

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review of literature includes the following aspects: definition of self-determination, overview of L2 learning theory, self-determination and learning, and relevant research.

2.1 DEFINITIONS OF SELF-DETERMINATION

To better understand the abstract term “self-determination” mainly discussed in this study, it is vital that it be defined. Since the study of L2 motivation research by Gardner and Lambert (1972) first emerged in Canada, a number of researchers subsequently commenced investigating this research field by extending the concepts. All studies in the past tended to focus on examining similar motivation in learning and acquiring a L2, but the distinction was that researchers had attempted to differentiate their own studies from others by identifying other variables related to motivation that influenced the achievement of L2 learning either positively or negatively.

Interestingly, of those researchers’ theories in L2 motivation, the theory of “self-determination” by Deci and Ryan (1985, p. 43) has been accepted. This term can be defined as follows:

Self-determination is a human motivation associated with the development and performance of personality within social contexts. It focuses on the degree to which human behaviors are self-determined. In the other words, it is the degree to which people support their actions at the highest level of reflection and engage in the actions with a full sense of choice (Deci and Ryan, 1985, p.68).

Dörnyei and Cumming (2003, p. 38) stated that self-determination is generally divided into general types of motivation. The following two types of motivation are certainly not different, but rather lie along a continuum of self-determination as follows:

Intrinsic motivation. It is defined as a stimulus for learning activities that totally arises from internal needs and desires. Deci and Ryan (1985, p. 38) added that intrinsic motivation is found on “innate needs for competence and self-determination”.

Most researchers would formulate hypotheses that when people freely opt to do any activities, they will look for interesting situations that pose challenges to them. Then they can promote a sense of competence in their capabilities by achieving these challenges.

Extrinsic motivation. It is defined as the context in which motives for performing activities are stimulated by tangible rewards or goals, such as money, high grades, compliments, and examination scores. Language learners with extrinsic motivation perform the activity because they need to obtain some rewards or avoid punishments, for example. Deci and Ryan (1985, p. 39) maintained that “different types of extrinsic motivation can be classified along a continuum according to the extent to which they are internalized into the self-concept”.

Kamada (1986) stated that “often learning cannot be neatly divided between these two contexts as they may overlap; they may be instances where both can be simultaneously accountable for a particular behavior.” As both of these two terms are general in a self-motivation continuum, they can be further divided or internalized into many sub-dimensions, depending on derivation and contexts that researchers need to identify and study.

Due to the mentioned division, this current study then internalized constructs with respect to the objectives of the study. The researcher tried to find constructs conducive to the learning contexts.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF L2 LEARNING THEORY

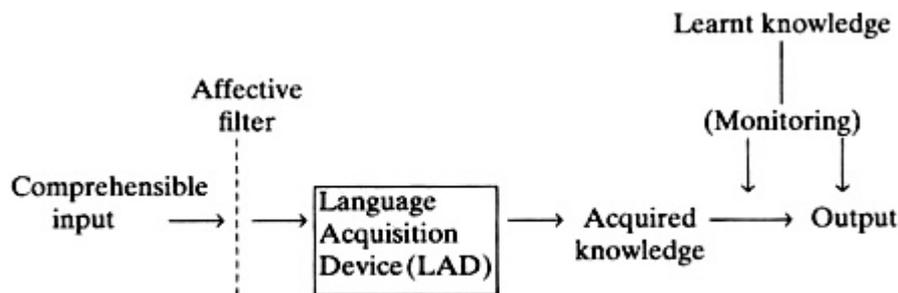
In the realm of L2 performance, there are two terms involved: second language acquisition (SLA) and second language (L2) learning. In 1992, Gass and Selinker’s study was cited in Moss (2003) saying that both terms are related with how people develop their communicative competence and transfer that competence in a first language to a second language. Krashen (1988, pp. 1-3) differentiates between learning and acquisition. L2 learning is a conscious knowledge-accumulating process where learners can apply rules and structures of the L2 language through formal education. L2 acquisition, however, is an unconscious knowledge process where no formal education is involved. This is similar to how children acquire their first and second language.

Krashen (1988, p. 2) says that conscious language learning can be facilitated much by error correction and explicit rule presentations. Language learners can mentally present a linguistic generalization through error correction. In his 'Monitor Theory', the fundamental claim is that "conscious learning is available to the performer only as a Monitor". Conscious learning can be used to correct the output of the acquired system - the fluency in production is based on what people have picked up through active communication. Corrections are made in order for accuracy. 'Monitor Model' notes that learning and acquisition are two separate processes that co-exist in adults. Both are used in different ways. Foreign students possess stronger language skills, such as reading, writing, and grammar as they have learned these in their home country through formal classroom instruction, whereas immigrant students have mastery of aural comprehension due to a necessity for daily survival. Krashen pointed out that "the Monitor 'overusers' are performers who feel that they must know the syntactic aspect for everything and do not trust their feel for grammaticality in the L2". In Stevick's terms, "overuser may suffer from "lathophobicaphasia, an unwillingness to speak for fear of making a mistake". However, in the other extreme side, underusers are quite addicted to speaking with errors as they depend on what they can pick up of the L2, and they cannot perform well on tests that involve grammatical competence (Krashen, 1988).

Krashen (1988) states that a good language learner is an acquirer who can initially gain enough intake in the L2, and then he or she has a low affective filter to utilize the input for language acquisition. The good language learner may or may not be a conscious learner. To be a successful language learner or acquirer, he or she must utilize language leaning as a supplement more than just be present in formal and informal learning settings. Nevertheless, there are still other affective factors that contribute to success in L2 learning. The empirical data obtained from the study of thirty-four good language learners revealed that two factors influencing successful L2 acquisition were immersion and motivation.

Therefore, since the subjects in this study are learners cognitively learning English language through formal instruction and receiving error corrections during their language competence presentation by teachers, the term "learning", based on the two terms-learning and acquisition- previously discussed, is more appropriate to be discussed in the study.

Figure 1. The input hypotheses of L2 learning and production (Krashen, 1982, pp. 16 and 32).



Reed and Railsback (2003, pp. 15-17) said that a continuum of learning, predictable and sequential stages of language development is one among other concepts endorsed by most current theorists. L2 learners progress in their language performance from no knowledge to a level of competence closely similar to that of a native learner. Based on these theories, L2 development is typically identified as:

Stage I: The Silent/Receptive or Preproduction Stage

In this stage from ten hours to six months, students often learn up to 500 "receptive" words¹. They can understand new words that make them comprehensible. However, students still feel uncomfortable using their learned words. This stage is often called a "silent period" during which students may not speak, but they can respond employing a variety of strategies including pointing to an object, picture, or person; performing an act, such as standing up or closing a door; gesturing or nodding; or responding with a simple "yes" or "no." Teachers should encourage them to speak only when they are ready to do so.

Stage II: The Early Production Stage

After the initial stage, this stage can last six more months. Students have usually developed close to 1,000 receptive/active words. They can understand their learned words and use them in some phrases. During this stage, students can usually speak in one- or two-word phrases and can show their understanding by giving short answers to simple yes/no, either/or, or wh-questions.

¹ "Receptive words" refer to words that students have, but they may not be comfortable using.

Stage III: The Speech Emergence Stage

This stage can last up to another year. Students have usually increased to possession of about 3,000 words. They can communicate in short phrases and simple sentences. Students start to use dialogue and can make simple questions, such as "Can I go to the restroom?" They can also give answers to simple questions and may produce longer sentences, but often with grammatical errors, some of which can be a barrier to their communication.

Stage IV: The Intermediate Language Proficiency Stage

In this stage, students may take up to another year to gain intermediate proficiency. They have generally developed close to 6,000 words and are beginning to create complex statements, state opinions, ask for clarification, share their ideas, and speak at greater length.

Stage V: The Advanced Language Proficiency Stage

In this last stage, students take five to seven years in order to gain advanced proficiency in a second language. By this stage, students have increased some particular content-area words and can fully take part in classroom activities if they are occasionally supported. Compared to native speakers with same age, students can speak English using grammar and vocabulary equivalently.

Based on the language developmental stage, it can be concluded that if L2 learners lack motivation and persistence in learning a language no matter what motivational factors are, they would fail to achieve the last stage indicating the advanced language proficiency, whereas if they are considerably motivated and engaged in language learning, they could speak a L2 with correct grammar and better employment of vocabularies, compared to native speakers with the status quo. In addition, acknowledging which stage students are in can help teachers predict and accept students' current stage, and then teachers themselves are prepared to adjust their teaching approaches to promote progressiveness to another stage.

2.3 SELF-DETERMINATION AND L2 LEARNING

Noels, Clément and Pelletier (1999) stated that according to the self-determination theory, a general theory of motivation and personality that developed

over the past three decades, there are two general types of motivation: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (1985) introduced the theory of self-determination. Deci and Ryan's "self-determination has been one of the most influential approaches in motivational psychology". During the past 4 years, Noels has gained an overwhelming acceptance when applying this theory to the issues of L2 motivation. Noels and her associates (Pelletier and Vallerand) have thoroughly studied how these concepts could fit into the L2 area and designed an instrument to assess the various variables of motivation in L2 learning in order for validity and reliability (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 7).

2.3.1 Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is generally defined as "motivation to engage in an activity because that activity is enjoyable and satisfying to do" (Dörnyei & Cumming, 2003, p. 38). Learners choose to do things and participate in activities because they are intrinsically driven to engage in those things and activities, regardless of other tangible rewards and force. Ryan and Deci (2002, p. 70) confirmed that there is no single factor exhibiting the positive potential of human nature as much as intrinsic motivation. People with intrinsic motivation tend to seek novel and challenging things, to exercise their capacities, to explore, and to learn. However, the degree of intrinsic motivation can decrease naturally if students become involved with affiliation, mastery, spontaneous interest, and exploration that is crucial to cognitive and social development and that represents a main source of enjoyment and vitality (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p.70).

In 1985, Ryan and Deci (p. 70) presented Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), a subtheory of Self-determination Theory (SDT), with the objective of identifying factors that explain variability in intrinsic motivation. In their early studies, the finding revealed that positive feedback could enhance intrinsic motivation, whereas negative feedback could diminish it. Moreover, their further studies have showed that a sense of competence will not increase intrinsic motivation unless a sense of autonomy is present. Not only must people have competence, but they must also be self-determined (Ryan and Deci, 2002, p. 70). Consequently, perceived autonomy and competence are motivational constructs responsible for intrinsic motivation.

2.3.2 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity to attain something in an anticipation of extrinsic rewards such as praise, awards, evaluation, or the like (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 71). People with extrinsic motivation seek to perform things and take part in activities because they would like to achieve some instrumental aspects, such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment. The studies of Ryan and Connel (1987) and Vallerand (1997) were cited in Ryan and Deci (2002, p. 71) stating that the constructs of extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in its relative autonomy. For example, a student who does his homework because he personally sees the usefulness for his selected career has extrinsic motivation, whereas another student does it only because of his parents' control. The former example involves a sense of personal choice while the latter entails compliance with an external regulation. "Both represent intentional behaviors".

In order to embrace a variety of educational issues regarding motivation in a L2 acquisition, in the 1990s, the study of L2 motivation turned to an interesting point. In 1994, Gardner and Tremblay's study was cited in Dörnyei (2003, p.11), naming this concept "motivational renaissance" expanding beyond the Canadian paradigm. This new theme aimed to investigate the contextual factors or surroundings which were much more influential. It focused on the learning contexts, such as course-specific motivational components (e.g., enjoyment in the tasks, proper employment of the teacher approach, coherence of the teaching materials), teacher-specific motivational components (e.g., the impact of the teacher's personality, manner, and teaching style), and group-specific motivational components (e.g., various characteristics of the learn community); that is, affective factors were found in the classroom settings. Dörnyei (2001b) also added that his examination on how to enhance learner motivation suggests that social factors (e.g., group dynamics, learning environment, and a partner's motivation) affect a learner's attitude, classroom behavior, effort, and achievement. Consequently, in 2001, Florez and Burt's study was cited in Moss (2003) suggesting that teachers create a classroom setting that is pertinent to learning by promoting group cohesiveness. For example, learners can have an opportunity to share information and create a feeling of community through pair and group work activities.

2.4 RELEVANT RESEARCH

Song (2002, p. 78) said that since Gardner and Lambert (1959), the early scholars, initiated and published their comprehensive research, a ten-year-long study of motivation in L2 learning, the foundational theory of L2 learning motivation has been laid. Initially, their study was widely accepted. However, some other investigations of many researchers didn't support their model due to its motionless aspect and results contradictory with the subsequent ones. Therefore, many subsequent studies extending their initial constructs have emerged. Some of them, emphasizing the study of motivational constructs, especially ones related to the present study in L2 learning, are presented as follows:

In 1997, Wen examined the motivational factors associated with the learning of Chinese. The participants were from Asian and Asian-American backgrounds. This study aimed (1) to explore why some students were persistent in learning Chinese language while others were not and (2) to investigate possible interactions between learning a 'truly foreign' language and motivation. A questionnaire with two parts was administered during regular class sessions. The first part aimed to elicit information about motivation, and the other aimed to gather information about their expectations of learning outcomes. The analysis of the factors was conducted to identify the motivation variables. The studied factors were then examined through regression procedures. The scores for each item were computed by using the formula of the motivation and expectancy model and were compared by a t-test.

The findings of the study revealed that the intrinsic interest in Chinese culture and the desire to understand one's own cultural heritage were the initial motivational factors for students to learn the Chinese language. Expectations of learning task and effort helped students continue studying their Chinese at the intermediate level. In addition, motivational factors correlated significantly with desired learning outcomes from expectancy theory. Based on the research findings, the researcher suggested two implications. The first was that in order to promote maximum student learning, the language requirement should be changed to one that assesses how much students can use language to communicate. The second was that teachers should help students develop their sense of self-efficacy, learning goals, and realistic expectations of the learning process.

In 1998, Kang conducted research that aimed to find out what kinds of orientations could lead to motivation, and how these new cognitive variables are related to English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) motivation. This study surveyed 192 (90 male and 102 female students) Korean high school students' orientations for learning English. The research investigated their motivation by using a questionnaire. The obtained data were factor-analyzed to extract underlying factors of EFL students' orientations and motivations. Pearson product-moment correlations were used to determine the relationships among the motivational factors.

The research result showed that (1) there were more components than traditional integrative orientation, such as intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and instrumental-knowledge motivation; (2) intrinsic motivation was most salient among them; (3) there existed multiple tracks of orientations vs. motivations vs. achievement; (4) all orientation factors had to be first internally controllable by or for students before leading to motivations or vice versa; (5) intrinsic/extrinsic motivations were mainly related to formal classroom-related factors; and (6) self-confidence construct was associated with either intrinsic or instrumental-knowledge orientation rather than the integrative one.

Referring to the findings from the above studies, many factors could intrinsically and extrinsically motivate students to learn a L2. However, since there are a number of affective, contextual constructs in the learning environments, longitudinally studying and identifying these motivational factors should be of more use to the implications of findings. Researchers themselves should explore further motivational factors associated with a context to reap ultimate benefits in the areas of their studies.