

Language Learning Motivation: Theories and Application

La Motivation de l'Apprentissage de la Langue entre Les théories et l'Application

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Abstract

Theorizing about and designing teaching methodologies aims at improving the teaching and learning processes. As a matter of fact, neither teaching nor learning can take place in the appropriate conditions unless both teachers and learners are motivated to undertake them. Experiencing different methodologies and motivational techniques in language classes aims at fitting learners' needs, goals and expectations from attending those classes. Whereas teachers' motivation is a wide field of investigation that needs to be deeply studied, this paper will shed light on learners' motivation. It attempts to highlight some of the most important facets of language learning motivation by surveying: (1) the theoretical horizon of the psychological conception of motivation through the different motivation theories and views that stress learners' needs, goals and expectations...etc; (2) language learning motivation and the most influential studies made in the field; and (3) treating manipulating motivation as to provide helpful guidelines to language teachers.

Keywords: *Motivation, Motivation Theories, Manipulating Motivation.*

Résumé

La conceptualisation théorique et la conception de méthodologies pédagogiques sont entreprises dans le dessein d'optimiser les processus d'enseignement et d'apprentissage. En réalité, il est impératif que tant les enseignants que les apprenants soient animés d'une motivation ardente pour que l'enseignement et l'apprentissage puissent s'effectuer dans des conditions propices. L'expérimentation de diverses méthodologies et techniques de motivation au sein des cours de langues vise à satisfaire les besoins, les objectifs et les attentes des apprenants qui fréquentent ces classes. Alors que l'étude de la motivation des enseignants constitue un vaste champ de recherche nécessitant une analyse approfondie, cet article se concentre exclusivement sur la motivation des apprenants. Il s'efforce ainsi d'éclaircir certaines facettes primordiales de la motivation dans le domaine de l'apprentissage des langues en examinant : l'horizon théorique de la conception psychologique de la motivation à travers diverses théories et perspectives mettant l'accent sur les besoins, les objectifs et les attentes des apprenants, entre autres ; la motivation dans le contexte de l'apprentissage des langues et les études les plus influentes menées dans ce domaine ; et la manipulation de la motivation en vue de fournir des directives précieuses aux enseignants de langues. *Theories, Manipulating Motivation.*

Mots clés: *Motivation, Apprentissage, Théorie*

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1.Introduction

Motivation plays a crucial role in the process of learning and achievement. It serves as the driving force behind individuals' actions and behaviours, influencing their level of engagement and commitment. In the realm of language learning, motivation becomes an even more significant factor, as learners navigate the complexities of acquiring a new language. Understanding the dynamics of motivation and its impact on language learning can inform educators and learners in creating effective and enriching learning environments.

This article aims to explore the multifaceted concept of motivation in language learning. It begins by providing a comprehensive definition of motivation, highlighting its relevance and implications for the learning process. Subsequently, it delves into the different types of motivation, examining the distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, as well as integrative and instrumental motivation. By understanding these distinctions, educators can tailor their instructional strategies to meet learners' diverse motivational needs.

The article then delves into various motivation theories that provide insights into the underlying mechanisms and factors that drive individuals'

motivation. It explores content theories, including Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Existence Relatedness Growth (ERG) Theory, Herzberg's Two-Factor (Motivation-Hygiene) Theory, and McClelland's Theory of Needs. Additionally, it explores process theories such as Expectancy Theory, Equity Theory, and Goal Setting Theory. The evaluation of these theories offers a comprehensive understanding of the complexities involved in motivation.

In the context of language learning, the article emphasizes the importance of motivation in fostering successful language acquisition. It highlights the significance of motivation studies in language learning and the emergence of the "Person in Context" position, which acknowledges the interplay between individual motivation and contextual factors. Moreover, the article explores strategies for manipulating motivation, focusing on motivating teachers and creating an engaging and motivating learning environment.

The paper provides a comprehensive overview of motivation in language learning. By examining the definition, types, theories, and practical implications of motivation, it offers valuable insights for educators and learners alike. Recognizing the pivotal role of motivation can empower

educators to design effective instructional strategies and create an environment that fosters learners' engagement, growth, and success in language learning.

2. Definition of Motivation

The English word motivation has its etymological roots in the Latin word *move*, which means “to move”. Although no consensual definition of motivation exists in scientific psychology, the definitions provided by most theorists rest firmly on the notion of movement (Lee, 2005). Researchers seem to agree that motivation is responsible for determining human behaviour by energising it and giving it direction (Dornyei, 1998). Motivation is the force behind behaviour and provides an explanation for why people do things (Lee, 2005). Eggert (1999) draws a transparent analogy to a jellyfish. He noted that motivation is something that everyone knows what it is but it is difficult to describe or define (Eggert, 1999).

Motivation is a hypothetical construct, meaning that it is an abstraction, not an overt entity that can be seen with the eyes. That is, motivation cannot be observed, but its effects may be observed. (Encyclopedia of Educational Psychology). Consequently, according to Eggert (1999) motivation has given psychologists some real problems. He argued that in

an absolute sense motivation per se does not exist - it can only be inferred by looking at behaviour, quantifying changes in behaviour or by inviting individuals to talk about their needs or goals and why they do what they do. The situation was a bit complicated, Eggert argued. If you cannot see or feel it, it becomes difficult to measure; if you can't measure it in some way, how do you know you have found it? (Eggert, 1999)

Tileston (2004, p2) relates motivation to the drives to do something. The internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested in and committed to a job, role, or subject, and to exert persistent effort in attaining a goal. (businessdictionary.com). Tileston noted that motivation causes us to get up in the morning and go to work. Motivation drives us to study new things, and motivation encourages us to try again when we fail (Tileston, 2004). It is the energizer of behaviour and mother of all action. Motivation results from the interactions among conscious and unconscious factors such as the (1) intensity of desire or need, (2) incentive or reward value of the goal, and (3) expectations of the individual and of his or her significant others (businessdictionary.com). Those factors will be explained through the different motivational theories in this paper.

3. Types of Motivation

Theorists have distinguished between different types of motivation. This distinction mainly based on the source of motivation itself or on the attitudes people have toward the task they are performing or required to perform, generated the sets of dichotomies summarised below:

3.1. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

As a source categorisation, intrinsic motivation is a motivation that comes from within. It implies engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in the activity (e.g. Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Students doing their homework because they enjoy it and find that learning new things is interesting and satisfying are said to be intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 42). Intrinsic motivation can be defined as a person's involvement in an activity in order to learn or to find out new things from his/her participation. (Stavrou, 2008)

In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation refers to a broad array of behaviours having in common the fact that activities are engaged in not for reasons inherent in them but for instrumental reasons (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Extrinsic motivation refers to behaviours aiming to attain a reward or benefit, rather than for enjoyment of the activity itself

(Deci, 1971). Extrinsically motivated behaviours are undertaken to attain an end state that is separate from the actual behaviour. According to Reeve (2002) it was thought that behaviours performed with a lack of choice were the only type of extrinsically motivated behaviours, so that all extrinsically motivated behaviours were evoked by contingencies. However, research and thinking by Deci, Ryan and their colleagues (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991) have put forth more complex typology of extrinsic motivation where some types of extrinsically motivated acts involve self-determination and choice (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Forms of extrinsic motivation vary in the extent to which they are autonomous or controlling, referring to a more self-determined aspect and external regulated form, respectively (Reeve, 2002).

3.2. Integrative and Instrumental Motivation

Integrative motivation is about social or interpersonal reasons for second language learning or minority language activity. Integrative motives reflect a desire to be like, or identify with members of a particular language community. Gardner (1985) defines integrative motive as a composite construct made up of three main components: (1) integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, and attitudes toward the L2 community, (2) attitudes toward the learning situation (comprising attitudes toward the

teacher and the course) and (3) motivation (i.e., effort, desire, and attitudes toward learning).

Instrumental motivation, however, is about the utilitarian aspect of the language. Some people may want to learn a second language to gain social recognition and status, economic openings and advantages. Learners may acquire a second language to find a job or earn money, further career prospects, pass examinations, help fulfil the demands of their job, or assist their children in bilingual schooling.

4. Motivation Theories

Investigating motivation systematically involves us in studying the theoretical literature of this concept. Yet, a panoramic view of the issue clearly demonstrates that covering the different theories that dealt with motivation would trigger any researcher into the endless routes of the psychological mazes. Dornyei (1996) points out that motivation theories in general seek to explain no less than the fundamental question of why humans behave as they do, and therefore it would be naive to assume any simple and straightforward answer; indeed, every different psychological perspective on human behaviour and, thus, in general psychology it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuses

the scene (Dornyei, 1998). In that sense, Eggert (1999) noted that so many motivation theories exist because of the following reasons:

- Motivation is an artificial construct so there is no comprehensive way of examining it.
- An individual goal can be reached in any number of different ways
- or motivations.
- A single goal can satisfy a whole host of different needs - and thus motivations.
- People are different in their needs - and thus their motivations are different.
- Individuals frequently change their aspirations and their needs - and consequently their motivation differs in each situation.

Different theories have been developed to account for different aspects of the concept of motivation (Eggert, 1999). Only the most influential mainstream psychological constructs of motivation will be surveyed.

4.1. Content Theories

Also called Need Theories, they consider human needs as the essential element upon which the determination of motivation is built.

4.1.1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

This theory is based on the concept of “need gratification” as a fundamental aspect in human motivation (Maslow, 1943). Dr Amr A. Osman in a designed lecture for the Contemporary Theories of Motivation Module summarized Maslow’s theory assumptions as follows:

- Need hierarchy highlights order in need satisfaction.
- A minimal physiological need is a main precondition for uprising need satisfaction.
- All humans strive to move up the hierarchy and attain higher needs.
- A satisfied need ceases to motivate behaviour at that need level
- Persistent employee needs dissatisfaction leads to job dissatisfaction and accordingly performance deterioration.
- Needs are never fully or completely satisfied
- Years of job practice reflect upon need intensification
- Unmet needs are more motivating than needs which have been satisfied

Maslow’s theory suggests a pyramidal hierarchy of needs. The pyramid is set on the most basic needs, at the foot. Those physiological instinctive needs are essential for the continuation of life such as breathing, drinking,

eating, sleeping and sex. Once those needs satisfied, we move up to a higher level that concerns safety. This level includes aspects such as personal safety from danger and the need for protection from any kind of threats: physical, mental or even financial. The next higher level represents our social needs. Love and belongingness to a group within which, one may have friends and colleagues, share feelings of joy or sadness, hopes, fears, concerns and aspirations, and have interpersonal relationships.

The fourth level of Maslow's pyramid consists of esteem needs that relate to need for recognition of identity and individuality, enjoying a personal status and confidence in one's capacities. This allows us to be ourselves and express our personality (Eggert, 1999). The highest level of the pyramid concerns self actualisation needs. They refer to one's desire to express themselves creatively and to develop one's potential fully (Brophy, 2004, p.6). This is our need to be the best that we can be, with all the talents and gifts that we have (Eggert, 1999, p.15).

According to Eggert (1999) the Hierarchy of Needs' Theory is based on the premise that individuals require satisfaction on ascending levels of need. Maslow, who developed the theory, suggested that when one level

of satisfaction is achieved another level of need becomes important, rather like an ascending staircase (Eggert, 1999, p.11). Brophy (2004, p.6) noted that higher needs may not even be recognised unless lower needs are satisfied. This point was the major criticism addressed to Maslow's theory because it sets a clear limit to the human activity in case the basic needs are not satisfied. Gorman (2003, p.61) stated that Maslow himself recognised that some high achievers would go without these basic needs for long periods of time in order to devote themselves to their work. Borkowski (2005, p. 109) also noted that Maslow used the example of the starving artist pursuing his creativity needs (e.g., self-actualization) while ignoring physiological needs.

4.1.2. Existence Relatedness Growth (ERG) Theory

To address the criticisms of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, in the late 1960's, Alderfer (1972) introduced an alternative needs hierarchy, referred to as the ERG theory (Borkowski, 2005). Apparently, Alderfer's hierarchy was mainly based on Maslow's model, it grouped Maslow's two basic levels (physiological and safety needs) in what it labelled Existence needs. Existence refers to an individual's concern with basic materials and physiological existence requirements, such as food, water, pay, fringe

benefits and working conditions (Borkowski, 2005, p.109). Maslow's recognition needs were labelled Relatedness needs. They include a person's need to interact with other people, receive public recognition, and feel secure around people (i.e. interpersonal safety) (Ahlstrom and Bruton, 2009). And the last component Growth Needs grouped Maslow's two highest levels (Self-esteem and Self-actualization). It refers to an individual's intrinsic need to be creative, and to make useful and productive contributions, including personal development with opportunities for personal growth (Borwski, 2009, p.109).

However, based on Maslow's model, the ERG theory was a criticism directed toward its vision. Ahlstrom and Bruton (2009, p.203) noted that the ERG theory argues that behaviour is motivated simultaneously by more than one need level. Unlike Maslow's model, the ERG theory includes a frustration-regression process whereby those who are unable to satisfy a higher need become frustrated and regress back to the next lower need level (Ahlstrom and Bruton, 2009, p.203). They concluded that ERG theory allowed for more complex models of compensation to be developed, which resulted in the recognition that a mixture of needs must be addressed.

4.1.3. Herzberg's Two-Factor (Motivation-Hygiene) Theory

The Motivation-Hygiene Theory is one of the most controversial theories of motivation because of two unique features (Jain, 2005, p.122). Frederick Herzberg developed his Two-Factor Theory, also known as the Motivation-Hygiene Theory, from a study designed to test the concept that people have two sets of needs: (1) avoidance of unpleasantness and (2) a personal growth (Borkowski, 2005, p. 111). McKenna (2000, p. 97) noted that Herzberg's theory is consistent with Maslow's and McClelland's theories. It is based on considerable empirical evidence and is built on the principle that people are motivated towards what makes them feel good and away from what makes them feel bad.

Herzberg and his co-workers distinguished between two sets of factors that affect people's behaviour within their professional environment. These were hygiene factors and motivating factors. "Hygiene factors create dissatisfaction if they are not present. If they are present in a job setting, dissatisfaction will be lower, but satisfaction will not be high. Motivators are related to high satisfaction and willingness to work harder. When they are present, these job factors may induce more efforts; but if they are absent, they will not produce dissatisfaction in most people." (Tosi, Mero

and Rizzo, 2000, p.133). McKenna (2000) argues that Herzberg research identifies motivators as factors producing good feelings in the work situation. By contrast, hygiene factors arouse bad feelings. Table 2 bellow shows the basic elements of Herzberg theory.

Table 1: Basic Elements of Two-Factor Theory (Tosi, Mero and Rizzo,

Hygiene Factors	Motivators
Technical supervision	Responsibility
Interpersonal relations – Peers	Achievement
Salary	Advancement
Working conditions	The work itself
Status	Recognition
Company policy	Possibility of growth
Job security	
Interpersonal relations – Supervisor	

According to McKenna (2000) there is research evidence that is not entirely compatible with the findings of Herzberg. The following are illustrative of the criticisms made:

- Dissatisfaction, rather than satisfaction is associated with performance (March & Simon, 1958).
- Hygiene and motivators can both cause satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction (Wernimont, 1966).
- There is no recognition of the part played by the expectations people bring with them to the job. When expectations are not met, people can feel dissatisfied (Wernimont, 1966).
- Herzberg methodology – content analysis of recalled incidents by respondents- results into quite different findings from studies that use methods of measuring satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Hulin & Smith, 1967). McKenna (2000) noted that if a theory is dependent on a particular research method for its substance, as appears to be the case with Herzberg's theory, its validity could be considered questionable.

4.1.4. McClelland's Theory of Needs

McClelland proposed three needs which are important in organizational settings for understanding motivation. These needs include Achievement, Power and Affiliation (Jain, 2005, p.129). Two important concepts underlie this approach: (1) Motive and (2) The force of motives on behaviour. Tosi et al (2000), determined motives as an aspect of the

personality that develops as the personality emerges. Motives are “affectively toned associated networks arranged in a hierarchy of strength and importance” within a person (McClelland, 1965). Borkowski (2005) noted that McClelland believed that most persons have a combination of the three motivational needs, with some exhibiting a stronger tendency to one particular motivational need. She explained that: Achievement (n-Ach) is described as the need to excel or succeed; Power (n-Pow) is described as an individual’s need to influence others; and Affiliation (n-Aff) is described as an individual’s need to be liked and approved of by others.

McClelland argued that achievement, affiliation and power needs are learned rather than instinctive, and are thus inculcated by cultures and societies. Accordingly, he argued for developing training programs that strengthen these learned needs (Ahlstrom and Bruton, 2009, p.208). Though McClelland’s theory received an immense research support from around the world, the contrasting conditions between developing and developed countries opened the door to criticisms. Swain (n.d.) and Sinha (1984) believed that psychologist from India as well as from other developing countries were victims of the theory: they had what Sinha calls

a duplication tendency to uncritically accept the theory (Swain, n.d., p.273). The point is that McClelland assessed a single manifestation of achievement motivation in different countries. However, Swain argued that the nature and manifestation of achievement motivation varies from society to society.

Table 2: Comparison of Content Theories of Motivation (Nancy Borkowski, 2005, p. 122)

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	Alfred's 3-Need Theory	McClelland's 3-Need Theory
Motivators	Self-actualization Self-esteem	Growth	Achievement
Hygiene factors	Love Safety Physiological	Relatedness Existence	Power (influencing others) Affiliation (Exchange of warm feelings)

4.1.5. Content Theories' Evaluation

Questioning the usefulness of content theories to the context of our research, one might argue that learning English out of the English department in general and more precisely business English is highly motivated by the utilitarian role that English may play in the learners' professional lives. That means: what do learners need English for? Though clearly apparent, such a role may appear, to some learners, a long-term one that shouldn't be given great importance, at least for the time being. In that sense, comes the role of the teacher in analysing those needs behind which English should be given much more importance than learners think. Moreover, the role of the teacher should go far beyond to acknowledging those needs and making learners aware of them in a way that learners would feel free to decide, share, and assume the responsibilities of the teaching learning process.

4.2. Process Theories

While content theories of motivation focus on the different needs people have and their importance and hierarchy within the individual, process theories of motivation focus rather on how those individual's needs are translated to behaviours. Aswathappa (2007, p.366) argued that

process theories view motivation as an individual's decision to act so as to put forth some given level of effort. Among the most famous process theories are Expectancy Theory, Equity Theory and Goal Setting Theory.

4.2.1. Expectancy Theory

According to Gorman (2003), expectancy theory suggests that people's motivation to achieve a particular task derives from their expectation of a reward (p.64). Pintrich (2003) argues that expectancy components constitute a fundamental part of the motivation construct. He/she defines the expectancy components as being people's beliefs and opinions about their ability to control, perform, or accomplish a task (p.8). This means that learners' beliefs about their capability in performing, controlling and the quality of their performance plays a crucial role in motivating learners to start, control and keep up a certain patterns of behaviour. Learners are most likely to achieve highly through selecting what activity to perform, using the necessary abilities, and engagement and determination in the task if they hold strong beliefs about their capabilities and control over them (Pintrich, 2003).

4.2.2. Equity Theory

Tosi, Mero and Rizzo (2000, p. 152) noted that, different from other theories that explain motivation by intrapersonal comparisons (e.g. “what I have now” compared to “what I would like to have”), equity theory explains motivation by interpersonal comparisons (e.g. “what I have now” compared to “what others have”). That means that the concern in equity theory is “outcome justice”, or how you perceive organizational outcomes relative to the contributions that you, and others, make to gain them. In other words, equity theory focuses on how you evaluate your outcome relative to how you evaluate the outcomes of others. There are three key factors used in explaining and understanding motivation in equity theory: (1) Inputs, (2) Outcomes, (3) Referents (Adams, 1965).

4.2.3. Goal Setting Theory

Brophy (2004) noted that goals may be generally defined as “objectives or intended outcomes of planned sequences of behaviour” (p.7). He argued that a shift from considering motivation in terms of people’s needs to regarding it as the result of setting goals and objectives and trying different strategies to fulfil those goals has marked researches on motivation. According to Alderman (2004, p.19), learners’ beliefs about learning goals are important in understanding motivation: on the one hand

those beliefs show how people consider their learning goals as the manifestation of their capabilities to achieve a specific task. On the other hand, they explain how far people think of their goals as pertaining to their learning history. Schunk and Zimmerman (2003) claim that learners' evaluation of their performance according to the goals they have set, and their belief about their goals' satisfactory fulfilment will provide them with a feeling of efficiency about continuing to improve and being motivated to complete the tasks they are undertaking (p. 68). Moreover, Locke and Latham (1994) explained that individuals will improve their performance when they have definite and stimulating goals, and they will most certainly be attentive to the activity and carry it on.

According to Alderman (2004) goal setting theory has distinguished between learning goals, known as mastery or task-involvement goals, and performance goals, known also as ego-involvement goals (Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004). Learning goals -mastery goals- refer to those goals learners set when they concentrate on learning what their teacher is teaching them through tasks; they want to have mastery over the abilities taught and improve their achievement in a task (Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004). On the other hand, performance goals are those goals learners set to keep a

positive self-image, and give to others an image of capability (Brophy, 2004). They are goals which express general statements about why people perform an activity (Pintrich, 2003). According to Alderman (2004), performance goals relate to learners' perception of themselves as capable performers; they are goals that emphasise ability rather than effort, and they reflect what learners want to show others they are able to do and how they see their performance in comparison to others'.

Alderman (2004) claims that motivation is affected by goal setting because it gives people a purpose and an evaluation about their performance. Locke and Latham (1994) assert that goal setting is important because learners are given the opportunity to set their learning goals, they are most likely to engage in fulfilling those goals and, moreover, it will considerably influence their performance.

4.2.4. Process Theories' Evaluation

A strong link may be made between the three above mentioned basic elements (expectancy, equity and goal setting) and the concept of learners' decision-making. Involving learners in creating or adapting classroom activities is most likely to strengthen their beliefs about their ability to control and perform the task. Moreover, though mastery goals are more

likely to be directed by the teacher and learners' feeling of control may only be a kind of follow-up attitude, learners maintaining control over performance goals would push them to achieve more in order to keep the image they want to show in the classroom. Those goals may change at any time during the class according to the different reactions peers have towards each others' contributions and thus maintain learners' attention.

Dealing with equity might be a sensitive issue. Freeing the learners' participation and sharing decisions with them may negatively influence on those less-able learners' motivation and reduce their willingness to engage in classroom activities. In such situations, the teacher should redirect the interaction in a positive sense by limiting the learners' freedom and controlling the participation distribution.

5. Motivation and Language Learning

Why is language learning motivation different from motivation in general? The question is meant to set the main features of language learning motivation as a distinguished concept on its own. Starting from the basic element, Dewey (1956, pp. 55-56) described the meaning of learning a language as follows:

Language is defined as the medium of expressing thought [...] language is primarily a social thing, a means by which we give our experiences to others and get theirs in return [...] when the language instinct is appealed to in a social way, there is a continual contact with ability. The result is that the child always has something in his mind to talk about, he has something to say; he has a thought to express, and a thought is not a thought unless it is one's own. (Nakata, 2006, p. 49)

There is no question that learning a foreign language is different to learning other subjects. This is mainly because of the social nature of such a venture. Language, after all, belongs to a person's whole social being: it is part of one's identity, and is used to convey this identity to other people. The learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules, or a grammar; it involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner. (Williams, 1994; Dornyei, 1998)

Dornyei (1998) argues that due to the involvement of some sort of L2 identity and the incorporation of elements from the L2 culture, the motivational basis of language attainment is different from that of the

mastery of other subject matters. L2 motivation contains personal and social dimensions as well as the environmental and cognitive factors in relation to learning which feature in current educational psychology (Nakata, 2006, p. 50). Nakata assumed that motivation in language learning, in contrast to other subjects, can be developed by interacting with others using the target language and be further dramatically developed through interactions with native speakers of the target language.

One comprehensive definition of language learning motivation is that of Crookes and Schmidt (1991), who state that such motivation consists of seven elements: (1) interest, that sustains learners' curiosity; (2) relevance, that satisfies learners' needs; (3) expectancy of success or failure; (4) belief in forthcoming rewards; (5) decision to be involved; (6) persistence; and (7) high activity level. According to Oxford (1996) attitudes and beliefs clearly affect behaviours within this definition of language learning motivation. For example, a teacher who overcorrects the students can lower the expectation of success and destroy the possibility of reward, thus reducing the student's willingness to pay attention or to persist in language learning. If learners perceive the language activities as irrelevant or uninteresting, their level of activity and engagement will drop. Any

negative attitude toward the target language or culture can also be detrimental to engagement, persistence, or activity level. (Oxford, 1996)

5.2. The Importance of Motivation for Language Learning

As already defined, motivation is the mother of all action. Motivation is important to language learning because it helps determine the extent of involvement in learning. High motivation spurs learners to interact with native speakers of the language, which in turn increases the amount of input learners receive (Krashen, 1982; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992). Motivation is linked with high-frequency use of language learning strategies (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Motivation helps students maintain their language ability after students leave the classroom (Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, and Evers, 1987).

Motivation encourages greater overall effort on the part of learners thus greater success in language performance, both in general terms (Clément, Major, Gardner, and Smythe, 1977; Gardner, 1985; Samimy and Tabuse, 1991) and in specific skill areas (Genesee, 1978; Genesee and Hamayan, 1980; Tucker, Hamayan, and Genesee, 1976). Yet the relationship between motivation and language performance is not identical for all languages in a study by Youssef (1984); results show a far stronger link for

learners of French and German than for learners of Spanish (Okada, Oxford and Abo, 1996, p. 106)

5.3. Motivation Studies in Language Learning

Because of its importance to the educational settings, language learning motivation received a wide range of studies. Two distinguishing orientations, however, had directed the main researches made in the field. The essence of that distinction was argued through the difference between ESL and EFL contexts and was demonstrated over integrative and instrumental orientations of English learners' motivations.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) noted that language learning motivation can be divided into two types: integrative motivation – the desire to learn a language to integrate oneself with the target culture; and instrumental motivation – the desire to learn a language in order to meet a specific language requirement such as for employment (Nakata, 2006, p. 51). More precisely, integrative orientation relates to a positive disposition to learn about, interact with, or become closer to, the target language community, while instrumental orientation concerns the potential utilitarian value of target language proficiency, such as obtaining a better job or passing an examination (Gardner, 1985; Nakata, 2006).

Because of his social psychological approach which dominated language learning motivation studies until the 1990's, Nakata (2006, p. 51) argues that Gardner was considered a pioneer in the field of language learning motivation. Social psychological theory applied to language learning places central emphasis on the social dimension and on the social implications of learning a second language. The essence of the theory lays in the perception of second language learning as a social problem rather than an individual problem.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) hypothesized that the integrative motive facilitates second language acquisition because it reflects active involvement in language study. This is because learning a second language requires the adoption of word sounds, pronunciations, word orders, and other behavioural and cognitive features that are part of another culture (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Nakata, 2006)

Following Gardner's social pattern, Norton (Norton Peirce, 1995; Norton, 2000) has sought to integrate the poststructuralist conceptions of identity and human agency by developing an enriched and productive notion of "investment." The starting point Norton used was the current conceptions of motivation in the field of language learning. According to

Norton, investment as a new concept, on the one hand, stands for and signals the socially and historically constructed relationship between learners and the target language. On the other hand, and linking it to the motivation concept, Norton argued that it reflected learners' ambivalent desire to learn and practice the target language.

For a better understanding of investment and its contribution to the field of language learning motivation, Norton (2000) has made a reference to the economic metaphors that Bourdieu used in his work, in particular the notion of "cultural capital". Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) use the term cultural capital to reference the knowledge, credentials, and modes of thought that characterize different classes and groups in relation to specific sets of social forms. They argue that cultural capital is situated, in that it has differential exchange value in different social fields. Norton (2000) explained that learners' investment in learning a second language is motivated by their understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital. It was a matter of learners' identity: as the value of their cultural capital increases, learners' sense of themselves and their desires for the future are reassessed. This notion of investment has been

taken up by other scholars in the field, and is proving productive for understanding the complex conditions under which language learning takes place (McKay and Wong, 1996; Angelil-Carter, 1997; Skilton-Sylvester, 2002; Pittaway, 2004; Potowski, 2004).

Though Gardner's researches were mainly conducted in Canada within ESL environment, researchers around the world adopted Gardner's views, accepted his theory and method and conducted their research based on it, and interpreted the results as applying to their own contexts.

But it was within this misapplication that the shift in orientation was set, because it might not be appropriate to generalise Gardner's theory and transfer it to other contexts. In the foreign language learning classroom, where learners rarely have contact with members of the L2 group, attitudes toward the L2 community would not be the primary determiner of an individual's L2-related affectively oriented motivation (Dornyei, 1990. Nakata, 2006, p. 60)

5.4. The Emergence of "Person in Context" Position

Maehr et al. (1999, p. 17) stated that the latest shift in motivation research is from thinking about motivation as an internal disposition that differentiates individuals, towards a consideration of the construction of

motivation in context. Weiner (1990) argued that school motivation cannot be divorced from the social fabric in which it is embedded (p.120). The Person in Context Position is a new vision that highlights the mutual influence which exists between the individual and the learning contexts to which he/she belongs. The essence of this paradigm resides in emphasizing the role of the learner as an individual in directing, developing and manipulating the context within which learning takes place as well as he/she is being influenced by that context. According to Simone Volet (2001), situativity theory and socio-cultural perspectives have stressed the significance of socio-cultural influences in the development of cognition, motivation and learning and reciprocally how students' beliefs and behaviours affect the community of learning that they belong to. Many researchers seem to agree on the complementary rather than contradictory nature of the cognitive and situative approaches for understanding the learner in context. According to Billett (1996, p. 277), the two perspectives can enrich each other by providing a basis for understanding thinking and acting which they couldn't achieve on their own. For Anderson et al. (2000, p.12) in order to progress towards more useful design principles for

resources and activities of productive learning, both are needed and both should be pursued vigorously.

Boekaerts' (1999, p. 43) theory of motivated learning, for example, has stressed how students and instructional contexts influence one another and more specifically how students motivational beliefs interact with the cues present in diverse social, physical and instructional contexts. In this sense, Op't Eynde, De Corte and Verschaffel (2000) claimed that emotions in the classroom are contextualized and unstable since they are based on student's unique continuous appraisals and interpretations of events as they unfold. They also recognize that event-specific appraisals are influenced by students' identity, prior experiences, belief systems and knowledge developed over participation in numerous other practices – and which can reflect age, personal history and home culture variables. There is growing empirical evidence of cognitive, motivational, volitional and emotional sensitivity to tasks and activities in relation to relatively stable factors and macro-level contextual influences (Boekaerts, 1997; 1999; Turner et al., 1998; and Volet, 1997) and of knowledge structures activated in response to situational cues and circumstances (Boekaerts and Niemivirta, 2000; Pintrich, 2000).

What could worth analysis for this research is the effect of learners' subjective interpretations and appraisals of situations on directing the teaching/learning process i.e. the influence of learners' behaviour and reactions towards the learning contexts upon the learning community's goals and engagement in classroom activities.

6. Manipulating Motivation

Although a wide range of factors may be involved in manipulating language learners' motivation, in this paper, I will stress two fundamental factors (the teacher and the context) that I assume are the most influential factors in the Algerian context among others.

6.1. Motivating Teachers

Language learners' motivation depends primarily on the kind of teachers they have. Since the teacher is the leader of the classroom, his/her behaviours and attitudes have a great influence on the overall learning environment. According to Newcombe (2007) the quality of teaching is of paramount importance, as a well-prepared enthusiastic teacher is the key to fostering the feeling that a student is making progress in the language (p.107). Dornyei (2001a) stresses the importance of the teacher as a motivator, and identifies the teacher's enthusiasm and commitment as

among the most important factors in learners' motivation to learn. Dornyei (2001b, p. 40-41) also emphasises the value of creating a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in class. He suggests a variety of strategies including the use of humour, encouragement of risk-taking, emphasising that mistakes are a natural part of learning, and stresses the importance of a good physical environment in class. (Newcombe, 2007, p.106). In the first published diary of a Welsh learner, Lewis (1999, p.115, 118-19) stressed the value of an encouraging tutor:

It seems to me that the teacher has quite a part to play in providing some motivation. Although the urge to learn must come from within, there is no doubt that being encouraged on one's progress is a great support. Learners don't often have the chance to choose their teachers, but if they do, they should look for one who is encouraging. (Lewis, 1999; Newcombe, 2007, p. 107)

There are many principles and techniques that may help a teacher to be a motivating, enthusiastic and an encouraging one, some of those are summarized below:

- Raise the praise, minimize the criticism.
- Building a shared vision (one for all and all for one).

- Getting everyone involved (participative management).
- Guiding goal setting for groups.
- Focusing on the future. (Whitaker, Whitaker, and Lumpa, 2008).

6.2. Creating a Motivating Context

Whereas motivation has traditionally been regarded as something that teachers “do” or “give” to learners through a variety of motivational tricks and strategies, Ushioda (1996) noted that current insights emphasize the importance of fostering learner’s own motivation and sense of self-determination (for instance, Dickinson, 1995; Noels, 2001; Lamb, 2004). Beyond the quality of the teacher and what might be his/her role in motivating learners and directing the learning process, the learning context constitutes a key element of language learning within which other factors than the teacher may intervene. Among the most influential factors involved in affecting the learning context are the learners themselves. When we turn our attention to what teachers and learners might do to achieve and maintain motivation, Ushioda (1996) argues that it becomes impossible to consider pedagogical approaches to fostering motivation from within without considering approaches to fostering learners’ self-determination. Moreover, as Dam’s (1995) full account of her classroom

practice makes obvious, the healthy growth of individual motivation depends very much on the quality and level of interpersonal support provided in the social learning environment. That interpersonal support is provided not only by the teacher but by the entire surrounding context including the learners.

Though learners come to language classes with different needs and goals in mind, it is highly essential to take their own needs in consideration in order to be able to direct the context or to be able to create one that fits the learners' expectations. According to Ushioda (1996), a fundamental pedagogical principle in promoting learner-regulated motivation rather than teacher-regulated motivation is that learning needs are to be driven by learners' own personal needs, goals, and interests. This entails involving learners in making informed choices and decisions about their learning and in setting their own goals and learning targets and thus fostering feelings of personal responsibility (Ushioda, 1996). It is this responsibility that makes learners feel free to contribute in, and even more plan to change the learning process' direction, within a scenario-based context, according to their expectancy. The fact of being determined to intervene in making decisions and designing their own learning situations will

enhance learners' achievement and performance. The strong connection between self-determination and motivation was vividly captured in Dam's (1995) account of her original reasons for giving her reluctant language learners more autonomy in the classroom.

In order to promote healthy interaction between social and individual processes of motivation, it seems clear that there must be close alignment between pedagogical goals and values, individual needs and interests, and peer-related interpersonal goals (Ushioda, 2003). This latter component is the most crucial in determining high-related learning goals and ones that the reaching for would be reflected in a healthy context which allows learners to experience sharing decisions about their own learning environment in an autonomous way. According to Griffiths (2008) incorporating classroom activities where learners work together in pairs or small groups to achieve common goals can help to foster cognitive and motivational interdependence among learners and a sense of shared responsibility. Regarding the scenario-based contexts, this kind of collaborative learning is widely featured in the opportunities given to learners to create, design and direct their own scenarios. Griffiths (2008) argues that the powerful role of collaborative learning in mediating the

growth of individual motivation is widely recognized in studies of child development (for instance, Bronson, 2002), theories of intrinsic motivation (Deci and Flaste, 1996; Ushioda, 1996), classroom studies (for instance, Good and Brophy, 1987), and research on peer tutoring in high education (for instance, Falchikov, 2001).

7. Conclusion

Getting learners involved and motivated in learning is essential. For teachers and learners, however, the real challenge lies in finding ways of sustaining that motivation through the long and often arduous process of learning a language. This entails developing skills and strategies for regulating motivation (Griffiths, 2008). What cannot be motivated for our students; that is something they must find for themselves. What we can do is directly to teach them skills that will help them to begin a task with energy and to complete it even when it becomes difficult. (Tileston, p2). The question that every teacher should ask is how can learners be brought to see themselves as agents of their own learning and thus feel able to redirect their own thoughts, behaviours and feedback in a healthier positive way? McCombs (1994) argues that by providing positive interpersonal support and appropriately structured feedback, teachers can prompt and scaffold

learners' attempts to reflect constructively on their learning experience and to direct their thinking in more positive ways. The role of the teacher is to lead learners in reflecting on, evaluating and directing their own learning experience and performances in a constructive way.

8.Bibliography

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