) argues that this approach of learning tends to be inefficient, time consuming and only rarely lead to genuine discoveries. In addition, only the best students in any would be likely to make most of the discoveries, whereas, less capable students may feel discouraged and lose interest. Thus, for this reason Oxford and Shearin (1994) indicate that L2 teachers must be aware the factors that stimulate students needs for achievement in L2 might differ among students.

Piaget claims that teacher's role is to provide a rich environment for the student to explore their learning. Therefore, teachers must not make assumptions about students' motivations. As stated by Oxford and Shearin (1994) teachers need to know what these motivations are and how to build them. When teachers know what students goals are they then can provide assistance and guidance in the type of instruction, which leads to the expected outcome. Subsequently, when students are more aware of what they are learning they begin to take charge of their learning independently.

McGarry (1995:1) supports the statement and further notes that "students who are encouraged to take responsibility for their own work, by being given some control.... This indicates that dependency on students to take charge on their own learning would bear success if teachers themselves may not take up the role in promoting autonomy in classroom." Several areas of research into

motivation in education suggest that motivation to learn and learning effectiveness can be increased in learners who take responsibility for their own learning, who understand and accept that their learning success is a result of effort, and that failure can be overtaken with greater effort and better use of strategies (Wang and Palincsar, 1989). McGarry (1995:1) makes the observation that “The majority of students are still being taught in ways which promote dependence and leave them ill-equipped to apply their school-learned knowledge and skills to the world beyond the classroom.”

Nevertheless, there are some discussions of learner autonomy, which has not been positive. Some critics have claimed that the very idea of autonomy is part of the Western cultural tradition and thus by definition alien to non-western learners (Jones, 1995). Blumenfeld (1992) emphasizes that constructivist theory can offer motivation researchers ideas about tasks, meaning and support by investigating ways to design and implement classroom tasks that are real and conceptually rich. Moreover, it provides insight into how features of task, authority, and evaluation are built through dynamic interactions among participants in classrooms (Blumenfeld, 1992).

2.6 Motivational techniques in learning situations

As cited in Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Keller’s (1983:389) definition on “motivation refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect.” Keller’s (1983), education-oriented theory of motivation identifies four

major determinants of motivation: (i) interest, (ii) relevance, (iii) expectancy, (iv) outcomes. According to Dornyei (1994), Keller's motivational determinants are more relevant to classroom learning. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) postulate the four major motivational factors in describing L2 classroom motivation.

In this study I only use two of Keller's determinants of motivation are being used that is relevance and expectancy, a detailed explanation of these terms will be provided here and also in Chapter Three. According to Keller (1983), '*interest*', is related to intrinsic motivation and is centered on the individual's inherent curiosity and desire to know more about himself or herself and his or her environment. '*Relevance*', is a prerequisite for sustained motivation and it refers to how student feels that the instruction is connected to important personal needs, values or goals being met by the learning situation. In learning situation, it refers to the extent to which the classroom instruction and course content are seen to be conducive to achieve the goal. '*Relevance*' or task or activity as referred to by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) deals not only with instrumental needs but also "personal-motive needs" such as the need for affiliation and achievement.

Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamara (1989) have defined this intrinsic motivation as the kind of motivation that arises when an individual subjectively estimates his or her skill level is equal to the challenge level and both are relatively high. The challenge level can be promoted by providing students different kinds of tasks after reading assignments such as think aloud, summary writing, journal, etc. The tasks given should allow the students to use what they learned while reading (Irwin & Baker, 1989). When lessons provided by teacher

are seen relevant to the students' goals and interests, students will be motivated to reach that goal (Dornyei, 1994) such as improving reading skills. Ames (1992) asserts a central element of classroom learning is the design of tasks and learning activities. Students' perceptions of tasks and activities not only influence how they approach learning; these perceptions also have important consequences for how they use available time (Good, 1983). Tasks that involve variety and diversity are more likely to facilitate an interest in learning and a mastery orientation (e.g. Marshall and Weinstein, 1984). Another advantage of task-based approach is that through this approach the teacher is able to detect students' abilities or lack of skills. According to Breen (1987:45), "task development has the potential of revealing our learners to us". The task-based approach will be further discussed in Chapter 3.

The other factor, '*expectancy*' refers to the perceived likelihood of success and is related to the learner's self-confidence and self-efficacy. In classroom learning situation, it concerns with perceived task difficulty, the amount of effort required, the amount of available assistance and guidance, the teacher's presentation of the task and familiarity with the task type. In other words, students' perception of success or failure doing activities will effect their motivation. According to Oxford and Shearin (1994) L2 learners' expectations of success or failure are very important in determining their motivation to learn the language. This illustrates that as teachers we not only have to teach but also we must be more sensitive to students view of future success in L2 learning. In the class teacher should discourage activity, which may lead to low risk-taking. One

way to do this is by using cooperative rather than competitive goal structures (Ames, 1984, 1986).

In cooperative learning students are encouraged to work together on learning activities. Little (1991) notes that group work allow students to influence each other and also for example, the sequence of activities followed by a group. Social interaction, particularly peer interaction is a valuable part of classroom language (Dornyei, 1994). Dornyei (1994:23-24) asserts that “sharing responsibility with students, offering them options and choices, letting them have a say in establishing priority, and involving them in the decision making enhance student self determinant and intrinsic motivation.” In short, students’ understanding of the task/activity among their peers promotes their motivation to learn and at the same time enjoy doing group work activity. This second aspect of motivational technique will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter 3.

‘Outcomes’ refers to the combination of extrinsic rewards such as praise or good marks and to intrinsic rewards such as enjoyment and pride. Activities for which the motivating forces are outcomes have been referred to as extrinsically motivated, as opposed to those which are intrinsically motivated (e.g. Deci, 1975).

2.7 Conclusion

Studies have shown that reading is one of the most important skills for second language learners. The literature review has also indicated that students who are proficient readers are able to attain greater advancement and development in other academic settings. This signifies the importance of teaching

reading skills to college students. As stated by Yong (1982) it is essential that teachers see the development of reading skills as integral to the educational process, since reading does not come naturally without teaching, even for those with linguistic aptitude. Thus, it is imperative that every teacher teaches their students the required reading skills to read, understand materials related to their subjects. Chitravelu (1980) suggests that teaching students to extract information from texts efficiently enable them to pursue advanced courses of study independently and effectively. However, as teachers we need to look at current approach in teaching reading and to consider the diversity of learners in a classroom. As Wittrock (1988), points out that research needs to be done to understand the processes involved in learning so that learning strategies can be taught effectively.

This review also indicates that motivation play an important role to learners of a second language. Results of the studies clearly show the need to increase our understanding of how students acquire the motivation to develop into active, engaged readers. As Oxford and Shearin (1994) indicated that motivation is extremely important for L2 learning, and it is critical to understand what our students' motivation are. Studies also suggested that students who take control their own learning are better learners. According to Little (1991) all learning is ultimately autonomous learning in the sense that it depends on the efforts of the learners themselves. Allowing students greater freedom in learning and helping them to become more aware of their capacities for autonomy may therefore enhance motivation and the quality of learning. In order to allow learners to know

something by themselves external reinforcements such as teacher assistance are needed. Therefore, O'Neil (1992:4) suggests teachers to provide time and numerous opportunities for students "to explore phenomena or ideas, to conjecture, to share their hypotheses with others and, where necessary, to revise their original thinking".

As Pearson and Leys (1985:4) say that "teacher's role is not to impart wisdom from his or her *fount of knowledge* but to arrange conditions to help learning occur, to provide information when asked to do so by a student, and to help student realize the range of goals and functions that reading can serve". The present study will investigate the use of motivational techniques in assisting students to improve their reading skills. The findings in this study will provide new insights into the use of motivation in reading class.