Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Framework

The following review of literature explores the research trends in L2 learning motivation and the theoretical frameworks for motivation types and self-identity changes. It also reports the recent research findings involving studies from around the world and Thailand.

2.1.1 L2 Learning Motivation

Dörnyei (2005) divided the last fifty years of L2 learning motivation research into the following three periods: the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period, and the process-oriented period. The social psychological period began with the work of Gardner who proposed that L2 learning is not merely something that is done in a classroom but is a social psychological phenomenon which is grounded in social events that requires the L2 culture as well (Dörnyei, 2001).

The cognitive-situated period included two broad ideas from the previous decades of research—combining concepts from cognitive psychology and the broad focus of motivation types among communities. Gardner's previous work among whole language communities was not discarded during this period but was used to make inferences in important areas such as language contact, multiculturalism, and language globalization. Both the self-determination theory and an analysis of language attributions were research areas that appeared during this period. Through the research conducted during the cognitive-situated period, other characteristics of L2 learning motivation emerged including motivation's dynamic character and temporal variations. The process-oriented period of research has continued to look at motivation as a constantly changing dimension of second language acquisition where students naturally experience ups and downs in their levels of motivation (Dörnyei, 2005).

2.1.2 Motivation Theories

Many theories in L2 learning motivation have been introduced and researched throughout the last 50 years; however, the current research focuses on three particular motivation theories. Gardner's motivation theory (1985) and his socio-educational model (2001), Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory (SDT; 2002), and Dörnyei and Ottó's process model of L2 motivation (as cited in Dörnyei, 2005) provided the basis for the motivation section of this research.

2.1.2.1 Gardner's Motivation Theory

Since his early research, Gardner (2001) has updated his socio-educational model several times. He described his model as a dynamic one which should be changed and developed as new information is discovered (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). His 2001 model shows the concept of integrative motivation, language aptitude, and other factors affecting language achievement (see Figure 1). The concept of integrative motivation consists of the following variables: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation. Motivation and language achievement can both be influenced by other support and factors.
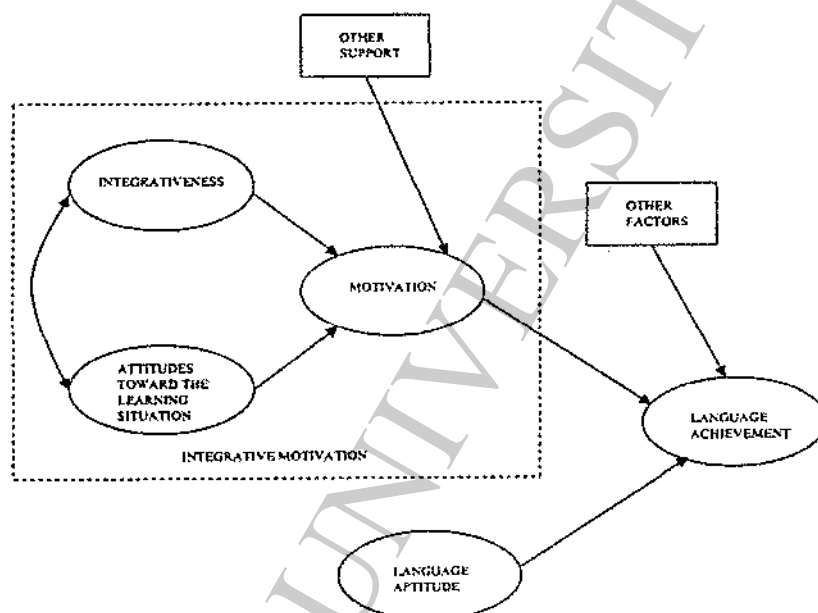

Figure 1 Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (2001, p. 5)

Although integrative motivation is comprised of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation, Gardner (2001) places the emphasis on motivation. He defines motivation as "the driving force in any situation" and states that students who have L2 learning motivation will make an effort to learn the language, display a consistent effort to learn the material by doing homework, doing extra work, and seeking out opportunities for further learning, and will enjoy L2 learning (Gardner, 2001, p. 6). He described language learning motivation as the key principal in his socio-educational model and expected it to have a higher correlation with various aspects of language achievement.

Gardner (2010, p. 9) defined integrativeness as "a willingness or affective ability to take on characteristics of another cultural group." As L2 learning progresses, students may find themselves identifying in some ways with the L2 community, and this change in self-identity may deepen throughout the learning process. "Because language is central to the individuals' views of the world and hence their sense of identity, the learning of a new form of language could have implications depending on the importance of their own cultural identity and their views of other cultural groups" (Gardner, 2010, p. 9). Differences in motivation will result from individual differences in integrativeness.

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Attitude toward the learning situation is the other variable that affects L2 learning motivation (Gardner, 2001). This aspect involves any facet of the language learning situation, and in a school context it includes attitudes toward the teacher, other participants in the classroom, outside activities, classroom activities, and so forth. These attitudes will vary even among students involved in the same learning situation, and these differences are the focus in the socio-educational model.

Gardner (2010) also includes the notion of orientation which is a class of reasons for studying the L2. A student learning the language for practical benefits has an instrumental orientation while a student studying in order to become a part at least psychologically of another language community has an integrative orientation. Gardner's orientations are not synonymous with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, but Dickinson (1995, p. 170) proposes their relativity. For example, an integrative orientation emphasizing learning the L2 in order to associate with the new language community would be a "subject-specific example of intrinsic motivation." Gardner hypothesized that an integrative orientation would be a better predictor of attainment of a higher level of L2 proficiency than an instrumental orientation; however, empirical research of the two orientations has been inconclusive. Some studies have found that instrumental as well as integrative orientations predicted L2 outcomes, and sometimes despite original predictions, integrative orientation had negative correlations with L2 proficiency (e.g., Chihara & Oller, 1978; Lukmani, 1972; Oller, Hudson, & Liu, 1977). Some studies have suggested that an instrumental orientation is just as good at predicting learning outcomes as integrative orientations, and integrative orientations may not even be present in some language learning contexts. Furthermore, there may be more orientations than just instrumental and integrative; therefore, new research has been done examining orientations in light of Deci and Ryan's SDT (Noels, 2001b).

2.1.2.2 Self-Determination Theory

Because of Dickinson's (1995) proposal for the relativity of Gardner's orientations and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, a deeper review of the theory behind these types of motivation follows. An impressive amount of research followed Gardner's initial work and his socio-educational model, but the findings have been inconsistent (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000). Because of these inconsistencies, Clément and Kruidenier (1983) examined the orientations of French and English high schools students who were studying Spanish, English, and French. In researching both unilingual and multilingual contexts, they found that integrative orientation occurred only in multicultural contexts among members of a clearly dominant group, but they did find that four orientations were common in all groups of learners—travel, friendship, knowledge, and instrumental. Integrativeness was originally thought to be necessary for L2 acquisition, but some have found it relevant in certain sociocultural contexts rather than being a fundamental part of motivation while Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) found that a factor related to integrativeness generally shows up in empirical research on motivation types regardless of learner characteristics or the learning situation.

Because of the inconsistencies in the research, there has been much discussion about the nature of L2 learning motivation, and some have chosen to look at other motivational models in order to complement Gardner's motivation theory rather than replace it (Oxford, 1996). One such theory that has garnered much attention is SDT

(Ryan & Deci, 2002). This theory recognizes that humans have a general integrative tendency, but this tendency cannot be assumed. Socio-contextual factors can reinforce the inherent integrative tendency, but other identifiable factors can hinder this series of changes.

Deci and Ryan (2002) view motivation types as part of a self-determination continuum as seen in Figure 2 rather than a simple division of either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. The organismic integration theory, which is a mini-theory under SDT, assumes that people are likely to integrate their continued experiences if they have the ability to do so. This internalization occurs in varying degrees and is not meant to be a series of steps one must follow in order to reach intrinsic motivation.
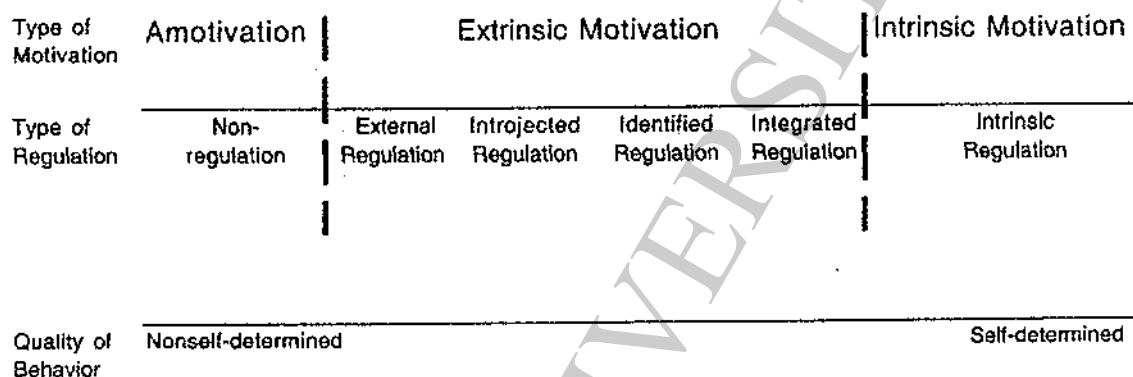
Type of Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
Type of Regulation	Non-regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Quality of Behavior	Nonself-determined					Self-determined

Figure 2 The Self-Determination Continuum with Types of Motivation

Deci and Ryan (2002, p. 17) define amotivation as "lacking the intention to act." The participant does not act at all or acts passively. According to Noels et al. (2000) amotivation refers to people who do not see the relationship between what they choose to do and the consequences that result. They see the consequences being a result of factors they could not control.

The rest of the items in Figure 2 refer to different classifications of motivated behavior. Deci and Ryan (2002) define intrinsic motivation as the "state of doing an activity out of interest and inherent satisfaction" (p. 17); it is the ultimate example of autonomous and self-determined behavior. Vallerand (1997) argued for three subtypes of intrinsic motivation: to learn, towards achievement, and to experience stimulation. The rewards of the subtypes of intrinsic motivation include the satisfaction of understanding a new idea, the satisfaction of accomplishing something, and the satisfaction of experiencing pleasant sensations respectively.

Extrinsic motivation as defined by Deci and Ryan (2002) is an activity that is engaged in for instrumental reasons—not reasons that are naturally occurring in human nature. They saw some extrinsically motivated tasks that varied in their degrees of self-determination and choice. They identified four types of extrinsic motivations which range from non-self-determined to self-determined.

External regulation separates the motivation from the activity itself. The participant participates in the activity in order to either receive a positive outcome such as more money or to avoid a negative consequence such as a reprimand from parents. Introjected regulation is the initial step of the internalization process where participants receive a cue from their surrounding environment and take it in; however, even though it is internalized, it does not become part of the integrated self, and the

motivation is not self-determined. These activities are performed in order to improve self-worth, avoid guilt and shame, or to enlarge the ego (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

The final two types of extrinsic motivation move closer to self-determination and intrinsic motivation. Identified regulation involves the behavioral goal being valued as good and important at the personal level. At the conscious level, the individual is personally accepting it and chooses to participate. Integrated regulation is the most self-determined and autonomous of the extrinsic motivations and occurs when there is harmony between both the choice and other internal beliefs and values. Identifications are no longer separated between cues that have been internalized but have become one with personally held beliefs, values, goals, and needs (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

2.1.2.3 Process Model of L2 Motivation

In response to the difficulty in describing motivational processes over time and the general ups and downs in motivation participants experience, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) developed a process model of L2 motivation (see Figure 3) which includes two main dimensions: action sequence and motivational influences. The action sequence dimension addresses the process by which wishes, hopes, and desires are transformed into goals, then intentions, then action, then hopefully to accomplishment of the goals followed by final evaluation. The motivational influences address the energy sources and motivational forces that influence the action sequence.

The action sequence is divided into three phases: the *preactional* phase, the *actional* phase, and the *postactional* phase. The *preactional* phase precedes the beginning of the action; the *actional* phase fuels the action while it is being carried out, and the *postactional* phase involves evaluation after the action has been completed (Dörnyei, 2005).

Assuming that everyone considers the possibility of many wishes, hopes, and desires, the *preactional* phase begins with an actual, concrete goal coupled with commitment. In addition the individual must develop at least a general action plan that provides the technical guidelines of the planned action including subtasks and strategies that are needed and a time frame for the commencement of the action. Once the action commences, there is a shift from decision making to action (Dörnyei, 2005).

In the *actional* phase the action plans that were created in the *preactional* phase are re-negotiated, and new subtasks and subgoals emerge. Comparisons are made between actual events and what was predicted and also what would happen if another action sequence was implemented. The participants must also evaluate what progress is being made in attaining the goal and cues received from the environment. Self-regulatory strategies are employed to protect the action even when progress appears to be slowing or even retreating. These basic processes will lead to some kind of outcome whether it be the extreme of reaching the goal or quitting the action completely (Dörnyei, 2005).
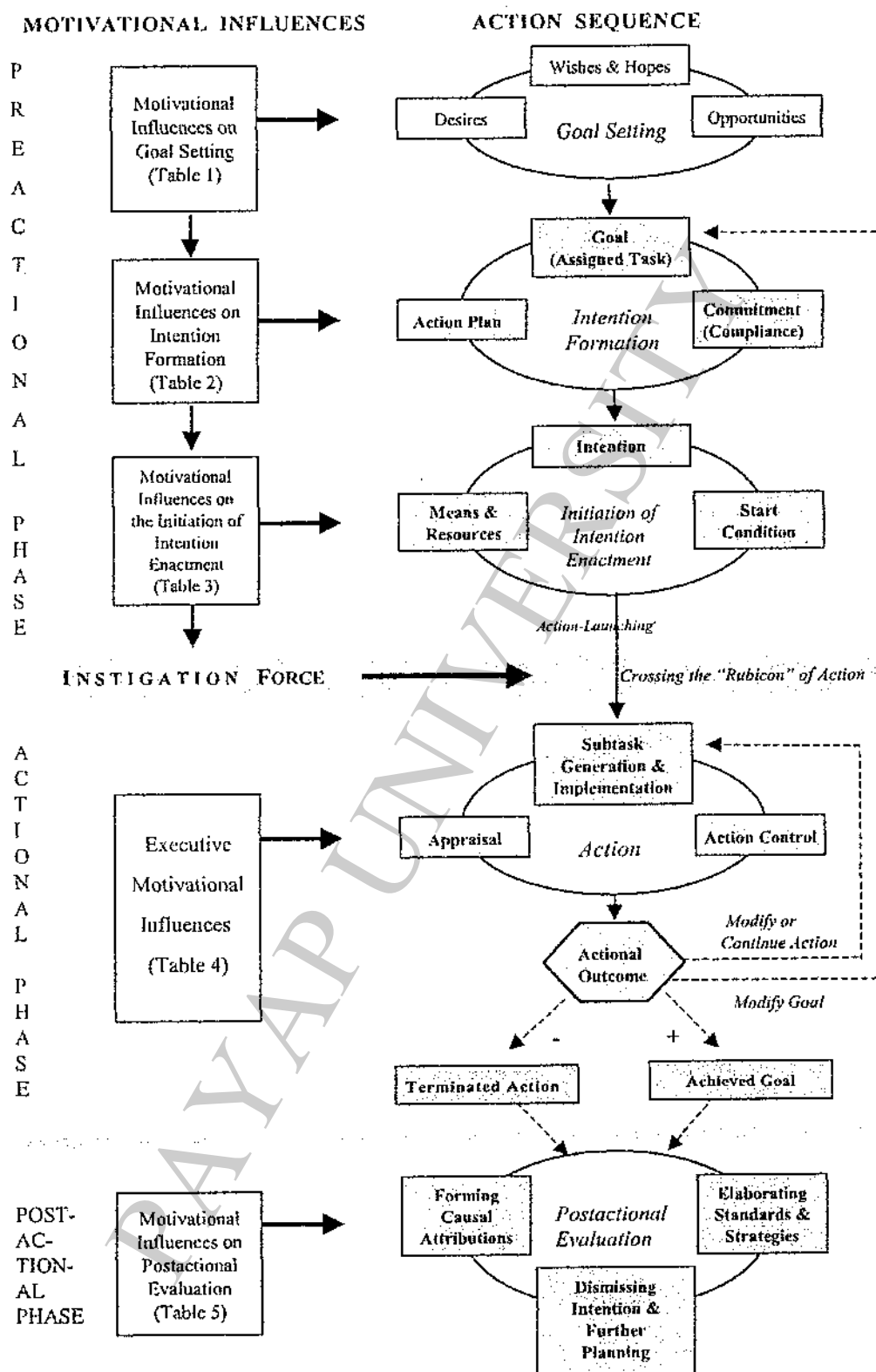
MOTIVATIONAL INFLUENCES   ACTION SEQUENCE

P R E A C T I O N A L   P H A S E

Motivational Influences on Goal Setting (Table 1)

Motivational Influences on Intention Formation (Table 2)

Motivational Influences on the Initiation of Intention Enactment (Table 3)

INSTIGATION FORCE

Wishes & Hopes

Desires   *Goal Setting*   Opportunities

Goal (Assigned Task)

Action Plan   *Intention Formation*   Commitment (Compliance)

Intention

Means & Resources   *Initiation of Intention Enactment*   Start Condition

Action-Launching

Crossing the "Rubicon" of Action

A C T I O N A L   P H A S E

Executive Motivational Influences (Table 4)

Subtask Generation & Implementation

Appraisal   *Action*   Action Control

Modify or Continue Action

Actional Outcome

Modify Goal

−   +

Terminated Action   Achieved Goal

POST-AC-TION-AL PHASE

Motivational Influences on Postactional Evaluation (Table 5)

Forming Causal Attributions   *Postactional Evaluation*   Elaborating Standards & Strategies

Dismissing Intention & Further Planning

Figure 3 Dörnyei and Ottó's Process Model of L2 Motivation (1998, p. 48)

Once the goal has been achieved, terminated, or interrupted for a time, the participant enters the *postactional* phase. The participant evaluates the actual accomplishment and contemplates how the outcome influences possible future actions. The learner compares his or her initial expectations from the *preactional* stage to what really happened and forms opinions to what extent the goals have been achieved. The ability to accurately compare actual performance to what is potential will help prepare for the future, and the original intention must be discarded so that a new goal may be created. For example, if the original intention from the *preactional* stage was met, then a greater goal may be set and the learner returns to the *preactional* stage for a new goal beginning the cycle again (Dörnyei, 2005).

In this study all of the participants are in the *actional* dimension of L2 motivation. They have chosen to major in English and are all currently studying in the program. The motivational influences in the *actional* stage on ongoing learning include the perceived quality of the learning experience, the perceived relationship between action and outcome, the learner's sense of self-determination/autonomy, teachers and parents, and reward structure. In contrast task conflict, costs involved, becoming bored with the activity, and other distracting influences can have a weakening effect on motivation. Throughout the *actional* phase learners have to learn motivation maintenance strategies which can help to increase motivation. Otherwise motivation can be weakened to the point of quitting. Dörnyei (2005, p. 99) writes, "It is sometimes only when everything else fails and one is about to quit, that one thinks over what action abandonment would really entail, and the perceived possible negative consequences may activate enough energy to keep going."

Gardner (2001) proposed that his socio-educational model is a dynamic model in that attitudes influence motivation and motivation influences achievement including linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes. The cycle does not stop there as achievement then influences subsequent attitudes and therefore affects motivation as well. This research relies on the dynamic nature of this cycle and specifically investigates possible correlations between students' motivation types and the non-linguistic outcome of self-identity change. Because Gardner's model views motivation as a dynamic construct as well, being influenced by attitudes and subsequent language achievement, the research utilizes Noels and colleagues (2000) continuum of motivation types based upon SDT. This continuum allows for a more accurate pinpoint of motivation type for this particular point in time rather than the broader classifications of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation or integrative and instrumental orientations only. Finally this research takes into consideration that students who are at different stages of the *actional* phase as proposed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) continually negotiate their motivation based upon their interpretations and perceptions of the motivational influences. For this reason this research explores to what extent there are differences in motivation types among the different university levels.

2.2 Motivation Research

In 1983 Clément and Kruidenier conducted research among 871 grade 11 students who were put into eight different groups according to their target L2, ethnicity, and milieu. Each factor was analyzed separately for each sample and resulted in eight six-factor structures which were correlated and factor analyzed to produce clusters of orientations that were shared among samples. The results showed

that travel, friendship, knowledge, and instrumental orientations were common to all groups while five orientations were shared among participants with specific combinations of ethnicity and target L2 and also milieu.

A 2000 study by Noels and colleagues took the first step in applying Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT to the field of L2 learning motivation. The purpose of their study was two-fold; they wanted to confirm the reliability and validity of a scale of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for L2 learning and to examine the relationship between these motivations and Clément and Kruidenier's (1983) four orientations. A sample size of 159 participants who were English speakers learning French as an L2 were given a three-part questionnaire. The first section used Clément and Kruidenier's (1986) instrument and asked the participants to rate the extent to which the reasons provided corresponded with their own reasons for L2 learning. These reasons were based upon the four orientations that were found to be important among all groups of L2 learners. The second section contained items assessing amotivation, the three types of extrinsic motivation, and the three types of intrinsic motivation, and the final section measured psychological variables that have affects on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The results of the study validated the use of the intrinsic and extrinsic subtypes as proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985) and Vallerand and his associates (as cited in Noels et al., 2000, p. 52). In reference to the SDT continuum, there were correlations that suggested amotivation, less self-determined forms of motivation, and more self-determined forms of motivation could be distinguished. In reference to the psychological variables, they had a stronger relation with the identified regulation subscale of extrinsic motivation rather than the intrinsic motivation subscales. Aside from this, the other correlations point to the usefulness of this "motivational paradigm for the prediction of educational outcomes" (Noels et al., p. 53).

In Asia Warden and Lin (2000) investigated the motivation of Taiwanese non-English major university students studying EFL. The researchers expected to find groups of both integratively and instrumentally motivated students, and they also tested a hypothesized motivation label which they called required. They did identify motivational groups, but they did not find an integratively motivated group. The students in Taiwan were in both the instrumental and required motivation groups.

A 2001 study by Noels researched the motivation of students studying Spanish as a second language and their perceptions of their teachers' communication style. She surveyed 322 native English-speaking university students registered in lower-level Spanish classes using the questionnaire developed by Noels et al. (2000), and the results showed that identified regulation had the highest mean score followed by external regulation, intrinsic motivation, introjected regulation, and amotivation.

In addition to identifying motivation types, Noels (2001a) also examined the relations between intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations and the integrative orientation. The integrative orientation correlated with all of the intrinsic and extrinsic orientations with a stronger association with intrinsic motivation and identified regulation. The associations were not as strong with less self-determined orientations. The integrative orientations and amotivation were negatively related. The integrative orientation and intrinsic motivation were strong predictors of motivational intensity and intention to continue their L2 studies.

Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) began a longitudinal survey project in 1993 and concluded the study in the final months of 1999. The target population in both phases was the same, and the sampling was almost identical; therefore, they were able to

compare the results and analyze the changes that occurred during the time between the two phases.

The study focused on four main areas. They studied five target languages (English, German, French, Italian, and Russian) in terms of learner preferences, attitude, intended effort, and language choice; the dynamics of the changes that occurred throughout the decade; gender differences; and geographical variation. The participants of the survey were 4,765 pupils in 1999 and 3,838 in 1993 aged 13 - 14.

In both years English had the top rank of preferred language followed by German, French, Italian, and Russian. Over time the rankings appear to be stable, but there were changes in their integrativeness and instrumentality scores. Except for English, all of the integrativeness scores declined, and the instrumentality score for English increased throughout the decade. With the scores for English remaining the same or even increasing, there is a clear difference between foreign languages and world languages. For Hungarian learners the important world language is English, specifically American English. Cultural interest scores also declined as well as direct contact with L2 speakers. The actual opportunities for direct contact with L2 speakers increased, but the quality declined and perceptions became more negative (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002).

Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) further analyzed the effects motivational factors have on the actual language learning including the choice and the effort put into the learning of an L2. The clear predictor motivational factor was integrativeness. No other motivational factor was so dominant in predicting students' language choice, and this remained unchanged throughout the decade. However, integrativeness actually decreased in its correlation with language choice for English. This does not necessarily contradict the popularity of ELL, but it could reflect the change in the educational process where English is now a basic educational requirement rather than a choice based upon the students' own personal preferences. This could explain why integrativeness remaind high while its correlation with language choice decreased.

In terms of intended effort, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) found that integrativeness and instrumentality were the two factors affecting the variable. These findings confirm Gardner's (1985) claim that integrativeness plays a major role in motivation. Dörnyei and Csizér's (2002) data with the Hungarian students indicate that their perception of foreign languages is influenced by integrativeness and instrumentality and further confirms the integrativeness/instrumental dichotomy.

Liu (2007) carried out a study in China among 202 third-year non-English major university students in southern China. She administered a 44-item survey that was based upon Gardner's (1985) and Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels' (1994) surveys and found that students had a positive attitude toward learning English and were also highly motivated to study it. The motivation survey consisted of three orientations: integrative, instrumental, and travel; in another EFL setting with little contact with native speakers the majority of students was instrumentally motivated and was not integratively motivated. The results implied that it was of little concern for the students to be able to better understand and appreciate English art and literature or the culture of English-speaking nations, but it was important for the students to learn English to have a better future, to increase knowledge, to better use the internet, and to know world current events. The travel orientation was also important indicating that the students believed they needed to study English in order to travel abroad and improve their lives while staying abroad. Their attitudes and motivation had a positive correlation with their English proficiency.

2.2.1 Motivation Research in Thailand

In 2006 Taejaroenkul explored the learning orientations and motivation of 275 undergraduate students in northern Thailand who were enrolled in a general English course. The responses to a 26-item questionnaire that was adapted from Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000) showed the university students' most important orientations and motivation were external regulation (career), identified regulation, and external regulation (travel) all of which are under extrinsic motivation on the SDT continuum.

Koul, Roy, Kaewkuekool, and Pioisawaschai (2009) also investigated the motivational goals of Thai college students. There were a total of 1387 student volunteers from two types of institutions—university and vocational schools. This survey study was based on conceptual elements from two different goal and motivation models and showed significant differences among gender and institutional types. Males were significantly less academic oriented, less instrumental, and more socio-cultural than females toward ELL, and they also reported less foreign language anxiety. University students as compared to vocational school students were significantly less oriented in the following three constructs: performance, identification, and superiority. Furthermore, academic and superior orientations were positively associated with foreign language anxiety while socio-cultural orientation was negatively associated with foreign language anxiety.

Degang (2010) surveyed 50 second-year undergraduate students who were majoring in business English at a Thai university where English is the language of instruction. The researcher used a 20-item motivational survey which was adapted from Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. The students initially appeared to be almost equally instrumentally and integratively motivated to learn English, but closer inspection revealed a slightly higher number of those who were integratively motivated. These results contradicted earlier research that had been done in other EFL contexts.

Also in 2010 Khamkhien investigated how gender, motivation, and study experience influenced Thai and Vietnamese university students' choice and use of language learning strategies. The results showed that motivation was the most influential factor influencing the choice of language learning strategies and was especially significant among highly-motivated Thai students.

Motivation research has been inconclusive with researchers finding integratively motivated groups among participants who were studying languages as a foreign language in some contexts and not others. In the Thai context and other Asian contexts such as China and Taiwan, an integratively motivated group of undergraduate university students was not identified. In contrast research among Thai English business major undergraduate students found a larger group of integratively motivated participants than instrumentally motivated participants.

2.3 Self-Identity Changes

Gardner (2001) identified motivation as the most important factor influencing language achievement. He also classified language achievement according to two categories—linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes (Gardner, 1985). Linguistic outcomes include improvements in proficiency while nonlinguistic outcomes include

everything outside of proficiency. This study focuses on one nonlinguistic outcome which is any change in self-identity the learners may experience as a result of ELL.

2.3.1 Integrativeness

Gardner (1985) first introduced the term "integrativeness" to refer to the willingness to learn the L2 in order to become a member of the target language community. In 2001 he further reflects that integrativeness is a general interest in the L2 community and a desire to move toward the other language community. At one end of the spectrum, there is an openness to the new community that includes respect for the culture and way of life; at the other end of the spectrum there is complete identification and integration with the target culture (C2) and can even involve abandonment of the native culture (C1). Gardner (2001) writes that "integrativeness involves emotional identification with another cultural group" (p. 5). Therefore, integrativeness will be reflected in a favorable attitude toward the target language community and other groups in general.

Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) write that integrativeness typically emerges in empirical studies on motivation whether they are conducted in settings that officially recognize English as a second language (ESL) or EFL settings and regardless of the characteristics of the students. The term, however, may not be limited to an actual L2 community, but it may refer to identification with the L2 community that does not require contact with that community. The participants do not have to have contact with the L2 community in order to have changes within the participants' self-concept. In these learning contexts there can be a focus on English as a world language where the culture is not associated with one particular country but of a global culture. Whether the participants want to identify with a particular L2 culture or want to be a part of the global community of English speakers, they will experience cultural changes.

2.3.2 Cultural Differences

Gao (2004) defines self-identity as "how the learners perceive themselves in terms of linguistic and cultural groups they belong to, their values, communication styles, abilities and worthiness" (p. 1). Because Thai learners belong to the Thai culture group, differences between Thai culture and that of an English speaking culture need to be identified. For the purpose of this review, a comparison between Thai and American cultures will be used. Crystal (1997) identified United States (US) English as the most influential English on the development of a "World English" because of its influence on spelling through computer contexts and the "World English" lexicon through media influence. According to Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) the scores of the US, the United Kingdom, and Australia are very similar in each of the five cultural dimensions he surveys. Because of the influence of US English on the English of the world and the cultural similarities of the US to the other countries who have English as a first language, the cultural comparisons here will be made between Thailand and the US.

Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) identify the following five cultural dimensions: power distance, individualism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long term orientation. The power distance index shows the extent to which the less powerful individuals of the groups or organizations within the country

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accept the unequal distribution of power; the index references the way people perceive the power differences. Thailand scores 64 out of 120 on the index which is slightly lower than the average of Asian countries (71). Less powerful persons respect the chain of command and the fact that those who have higher positions have more power simply because of their position. Privileges come with rank, and subordinates are to be respectful and loyal in and receive protection and guidance in return. In the US the score was lower at 40. Hierarchy is established for convenience, and superiors and subordinates are perceived as equals. For example, consultations occur frequently between managers and employees and speech and interaction is informal and direct. Managers often rely on the expertise of their employees, and they are easily accessible.

In addition Hofstede et al. (2010) look at individualism. Individualistic societies place the emphasis on personal achievement while collective societies prize the good of the group or community above the individual. People's self-image is either defined as "I" or "we." Thailand has a score of 20 which indicates a highly collectivist culture. There is loyalty to the group and a commitment to fostering relationships within the group; a "yes" answer does not always mean yes. It can be a way to preserve harmony rather than signifying agreement or acceptance. Everyone has a responsibility for other members of the group; however, the United States is a highly individualistic society. Responsibility does not extend to the group but is limited to the individual and immediate family relations. People are expected to be self-reliant and to show initiative.

Hofstede et al. (2010) also identify a masculine/feminine dimension pertaining to what motivates an individual—competition or enjoyment. Thailand has a score of 34 indicating a feminine society that places more value on quality of life and relationships than competition, achievement, and success. The US, however, has a score of 62; Americans can talk about their personal successes and achievements, and individuals can resolve their own conflicts. The goal in conflict resolution is to win.

How society deals with the uncertainty of the future is referenced in Hofstede and colleagues' (2010) dimension uncertainty avoidance. Cultures have learned to deal with the uncertainty of the future by either trying to control it or just let it happen. In this dimension Thailand scores 64 indicating a desire to avoid uncertainty. Society is more structured through rules and protocol in order to avoid uncertainty in situations that arise. The US scores 46 and is considered to be a culture that accepts uncertainty. Change is more readily accepted including new ideas, products, and technology. Freedom of expression is allowed, and rules are not required.

The final dimension is long-term orientation and is related to the teachings of Confucius. Thailand scores 56 which makes it a long-term oriented culture although not as strongly as most other Asian countries. The emphasis is on the future, working hard and exhibiting moderation. Investing in personal relationships is valued, and the concept of many truths allows for flexibility in negotiations. The US scores 29 and is a short-termed oriented culture. The culture focuses on traditions and social obligations. Individuals strive for quick results, and there is a need for the absolute truth (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Because there are differences between the C1 and the C2 in ELL, theories have been devised to explain how the C1 and C2 interact and what kinds of changes are produced in the learner as a result. Lambert (as cited in Gao, Zhao, Cheng, & Zhou, 2004) included these cultural identities in his work in bilingualism explaining what types of changes could take place as a result of ELL.

2.3.3 Bilingualism

Lambert (as cited in Gao et al., 2004) proposed two types of bilingualism. "Subtractive bilingualism" refers to the L2 and C2 replacing the first language (L1) and C1. In essence, the L1 and C1 are lost in order for the learner to assimilate into the target culture. In "additive bilingualism" the two languages and cultures dwell together; the L1 and C1 are not lost rather are maintained.

Gao (2001) proposed a new concept of "productive bilingualism" as an ideal type of bilingualism. The L2 and the L1 interact and reinforce each other in a positive way, but the terms "subtractive" and "additive bilingualism" ignore the interaction between the two cultures. In "productive bilingualism" as one gains a greater understanding and appreciation of the L2, the understanding and appreciation of the L1 also increases. Whereas "additive bilingualism" and "subtractive bilingualism" might be symbolized as $1 + 1 = 1$ and $1 - 1 = 1$ respectively, "productive bilingualism" would be symbolized as $1 + 1 > 2$. It is not merely a horizontal transformation where the C2 identity replaces the C1, but it is a vertical transformation that Gao compares to a nuclear fusion. In a nuclear fusion two atoms come so close that they fuse together and a new nucleus is formed creating a huge burst of energy. Likewise in "productive bilingualism" the burst of energy that comes from the interaction of two languages and two cultures can be seen in language aptitude, general cognitive ability, affective ability, cultural identities, creative ability, and personality growth.

2.4 Self-Identity Change Research

Gao, Zhao, Cheng, and Zhou (2005) conducted research in China identifying self-identity changes among Chinese undergraduates. The subjects were 2,278 undergraduates across mainland China. A questionnaire was designed based upon responses from an open question issued in four universities in different provinces. The results were used to create a twenty-four item questionnaire referencing the following six types of self-identity changes: self-confidence, additive, subtractive, productive, split, and zero change. "Zero change" was a category used for comparison, and "self-confidence change" was independent of cultural identity changes. "Split change" might be viewed as an in-between phase where learners might develop other types of changes afterward.

Among Chinese undergraduates the most prominent change was in self-confidence followed by zero change. This study viewed self-confidence changes as results of ELL not factors influencing ELL, and the researcher felt the results could be due to ELL in an EFL context. Because EFL contexts have limited exposure to the C2 but a very high value attached to English, the impact of ELL on learners could be greater on their perception of their competence than their cultural identities (Gao et al., 2005).

Even though the greatest change came in their self-confidence, ELL did impact the cultural identities of the Chinese learners. About 30% to 50% reported productive changes which indicate that this is a possible goal for ordinary college students rather than being limited to only the best foreign language learners. Previous research by Gao (2001) indicated that those who were chosen as the best of the English language learners in China by their peers did reach a rather constant level of "productive bilingualism." Students also reported they had additive changes; these

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two types of changes indicate that the learners' L1 and C1 were maintained, and they felt that the changes to their values, beliefs, and behaviors were positive gains rather than losses (Gao et al., 2005).

A minority of students saw their changes as cultural conflicts. The subtractive and split changes were not common among the undergraduates, but they did exist. These cultural conflicts are not necessarily negative but may be a developmental phase where the language learner is still limited in both linguistic and cultural learning. If cultural and linguistic learning as well as self-reflections go deeper, then the changes might then be perceived as positive (Gao et al., 2005).

2.5 Research Combining Motivation and Self-Identity

Research has been done in both China and Thailand that not only investigated motivation types of EFL students but also self-identity changes and the relationships between the two.

In 2007 Gao et al. surveyed 2,278 Chinese university students from 30 universities. They used a Likert-scale questionnaire that contained 30 statements pertaining to motivation types which were based upon several hundred anonymous answers to the question, "What drives you to learn English?" Students from four universities in three different regions of China responded to this question, and their answers were factor analyzed to identify the seven following motivation types: intrinsic interest, immediate achievement, learning situation, going abroad, social responsibility, individual development, and information medium. Immediate achievement, information medium, and individual development are types of instrumental motivation; intrinsic interest was categorized as a cultural motivation representing an interest in the culture of the target language not necessarily an integrative motivation. Going abroad and social responsibility were categorized as both instrumental and cultural while learning situation is something that appears outside of instrumental or cultural types of motivation. The self-identity change section contained 24 items with four items in each of six categories which were labeled as follows: self-confidence change, additive change, subtractive change, productive change, split change, and zero change.

After the canonical correlation analysis, four motivational variables were identified and named long-term motivation, individual development motivation, short-term motivation, and social responsibility motivation. Four canonical variables of self-identity changes were also identified; positive change, self-confidence change, negative change, and polar change were identified. The fourth variable was labeled as polar change because it included both productive change and split change. The most important correlation between the variables was between long-term motivation and positive change. The other correlations that were identified were as follows: individual development motivation and self-confidence change, short-term motivation and negative change, and social responsibility motivation and polar change. The relationship between social responsibility motivation and polar change was very minor.

A study in Taiwan produced similar findings to those of Gao and colleagues. Dai (2009) surveyed 94 EFL students majoring in Applied Foreign Languages using instruments which were adapted from the Chinese study. The five types of motivation included the following: integrative, individual development, social responsibility, learning situation, and instrumental. The highest identified self-identity change was

self-confidence followed by zero change. The results indicate that ELL can increase students' confidence and competence. The zero change may reflect that learners treat English as a communication tool or study only for examination purposes.

The relationships between motivation types and self-identity changes were similar to those found in the Chinese study. Integrative motivation correlated with additive, productive, and split changes while social responsibility correlated with subtractive, productive, and split changes. The learning situation had a significant relationship with productive and split changes, and individual development correlated with self-confidence change (Dai, 2009)

In Thailand Boonchum (2009a) investigated intrinsic and extrinsic motivation among 113 Thai university students and the correlations to changes in self-identity. Four types of self-identity changes correlated with intrinsic motivation—additive, productive, subtractive, and split change. Students who had extrinsic motivation identified self-confidence, additive, productive, subtractive, and split changes.

Boonchum (2009a) also found that students who majored in English literature at a university located in the city and English at either the provincial university or the city experience similar self-confident, additive, productive, and zero changes. Statistically significant differences occurred between the majors in subtractive and split changes. The majority of students regardless of major indicated that they undergo additive, productive, zero, or self-confidence changes. Other factors were also tested to see what, if any, influence they had on self-identity changes. Having foreign friends produced self-identity changes especially changes in self-confidence; however, gender and experience abroad did not influence any of the six self-identity changes.

The current research draws from Gardner's emphasis on motivation and his thought that throughout the L2 learning process, students may find themselves experiencing self-identity changes. Since research has been inconsistent concerning Gardner's integrative and instrumental orientations, the current research also considers Deci and Ryan's scales of motivation as outlined in the Self-Determination Continuum. The research mentioned in the previous sections has confirmed the validity and reliability of a scale of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for L2 learning which is used in this research, and it has also shown the research work that has been done in EFL contexts. It does not, however, include a great amount of research done among English major university students; therefore, this research aims to add to that body by focusing on English major students. The research also takes into consideration the temporal aspect of motivation as represented in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation. It will also add to the limited research that has evaluated self-identity changes in regards to Gao's (2001) 1 + 1 > 2 model of "productive bilingualism."

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a brief historical overview of L2 learning motivation research trends and has presented Gardner's socio-educational model, the Self-Determination Theory, and Dörnyei and Ottó's process-oriented model of motivation. In addition several studies into motivation types are presented. In reference to self-identity changes, Gardner's concept of integrativeness is presented as well as an overview of cultural differences between Thailand and the United States and several concepts of bilingualism. In conclusion a summary of several survey

studies investigating self-identity changes and the relationship between motivation types and self-identity changes is given. The next chapter will present the current study's methodology.