



AN INVESTIGATION OF ENGLISH LEARNING
MOTIVATION TYPES AND SELF-IDENTITY
CHANGES AMONG THAI ENGLISH
MAJOR STUDENTS

SUSAN TEER

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS
IN
TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES
Faculty of Arts

PAYAP UNIVERSITY

April 2013



Title: An Investigation of English Learning Motivation Types and Self-Identity Changes Among Thai English Major Students

Researcher: Susan Teer

Degree: Master of Arts in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

Advisor: Dr. Jenjit Gasigijtamong, Ed. D.

Approval Date: 23 April 2013

Institution: Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand

This Thesis is approved by:

1. _____ Committee Chair
(Academic Rank Name, Degree)

2. _____ Committee Member
(Academic Rank Name, Degree)

3. _____ Committee Member
(Academic Rank Name, Degree)

Copyright © Susan Teer

Payap University 2013

Title: An Investigation of English Learning Motivation Types and Self-Identity Changes Among Thai English Major Students
Researcher: Susan Teer
Degree: Master of Arts in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
Advisor: Dr. Jenjit Gasigijtamrong, Ed.D.
Approval Date: 23 April 2013
Institution: Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand

Number of Pages: 41
Keywords: Motivation, Learning motivation type, Self-identity, Self-identity change

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify the learning motivation types and self-identity changes of Thai English major students, to determine if there were differences in motivation types and self-identity changes between university level groups, and to determine the correlations between learning motivation types and self-identity changes. The participants included 248 students who responded to a questionnaire. In addition informal interviews were conducted with 10 students who were randomly selected from the participants.

The results revealed that (1) the most common reported learning motivation type was identified regulation followed by the three subtypes of intrinsic motivation—for stimulation, for knowledge, and for accomplishment. The most common reported self-identity change was self-confidence followed by productive and additive changes. (2) There was only one statistically significant difference between freshmen and seniors for one motivation type. (3) There were positive correlations between several learning motivation types and self-identity changes including identified regulation and intrinsic motivation positively correlating with additive, self-confidence, and productive self-identity changes.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
บทคัดย่อ.....	iv
List of Figures.....	vii
List of Tables.....	viii
List of Appendices.....	ix
List of Abbreviations and Symbols.....	x
Chapter 1.....	1
Introduction.....	1
1.1 Rationale and Statement of the Problem.....	1
1.2 Research Questions.....	2
1.3 Significance of the Study.....	3
1.4 Delimitation of the Study.....	3
1.5 Definition of Key Terms.....	3
Chapter 2.....	5
Literature Review.....	5
2.1 Theoretical Framework.....	5
2.1.1 Learning Motivation.....	5
2.1.2 Motivation Theories.....	5
2.1.2.1 Gardner’s Motivation Theory.....	6
2.1.2.2 Self-Determination Theory.....	7
2.1.2.3 Process Model of L2 Motivation.....	9
2.2 Motivation Research.....	11
2.2.1 Motivation Research in Thailand.....	14
2.3 Self-Identity Changes.....	14
2.3.1 Integrativeness.....	14
2.3.2 Cultural Differences.....	15
2.3.3 Bilingualism.....	16
2.4 Self-Identity Change Research.....	17
2.5 Research Combining Motivation and Self-Identity.....	18
2.6 Chapter Summary.....	19
Chapter 3.....	20
Methodology.....	20
3.1 Introduction.....	20
3.2 Participants.....	20

3.3 Research Instruments	20
3.3.1 Questionnaire	21
3.3.2 Interviews	23
3.4 Data Collection Procedure	23
3.5 Data Analysis	24
3.6 Chapter Summary	26
Chapter 4.....	27
Results of the Study	27
4.1 Introduction	27
4.2 Motivation Types	27
4.2.1 Identified Regulation	28
4.2.2 Intrinsic Motivation	29
4.2.3 External Regulation	30
4.2.4 Introjected Regulation.....	30
4.2.5 Amotivation	30
4.2.6 Group Comparisons	31
4.3 Self-Identity Change	32
4.3.1 Confidence Change.....	32
4.3.2 Productive Change	32
4.3.3 Additive Change	33
4.3.4 Zero Change.....	33
4.3.5 Subtractive Change	33
4.3.6 Split Change.....	34
4.3.7 Group Comparisons	34
4.4 Correlation of Motivation Types and Self-Identity Changes.....	34
4.5 Chapter Summary	35
Chapter 5.....	36
Conclusions and Discussion	36
5.1 Summary of the Results	36
5.1.1 Motivation Types	36
5.1.2 Self-Identity Changes.....	36
5.1.3 Correlation of Motivation Types and Self-Identity Changes.....	37
5.2 Discussion.....	37
5.3 Implications of the Study	39
5.4 Recommendations for Future Studies	40
5.5 Chapter Summary	41
Bibliography	42
Appendices.....	46
Resume.....	56

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Gardner's Socio-Educational Model.....	6
Figure 2 The Self-Determination Continuum with Types of Motivation and Types of Regulation.....	8
Figure 3 Dörnyei and Ottó's Process Model of L2 Motivation.....	10

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Rating Scale.....	24
Table 2	Questionnaire Items and Corresponding Motivation Type.....	25
Table 3	Questionnaire Items and Corresponding Self-Identity Changes.....	25
Table 4	Interpretation of Mean Scores.....	25
Table 5	Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Motivation Types.....	28
Table 6	Kruskal-Wallis H Test—Motivation Types.....	31
Table 7	Introjected Regulation Freshmen and Senior Group Comparison.....	31
Table 8	Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Self-Identity Change.....	32
Table 9	Kruskal-Wallis H Test—Self-Identity Changes.....	34

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A Questionnaire.....	47
Appendix B Interview Questions.....	53
Appendix C Interview Transcript Sample.....	54

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ELL	English Language Learning
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ID	Individual Differences
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
L2	Second Language
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
C2	Target Culture
C1	Native Culture
US	United States
L1	First Language
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Rationale and Statement of the Problem

For several decades English has been a compulsory foreign language subject at various education levels in Thailand. As the Thai government has implemented new goals and objectives for the educational system, the starting age for compulsory English language learning (ELL) has been lowered to where it stands today--age six or level one in primary education. Thai students are now required to study English as a foreign language (EFL) for the majority of their school years, yet the proficiency of Thai students continues to be ranked low when compared to their Southeast Asian neighbors and other countries around the world (Ahuja, 2011; Wiriyaichitra, 2002).

According to an article released by the Reuters News Service, the Swiss-based Institute of Management Development ranked Thailand 54th out of 56 countries globally for English proficiency (Ahuja, 2011). Without a large population of proficient English speakers, Thailand may lose jobs to other countries such as Taiwan, China, and Singapore who have the highly trained, skilled workers who are proficient in English as well. Some might think that there is a lack of proper funding for Thai education, but relative to its size Thailand is one of the world's top spenders when it comes to education spending 4.1% of its gross domestic product compared to Singapore's 3.0% (Ahuja, 2011; Central Intelligence Agency, n.d.). Incidentally, Singapore outperforms Thailand in both English proficiency and overall education outcomes (Ahuja, 2011; Education First, 2011).

The disparity between Thailand's ELL outcomes and those of its Southeast Asian neighbors might create an interest into the causes of such differences. According to Gardner (1985) wondering why some students attain higher levels of proficiency than others is not a new question. He writes that teachers in general are not looking at the lack of proficiency as a failure, but they are re-focusing their efforts on their students and their language as a whole not merely from an educational viewpoint. They are focusing on other aspects of the language such as its history and relation to culture. This shift in focus toward the students themselves brought about a move toward social psychology and allowed for research into individual differences (ID) which was also the starting point for research into second language (L2) learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1985).

Dörnyei (2005) identified motivation as one of the most important ID variables as it "provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent" (p. 65). Motivation is one of the most challenging concepts of the social sciences, but most researchers can agree that motivation is responsible for the reason people choose a

course of action, the length of time they are willing to maintain the action, and the effort they are going to exert in their pursuit (Dörnyei, 2001).

In recent years second language (L2) learning motivation research has linked motivation types to learning outcomes—both linguistic and nonlinguistic—with a focus on proficiency as indicated by test scores (Gao, Zhao, Cheng, & Zhou, 2007). However, according to Wiriyachitra (2002) the Thai government includes nonlinguistic outcomes as well in their goals for ELL in Thailand. The ministry of education identifies three objectives for both core and elective English courses: knowledge, skill, and a positive attitude toward English, and each of the three objectives involves understanding the culture of native speakers, enjoying the use of English, and appreciating both the English language and its culture. This complements the belief L2 motivation researchers have always held that a foreign language is more than simply an academic subject. According to Dörnyei (2009) the researchers have generally linked the L2 to the “individual’s personal ‘core,’ forming an important part of one’s identity” (p. 9).

Because English proficiency in Thailand remains low after years of government educational reform, this research focuses on the students themselves-- particularly those who have chosen to continue their ELL by choosing English as their university major. Determining what motivates these students to not only continue their ELL beyond their compulsory language learning during their grade school years but to choose it as a major while studying in an EFL environment may provide educators with the information they need to address the motivation of students during their grade school years. In addition, the nonlinguistic outcomes as set forth as objectives by the Thai government need to be investigated as well to determine if they are being met. Linking motivation types and self-identity changes among students will provide educators with a different perspective on their students and their learning processes and will help them make any pedagogical changes that need to be met in order to meet their objectives.

In order to better understand the unique situation of ELL in Thailand where English is not an officially recognized second language, this study focuses on two aspects of ELL—the motivation types held by students and the self-identity changes that occur among the students. It identifies the English learning motivation types held by northern Thai university students majoring in English and determines what, if any, self-identity changes have occurred with the students as a result of learning English. Finally, the research identifies any correlations there may be between motivation types and the reported self-identity changes.

1.2 Research Questions

The following research questions were created to meet the research goals:

- 1) What motivation types do northern Thai university English majors have for learning English? To what extent are there differences among the students according to university year of study?
- 2) What self-identity changes, if any, do the students experience? To what extent do the self-identity changes vary according to university levels?
- 3) What is the correlation between the motivation types and reported self-identity changes or lack of change?

1.3 Significance of the Study

The current study is of significance to continuing research in motivation specifically in reference to the Thai context. Dörnyei (2001) wrote that studying English in post-colonial Hong Kong will have differing “motivational overtones” than studying EFL in Hungary (p. 66). Determining what motivates Thai students to continue their ELL past the compulsory foreign language subject of their grade school years may give insight to possible and favorable changes that can be implemented in the Thai ELL education system.

Gao et al. (2007) stated that most L2 learning motivation research to date has linked motivation types to linguistic outcomes such as proficiency test scores, but this research will add to the body that is expanding that field to include nonlinguistic outcomes as well. These nonlinguistic outcomes are still important in fulfilling the objectives of the Thai ministry of education. In order to know if the educational objective of having a positive attitude towards English, understanding and appreciating the culture of English speakers, and finding pleasure in and using English for their work is being met, the learners need an opportunity to report on the changes they feel have taken place to their self-identity throughout their ELL experience.

Finally, through identifying any correlations that may exist between motivation and self-identity changes, there may be an impact on teaching methods and the amount of time devoted to addressing students’ L2 learning motivation types. Those L2 motivation types which bring about positive self-identity changes could be presented, modeled, and encouraged in the Thai EFL classroom throughout the compulsory grade school years.

1.4 Delimitation of the Study

The study focuses on English major students who are studying at a private northern Thai university. It took place during the first semester of study during the 2012 school year in the month of September, and it covers the students’ reported motivation types and any self-identity changes they have experienced.

The study does not cover students who are studying outside of the northern region or at government universities and therefore, may not be a reflection of the population in another context. This study is also limited to English majors in order to control one of the variables that is considered to be an influential factor for both motivation and self-identity changes (Boonchum, 2009b; Gao et al., 2007).

1.5 Definition of Key Terms

1. Motivation in this study utilizes Gardner’s (2001) definition identifying motivation as “the driving force in any situation” (p. 6). In the ELL situation this results in the L2 learner making an effort to learn the language, displaying a consistent effort to learn the material by doing homework, doing extra work, and seeking out opportunities for further learning, and enjoying L2 learning.

2. Learning motivation types in this study are classifications of motivation types based on the reasons or goals that become the impetus for language learning. The two broad classifications used in this study are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with each broad classification consisting of several subtypes.

3. Self-identity as used in this study is “how the learners perceive themselves in terms of linguistic and cultural groups they belong to, their values, communication styles, abilities and worthiness” (Gao, Zhao, Cheng, & Zhou, 2004, p. 1).

4. Self-identity change in this study is defined as a change that the learners perceive in themselves from the Thai cultural group to that of a Western or global cultural group.

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.

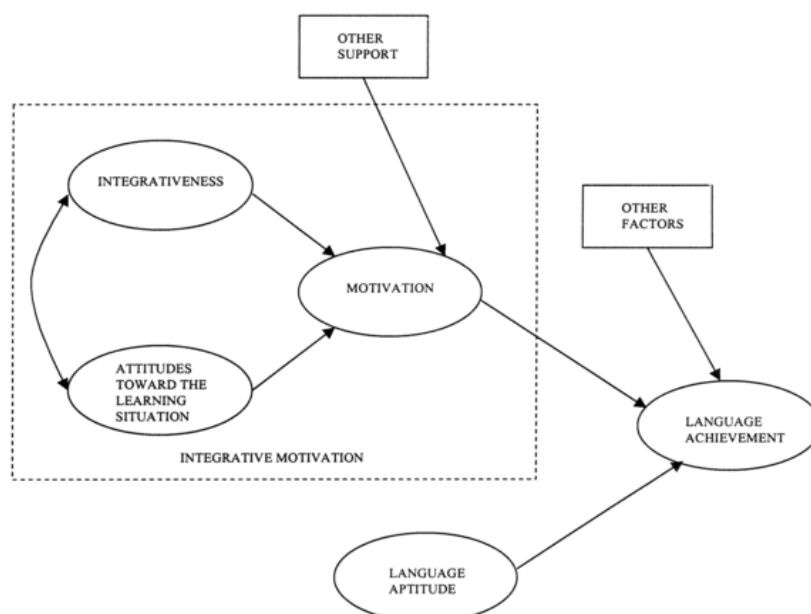


Figure 1: Gardner's Socio-educational Model (2001, p. 5)

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.

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.

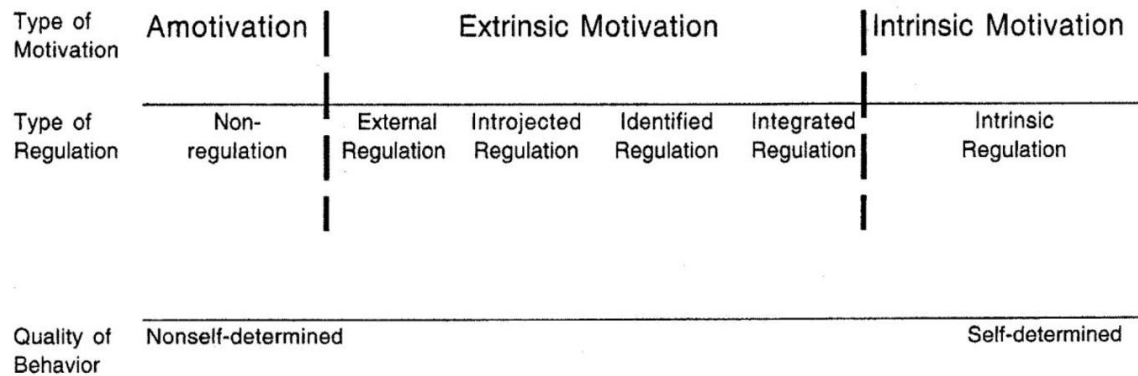


Figure 2: The Self-Determination Continuum with Types of Motivation and Types of Regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 16)

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).

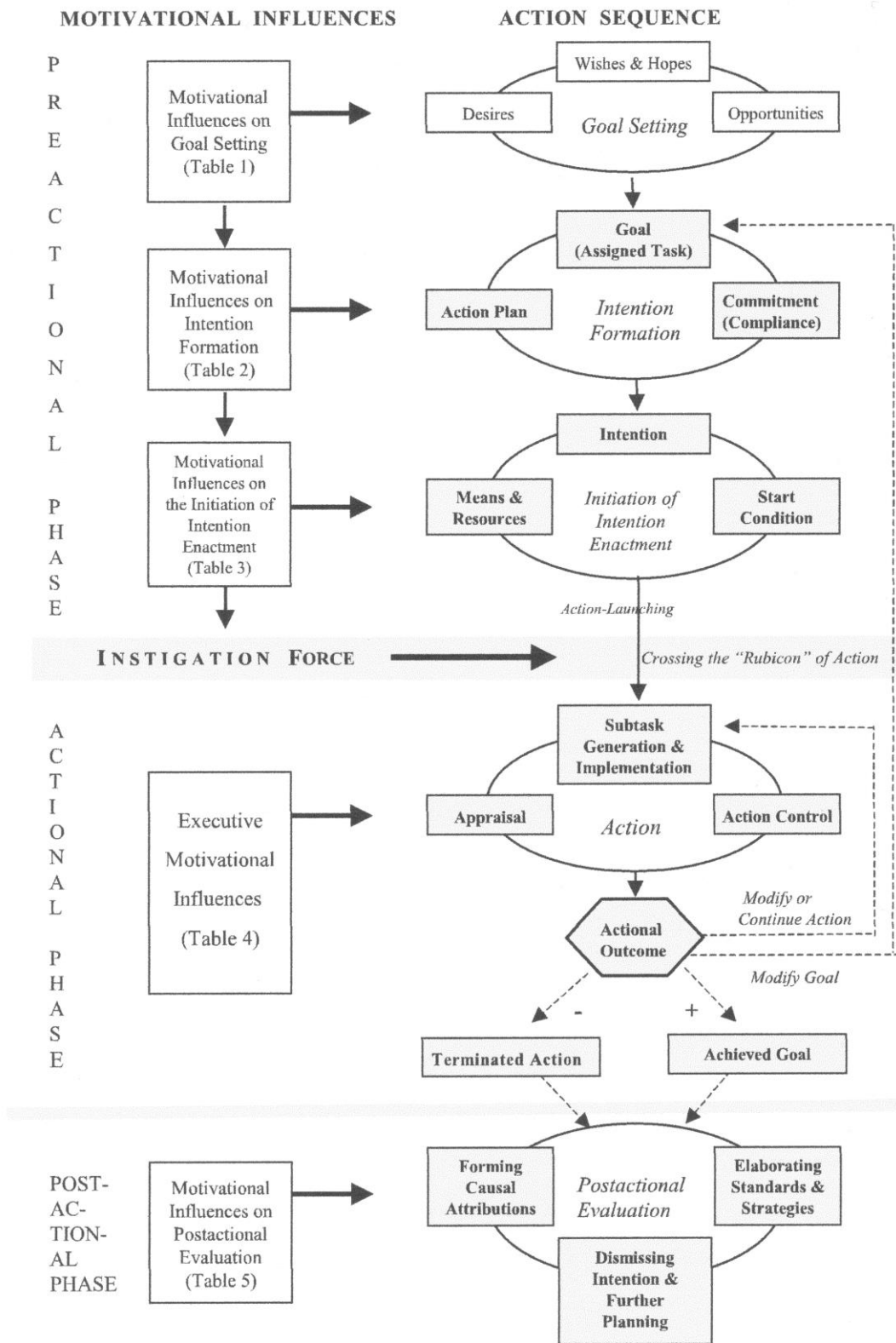


Figure 3: Dörnyei and Ottó's Process Model of L2 Motivation (1998, p. 48)

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 remained 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 Piosawaschai (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.

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 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 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.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The study collected quantitative data through a questionnaire to determine the motivation types and reported self-identity changes of university students majoring in English at a private northern Thai university and to determine if there are any correlations between the two. Follow-up interviews were also conducted in order to gather further information from some of the participants. This chapter describes the methodology including the participants, research instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

3.2 Participants

This study focuses on undergraduate university English language learners who have chosen English as their major at a private university located in northern Thailand. The participating students are studying in a regular Thai university program as opposed to an international program because this study focuses on Thai students and not the various nationalities that are represented in international programs. The Thai program has general education courses that are instructed in Thai in addition to their English courses while English is the language of instruction for all classes in the international program. The population of the English-major students who were Thai native speakers was 328. All of them were included in the current study; however, only 248 surveys were completed, giving a response rate of 75.6%. According to Wiersma and Jurs (2009), the accepted response rate for educational researchers is less than 50 %; therefore, the response rate of the current study was acceptable.

The participants included 60 males and 188 females. There were 103 freshmen, 47 sophomores, 61 juniors, and 37 seniors who completed surveys. The starting age for ELL also varied among the participants. Sixty-four students reported they started ELL before the age of four while 46 students started at age five. One hundred twenty-five students started studying during their elementary school years, and nine students started in secondary school. Four participants did not respond to this item. Forty-seven students reported they did not have any foreign friends while two hundred students reported having at least one foreign friend. One student did not respond.

3.3 Research Instruments

During this research two instruments were used to collect data. First, the participants responded to a three-part questionnaire. After the data were analyzed

informal interviews were conducted to follow-up and to clarify answers from the questionnaire.

3.3.1 Questionnaire

The main instrument for the current research was a questionnaire (Appendix A). The questionnaire was divided into three sections including demographic information, motivation types, and self-identity changes. The individual questionnaires were numbered so that individual student responses could be analyzed and relationships between variables could be analyzed.

The questionnaire was administered to the learners to gather personal information, to evaluate their ELL motivation types, and to allow them to report any self-identity changes they have experienced. The personal information section included fill-in-the-blank items while the motivation and self-identity changes sections contained Likert items and were measured by a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = uncertain; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree). The personal information requested included: length of English study, gender, starting age of ELL, and whether one has foreign friends or not.

The motivation portion of the questionnaire was taken from the questionnaire developed by Noels and colleagues (2000) in their study. One of the purposes of their study was to develop an instrument useful for determining L2 learners' motivation types from a perspective based upon SDT. The results from their study validated the intrinsic and extrinsic subtypes as proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985) and Vallerand and his associates (cited in Noels et al., 2000). Because there were a large number of variables, exploratory factor analysis was carried out independently for the subscales of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation until there were three questionnaire items remaining to define the subscales of intrinsic motivation (stimulation, accomplishment, and knowledge), identified regulation, introjected regulation, and external regulation. Once there were three items for each subscale, one factor analysis was performed which yielded seven factors that accounted for 67.2% of the variance. The results supported the distinctiveness of the subscales, and their results found correlations that suggested amotivation, less self-determined forms of motivation, and more self-determined forms of motivation could be distinguished as illustrated in the SDT continuum. In addition, the Cronbach alpha index of internal consistency had a range of .67 to .88 which was acceptable for all of the subscales.

The motivation section of the questionnaire consisted of 20 randomly ordered statements with three statements each referring to the following motivation types: intrinsic motivation (stimulation, accomplishment, and knowledge), identified regulation, external regulation, and non-regulation (amotivation). Two statements referred to introjected regulation as the third item in the original questionnaire did not fit the Thai setting.

Dörnyei (2001) writes that the questionnaire used in a research project must be appropriate for the environment and the sample. For this reason one item from the original Noels and colleagues' (2000) survey was deleted. This item referred to students learning a second language in order to show that they are good citizens. Since English is not an official second language in Thailand, ELL does not pertain to being a good citizen. In addition to deleting this item, the questionnaire was translated into Thai to provide students with an option according to which language they felt the most comfortable with. The questionnaire was translated by a bilingual speaker and then read by an EFL expert to ensure its validity.

The self-identity changes section included the following six categories: self-confidence, additive, subtractive, productive, split, and zero change. A total of 26 statements were provided. There were five statements referring to productive and attitude changes and four statements referring to confidence, zero, subtractive, and split changes.

Self-confidence change is a change in the perception of one's own ability. When talking with foreigners the participant is confident and comfortable and can express opinions in public with ease and confidence. In addition there is an increase in the ability to do things and make decisions without the help of others.

Additive change occurs when two sets of languages, behavioral patterns and values co-exist with each functioning in particular contexts. With additive change the participant can easily switch between the Thai and English languages and the cultures of both. The participant retains the confidence and assertiveness associated with English and the moderation and modesty of Thai. Other examples include using an English nickname in English contexts and a Thai nickname in Thai context and preferring English audio for English movies and Thai audio for Thai movies.

The target language and culture replaces the native language and culture in subtractive change. The increase and ease of using the English language causes a diminishment of the Thai language. In fact there could be a repugnancy felt for some traditional Thai ways. There is more comfort in greeting in the English way rather than using the traditional "wai."

In productive change both the target language and the native language positively reinforce each other. With an improvement in English proficiency, there is a greater appreciation for Thai and awareness of the outside world. An increase in the appreciation of English literature and art creates an increase in appreciation of Thai literature and art.

Split change occurs when identity conflicts result from the struggle between the languages and cultures. As ELL progresses, there is a subconscious mixing of English and Thai words. The contexts are mixed where English might be spoken when Thai would be appropriate, and Thai might be spoken when English would be appropriate. There is often confusion as to how to greet or take leave of friends whether to hug, shake hands, kiss, or "wai." The values and beliefs of Thai contradict with those of English.

Zero change is the absence of a change in self-identity. It is considered futile to discuss self-identity changes after learning English. The participant remains the same no matter what language is used; learning languages is an event separated from personal change.

The original questionnaire was developed by Gao and colleagues for their 2004 study in China and was later adapted for the Thai setting by Boonchum in 2009. Five pilot studies were carried out, and the resulting version of the Chinese questionnaire had 24 statements with four statements referring to each self-identity change. After the questionnaire was formally administered, Cronbach's alpha for the self-identity questionnaire was 0.65 (Gao et al., 2004).

Boonchum (2009b) adapted the questionnaire by adding examples that fit the Thai setting. She also changed the references to the Chinese language to references to the Thai language. The original statements concerning additive, subtractive, productive, split, and zero changes were used in Boonchum's questionnaire with the addition of one statement each in the additive and productive groups. For the additive changes, she added an item referencing an English language context in which the learner can accept someone's suggestion or comment without feeling sad because

there is a clear separation between self and others in the western culture. Individuals in the western culture increase their self-esteem through self-appreciation and self-satisfaction not necessarily through the opinions of others. In reference to productive changes, Boonchum added the importance of punctuality and as a result of ELL, the participant is now punctual in keeping appointments with other people. This change is a move from the passivity of Thai culture which values waiting to western culture which values taking action.

In addition to adding the statements to the additive and productive items, Boonchum (2009b) also changed the wording of the items referring to self-confidence changes. The changes in the wording reflect the differences between the EFL settings of Thailand and China; even though they are both EFL settings Gao (2001) noted a lack of interaction with the L2 community outside of the classroom in China. However, Boonchum (2009b) research includes the possibility of interaction with the L2 community through friendship and reflects that possibility in the statements. For example, she provides the statement: “English learning makes me speak English with foreigners confidently and comfortable” instead of the Chinese version which said, “English learning has a great impact on my self-confidence.” After the revisions were completed a pilot study was carried out to confirm the reliability of the questionnaire at 0.76.

The questionnaire from the Thai context was chosen for this research because of its specificity to the ELL situation of Thailand. Dörnyei (2001) writes that a standardized assessment tool cannot be used arbitrarily in contexts outside of the one where it was developed without it being adjusted. For this reason the questionnaire that has already been adjusted to the Thai context was chosen. It includes examples that a contest-specific and that Thai participants will be able to relate to.

3.3.2 Interviews

Informal interviews were conducted with ten students after the data from the questionnaires had been collected and analyzed. After an analysis of the questionnaire, groups emerged from the results according to reported types of self-identity changes, and representative students from each group were randomly chosen for interviews. The data were used to form follow-up questions to ask the students (see Appendix B). These questions included asking about any areas that needed clarification, for more background information of the students, or for more of their thoughts and point of view.

The interview questions centered around both motivation types and self-identity changes. The data analysis revealed that many students identified with more than one motivation type; therefore, they were asked if they had one reason for ELL that was more important than the others. The temporal, changing aspect of motivation was addressed as well by asking whether their motivation was different in the primary or secondary school years and now and since they started the English major program. Furthermore, the researcher wanted to know examples of how they had changed because of ELL or why they didn't change. Finally, the participants were asked if they thought they could successfully learn English and not change.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

The questionnaires were administered to the students during the final week of regularly scheduled classes during the first semester at the teachers' convenience. The

majority of the teachers chose to administer the surveys themselves so that they could administer the questionnaires when time was available. Attempt had been made to explain the procedure for questionnaire administration to all instructors to increase internal validity. Whether the teachers or the researcher administered the survey, the students were reminded that their answers would remain confidential and would not affect their grades.

After the questionnaire data were analyzed, the students who were randomly selected for interviews were contacted by phone. A brief introduction was given in Thai, and the students were given the opportunity to schedule an interview; if the students were not available to meet with the researcher, they were given the option to conduct the interview over the phone. All ten of the students stated that the phone interview would be more convenient for them as they did not have free time during the day to meet with the researcher. The researcher conducted the interviews herself in English. A request was made and granted for permission to record the interview, and the students were reminded that even though it was being recorded, they would remain anonymous.

3.5 Data Analysis

Statistical analysis of the received questionnaire data was done using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). For the first two research questions determining the motivation types of the learners and the reported self-identity changes, descriptive statistics were used. Responses were coded using the numerical values assigned to the questionnaire responses, keyed into the computer, and then checked for accuracy in order to receive a data file so analysis could proceed. The codes were assigned according to the following scale: strongly agree, 5; agree, 4; uncertain, 3; disagree, 2; strongly disagree, 1 (see Table 1).

Table 1

Rating Scale	
Scale	Participant's response
5	Strongly agree
4	Agree
3	Uncertain
2	Disagree
1	Strongly disagree

The statements from the questionnaire were grouped according to the type of motivation or self-identity change it describes. Tables 2 and 3 show the item numbers in groups and their corresponding motivation type or self-identity change type. The student responses for each motivation type and each type of self-identity change were analyzed by using descriptive statistics namely percentages, mean scores, and standard deviation.

Table 2

Questionnaire Items and Corresponding Motivation Type

Items	Label
1, 5, 17	Amotivation
3, 6, 16	External Regulation
11, 18	Introjected Regulation
2, 7, 13	Identified Regulation
4, 12, 15	Intrinsic Motivation - Stimulation
9, 10, 19	Intrinsic Motivation - Knowledge
8, 14, 20	Intrinsic Motivation - Accomplishment

Table 3

Questionnaire Items and Corresponding Self-Identity Changes

Items	Label
3, 5, 7, 17	Confidence
2, 10, 13, 20, 25	Productive
8, 16, 18, 21, 24	Additive
4, 11, 14, 22	Zero
1, 9, 23, 26	Subtractive
6, 12, 15, 19	Split

In order to interpret the mean scores, the class interval was calculated using the following formula.

$$\text{Class interval} = \frac{\text{Highest data value} - \text{Lowest data value}}{\text{Number of class intervals}}$$

The class interval obtained from the calculation was 0.8 so the following intervals were created: highest, 4.21 – 5.00; high, 3.41 – 4.20; moderate, 2.61 – 3.40; low, 1.81 – 2.60; and lowest, 1.00 – 1.80 (see Table 4).

Table 4

Interpretation of Mean Scores

Range of Mean Score	Degree of Motivation
4.21 – 5.00	Highest
3.41 – 4.20	High
2.61 – 3.40	Moderate
1.81 – 2.60	Low
1.00 – 1.80	Lowest

After the descriptive statistics were calculated, a Kruskal-Wallis H test was run to determine if there were differences in motivation types or self-identity changes between university level groups. If there was a statistically significant difference ($p <$

.05) in any of the categories, then pairwise comparisons were carried out using Mann-Whitney U tests with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

For the third research question, the interest is in how the two variables, motivation type and self-identity change, relate to each other. The scores of the motivation types and the self-identity changes were analyzed together to determine how they covary. A Spearman's Rank Order correlation was run to determine the correlation between the motivation types and the self-identity changes of the participants.

In reference to the interviews, after the interviews were transcribed (see Appendix C), the data were then sorted, categorized, and grouped according to the major themes that emerged. The responses were categorized by motivation type, type of self-identity change, and positive or negative responses. Then the answers were sorted and similar answers were grouped together for reporting purposes.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter detailed the data collection and organization process for this study. The instruments used to collect data included a three-part questionnaire and informal interviews. Descriptive statistics were generated from the questionnaire data using the SPSS program and were used to generate questions for the follow-up interviews. The interview data were sorted, categorized, and grouped. After the data collection and evaluation was concluded, the results were compiled and are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 4

Results of the Study

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results from the quantitative data analysis using the SPSS program and the qualitative data analysis from the interviews. The quantitative data is presented using descriptive statistics (Means, Standard Deviation, and percentage) and correlations, and the data from the interviews is presented through the themes and words provided by the students. This chapter is divided into three main sections with each section presenting the results of the research questions concerning motivation types, self-identity changes, and the correlation of the two.

4.2 Motivation Types

In this section the results and findings from the analysis of the motivation types section of the questionnaire are presented as well as the results of the follow-up interview questions. The participants' questionnaire responses were coded and keyed into the SPSS program; and the items were grouped according to the motivation type they referred to. The percentages for each response and mean scores of all of the motivation types were calculated as well as the standard deviation. The summary of the descriptive statistics are shown in Table 2; the results are listed in descending order of the mean scores.

Table 5

Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Motivation Types

Motivation Type	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Uncertain %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Degree of Motivation
Identified Regulation	71.30	26.03	1.60	1.07	0	4.67	.431	Highest
Intrinsic Motivation Stimulation	48.97	39.87	10.63	0.40	0.13	4.37	.567	Highest
Intrinsic Motivation Knowledge	45.97	39.53	10.63	2.93	0.93	4.27	.590	Highest
Intrinsic Motivation Accomplishment	45.03	37.37	14.13	2.67	0.80	4.23	.623	Highest
External Regulation	51.80	26.10	11.87	6.30	3.90	4.16	.663	High
Introjected Regulation	26.10	26.90	23.10	13.30	10.65	3.45	1.04	High
Amotivation	0.80	2.03	7.77	21.40	67.97	1.46	.554	Lowest

4.2.1 Identified Regulation

Items 2, 7, and 13 from the questionnaire referred to identified regulation which is one of the subtypes of extrinsic motivation valuing ELL as both good and important at the personal level. Ryan and Deci (2000) write that a participant who recognizes the personal importance of the behavior has accepted ownership or internalized the regulation. There is a conscious valuing of the activity. For example, a young boy memorizes spelling lists because he sees the value in his writing; being a good writer is a value he holds and is a life goal. Therefore, he has identified with the value of learning the spelling words.

The sample as a whole chose to agree or strongly agree with the three items ($M = 4.67$, $SD = .431$); Table 2 shows that 71.30% strongly agreed with the statements while 26.03% agreed. This corresponds with the highest level of motivation according to the guidelines set forth in chapter 3. There were no participants who strongly disagreed with these statements, and only 1.07% disagreed.

Seven students reported that the most important reason they were studying English was because of identified regulation; they identify English as the means to communicate with the world and choose to be the type of person who can speak a second language. Two of the students see English as an opportunity to speak with the other citizens of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) while three of the students noted that they felt that English was the language of the entire world. Participation in the larger community whether it be the ASEAN or the worldwide community was important at the personal level to these seven students.

4.2.2 Intrinsic Motivation

Three subtypes of intrinsic motivation had the highest means after identified regulation. The reward for the intrinsic motivation subtype for stimulation is the pleasure of experiencing pleasant sensations. Noels (2001b) writes that participants find the sensations of the language stimulating. They might find pleasure in the sounds, melodies, or the rhythm of the language in a piece of poetry or prose.

The results corresponded with the highest level of motivation although at a slightly lower score than that of identified regulation ($M = 4.37$, $SD = .567$). Table 2 shows that 48.97% strongly agreed with the three items, and 39.87% agreed with them. Only 0.13% chose “strongly disagree” while 0.40% chose “disagree.” The mean score of the selections was 4.37 which is the highest degree of motivation ($SD = .567$).

Items 9, 10, and 19 referred to another subtype of intrinsic motivation. Participants who agreed with these statements about intrinsic motivation for knowledge are motivated by the satisfaction of learning a new idea. Their pleasure comes from learning, exploring, and grasping new things. For example an ELL student might look up little-known foreign words just because he’s curious (Noels, 2001b). For these items the mean score of 4.27 indicates the highest degree of motivation ($SD = .590$). A small number of students strongly disagreed with the statements (0.93%) and disagreed (2.93%); more students chose to strongly agree (45.97%) and agree (39.53%).

The final subtype of intrinsic motivation is for accomplishment. Intrinsic motivation for accomplishment has a reward of satisfaction of accomplishing something new. Whether the participant is trying to accomplish something, surpass himself, or create, the emphasis is on the achievement process not the goal or final result. For example the motivation might come from the satisfaction of successfully accomplishing a difficult grammatical structure in the second language (Noels, 2001b). Items 8, 14, and 20 referred to this type of motivation, and there was the highest degree of motivation for these statements ($M = 4.23$, $SD = .623$). The largest percentage of participants strongly agreed (45.03%) while 37.37% agreed; a few participants chose to disagree (2.67%) and strongly disagree (0.80%).

Only one student who was interviewed identified intrinsic motivation as the most important reason for ELL at this point in time. He loves English and studies because of the enjoyment and pleasure it brings him, and he can not remember a time when he did not love English. He learns because it’s interesting not just because he sees benefits from learning but because ELL is stimulating. Another student did not reference intrinsic motivation for knowledge when asked about her motivation type but did reference it for another question. She reported that because she is able to read English books, she sees the world in a different way. Because she knows English, she can read history through the narrator who is a local observer. She can gain knowledge from the one who has the experience.

Two students cited a subtype of intrinsic motivation for their primary and secondary school years. One said that she studied for the pleasure she received from ELL, and one participant said that he had a cousin who could speak English. He wanted to be smart like his cousin, and he enjoyed gaining the new knowledge from learning new things in English.

4.2.3 External Regulation

According to Ryan and Deci (2000) external regulation is a form of extrinsic motivation which separates motivation from the activity; the participants want to study English either to receive a positive outcome or to avoid a negative consequence. It is the least autonomous subtype of extrinsic motivation as ELL is not undertaken or continued without outside control, and it is characterized by compliance to external forces. Items 3, 6, and 16 refer to external regulation. The majority of the sample chose to strongly agree (51.80%) or agree (26.10%) with these items while 6.30% disagreed and 3.90% strongly disagreed. The mean score 4.16 indicates a high degree of motivation ($SD = .663$).

None of the students who were interviewed identified external regulation as their primary motivation type, but they did relate that they believed English would help them in getting a job. Four students said that English was necessary for them to get a good job in the future, and they thought that it would give them a competitive edge over other candidates.

4.2.4 Introjected Regulation

If participants receive a cue from their environment that the activity is beneficial and take that cue in, it is a form of extrinsic motivation called introjected regulation. Although the regulation is internalized, it does not fully become a part of the person. Actions are still carried out in order to avoid guilt, anxiety or to increase the feeling of worth. This type of regulation is still quite controlling causing people to act in order to receive approval from self or others (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Items 11 and 18 referred to this type of motivation and had a mean score of 3.45 which is a high degree of motivation ($SD = 1.045$). More participants chose to strongly agree (26.10%) or agree (26.90%) than disagree (13.30%) or strongly disagree (10.65%).

4.2.5 Amotivation

The last items in the questionnaire referred to amotivation which is where the student acts passively or does not act at all. Ryan and Deci (2000) describe the participant's behavior as unintentional and without personal cause. The action is impersonal and perceived as irrelevant. Amotivation results from not valuing the activity, feelings of incompetence, or not believing it will achieve a goal. Only 0.80% of the participants responded "strongly agree" while 2.03% chose "agree." The majority responded "disagree" or "strongly disagree" (21.40% and 67.97%). The mean score of 1.46 indicates the lowest degree of motivation meaning few responders are amotivated ($SD = .554$).

Although none of the students who were interviewed indicated that they were amotivated at the current time in their ELL, several did recall a time when they were not motivated to learn. When asked why they studied English in their primary or secondary education years, seven students reported they studied only because it was part of the core curriculum or because their parents took them to English classes during their primary or secondary education years. Their motivation type changed before entering university and choosing English as a major.

Two students identified a reason for studying English that was not directly related to any of the items on the questionnaire. Both students want to learn English so that they can travel abroad.

4.2.6 Group Comparisons

In order to compare the motivation types of students between the four university level groups (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior), a Kruskal-Wallis H test was calculated. Pairwise comparisons were performed using Mann-Whitney tests with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. Table 3 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test for each of the motivation types.

Table 6

Kruskal-Wallis H Test--Motivation Types

	Identified Regulation	Intrinsic-Stimulation	Intrinsic-Knowledge	Intrinsic-Accomplishment	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Amotivation
Chi-Square	3.972	2.337	4.668	6.421	3.981	9.813	1.079
Df	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	.264	.505	.198	.093	.264	.020	.782

Statistical significance was accepted at the $p < .05$ level for the omnibus test and $p < .0083$ level for the multiple comparisons. According to the Kruskal-Wallis test, there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in identified regulation ($H(3) = 3.972, p = .264$), intrinsic motivation – stimulation ($H(3) = 2.337, p = .505$), knowledge ($H(3) = 4.668, p = .198$), accomplishment ($H(3) = 6.421, p = .093$), external regulation ($H(3) = 3.981, p = .264$), and amotivation ($H(3) = 1.079, p = .782$). There was a statistically significant difference between the university levels in the introjected regulation motivation type ($H(3) = 9.813, p = .020$) with a mean rank of 135.85 for Freshmen, 117.14 for Sophomores, 116.60 for Juniors, and 95.92 for Seniors. Table 4 shows the results of *post-hoc* analysis which revealed a statistically significant difference between first-year students ($Mdn. = 3.75$) and fourth-year students ($Mdn. = 3.00$) with regard to introjected regulation ($z = -3.000; p = .003$).

Table 7

Introjected Regulation Freshmen and Senior Group Comparison

	<i>Introjected Regulation</i>
Z	-3.000
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.003

None of the students who were interviewed reported any changes in their motivation types since entering the university English program. Any changes that had occurred in the motivation types occurred before they entered the university. Five students identified their secondary education years as times where they moved from amotivation to being motivated to learn English.

4.3 Self-Identity Changes

In the following sections the results from the self-identity change portion of the questionnaire will be presented in the same manner as the results from the motivation section as well as the responses from the follow-up interviews. For self-identity change, there were six types of change: confidence, productive, additive, zero, subtractive, and split. The SPSS program was used to generate the frequency of the participants' responses which were coded and keyed into the computer for all 26 items. The percentages for each response and mean scores of all of the self-identity changes were calculated as well as the standard deviation. The summary of the descriptive statistics is shown in Table 5; the results are listed in descending order of the mean scores.

Table 8

Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Self-Identity Change

Type of Change	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Uncertain %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Degree of Change
Confidence	25.05	45.05	22.08	5.38	2.43	3.85	.566	High
Productive	23.78	41.70	26.92	5.24	2.34	3.79	.512	High
Additive	21.76	27.28	21.68	14.96	14.32	3.27	.470	Moderate
Zero	22.40	17.38	17.23	22.08	20.85	2.98	.588	Moderate
Subtractive	8.55	18.85	21.98	24.60	26.00	2.59	.729	Low
Split	4.03	9.50	22.73	33.75	29.93	2.24	.664	Low

4.3.1 Confidence Change

In reference to their changes in confidence, the participants responded to four statements; items 3, 5, 7, and 17 related to the changes in the perception of one's own ability. Changes in self-confidence are not cultural changes, but they are changes in confidence and attitude. Success in ELL can produce terrific feelings while difficulties can cause doubts in abilities. ELL can improve the self-confidence and participants think they have grown after overcoming difficulties (Gao, 2001).

As seen in Table 4 the mean score for the four items was 3.85 which indicates a high degree of change in confidence ($SD = .566$). When participants responded to these items, 25.05% chose to strongly agree, and 45.05% chose to agree. Only 5.83% chose to disagree while 2.43% strongly disagreed.

Four students noted their confidence level has increased during their ELL with one student noting that this has come from the university professors asking for the students to share their opinions in English. All four of the students have become more confident when talking to foreigners feel that they can no do so with ease, and one student related that she chose this particular university because she knew she would meet more foreigners there. Being around students from English-speaking countries has let her know that she can successfully talk with them and share her opinions.

4.3.2 Productive Change

Items 2, 10, 13, 20, and 25 referred to a change where both the English language and the Thai language positively reinforce each other. Gao (2001) writes

that as L2 proficiency increases appreciation for L1 increases as well. The participant's identity with the C1 becomes stronger as understanding of the C2 increases. Unlike additive changes, productive change produces a new product. The L1 and C1 interact with the L2 learning to produce a person who has a strong C1 identity yet is multicultural. As reflected in Table 4 the participants showed a high degree of productive change with a mean score of 3.79 ($SD = .512$). The majority of participants chose to strongly agree (23.78%) or agree (41.70%); only 5.24% chose "disagree," and "strongly disagree" was chosen by 2.34%.

Three students talked about how English has changed their worldview and caused them to learn more about the cultures of their English-speaking friends. They have begun to appreciate the outside culture as well as maintaining a respect for their Thai culture. As they read more English literature and are exposed to more art from different cultures, their worldview expands, and their points of view change. The change has also caused them to be more talkative and to share more with their English-speaking friends as well as sharing the Thai culture with them.

4.3.3 Additive Change

Five items referred to additive change; participants responded to items 8, 16, 18, 21, and 24 which referred to the L1 and L2, behavioral patterns, and values functioning separately and in their own appropriate contexts. For example, an immigrant student speaks L2 at school and speaks L1 at home; therefore the student functions in the C2 at school and returns to the C1 at home. Each language and each culture has its place. The participant simply switches when the situation requires it (Gao, 2001). The mean score indicates a moderate degree of change ($M = 3.27$, $SD = .470$). Table 4 shows that 21.76% of the participants chose "strongly agree" while 27.28% chose "agree." Fewer participants chose "disagree" (14.96%) and "strongly disagree" (14.32%).

4.3.4 Zero Change

Students responded to items 4, 11, 14, and 22 which referred to a lack of change in self-identity as a result of ELL. Personal changes do not occur after ELL; no matter which language or culture the participant is operating in, he or she remains the same. Language learning is not something that can change a person (Gao, 2004). Only 22.40% strongly agreed with these statements, and 17.38% agreed while 22.08% disagreed and 20.85% strongly disagreed. The mean score indicates a moderate degree of self-identity change ($M = 2.98$, $SD = .588$). One student referred to zero change in the interview and stated that even though he can speak, act, know about the language, and apply the language, it hasn't changed him very much; he continues to be who he is.

4.3.5 Subtractive Change

Subtractive change occurs when the target language and culture replaces the native language and culture; it is characterized by loss. Even if the participant should achieve near-native like speech and gestures in the L2, he or she will not be able to see the value of other cultures (Gao, 2001). Items 1, 9, 23, and 26 referred to the English language and culture replacing the Thai language and culture. Only 8.55% of responders chose to strongly agree while 18.85% chose to agree; however, 24.60% chose to disagree, and 26.00% chose to strongly disagree. The mean score indicates a

low degree of subtractive change ($M = 2.59, SD = .729$). One student identified a subtractive change in her interview; she struggles sometimes when she is speaking Thai to remember some of the Thai words. These words are easily replaced with English words. She switches from Thai to English automatically even if the situation does not warrant it.

4.3.6 Split Change

The final group of items referenced a split change; items 6, 12, 15, and 19 related to identity conflicts that can arise from the struggle between the languages and cultures. The participant may use the wrong language in a situation or might act according to the way of his or her C1 when acting according to the C2 would be more appropriate. It's a time of confusion, contradiction, and conflict as there is a struggle between two languages and two cultures. Split change might be a transitional type of change where participants may develop other types of change in the future in order to alleviate the conflict (Gao, 2004). The mean score indicates a low degree of change ($M = 2.24, SD = .664$), and only 4.03% strongly agreed while 9.50% agreed. More participants chose to disagree (33.75%) or strongly disagree (29.93%).

4.3.7 Group Comparisons

A Kruskal-Wallis H test was calculated to determine if there were statistically significant differences in self-identity changes between the four university level groups. Table 6 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test for each of the self-identity changes.

Table 9

Kruskal-Wallis H Test—Self-Identity Changes						
	Additive	Confidence	Subtractive	Productive	Split	Zero
Chi-Square	2.630	6.702	1.917	3.240	5.047	1.118
Df	3	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	.452	.082	.590	.356	.168	.773

Statistical significance was accepted at the $p < .05$ level for the omnibus test, but there were no statistically significant differences between the four university level groups and self-identity changes--additive ($H(3) = 2.630, p = .452$), confidence ($H(3) = 6.702, p = .082$), subtractive ($H(3) = 1.917, p = .590$), productive ($H(3) = 3.240, p = .356$), split ($H(3) = 5.047, p = .168$), and zero change ($H(3) = 1.118, p = .773$).

4.4 Correlation of Motivation Types and Self-Identity Changes

A Spearman's Rank Order correlation was run to determine the correlation between the motivation types and the self-identity changes of the participants. The identified regulation motivation type positively correlated with three self-identity changes—additive ($p(240) = .21, P = 0.001$), confidence ($p(241) = .24, P < 0.001$), and productive ($p(244) = .28, P < 0.001$). The other two types of extrinsic motivation, external regulation and introjected regulation also had positive correlations with self-

identity changes. External regulation positively correlated with both subtractive changes ($p(240) = .20, P = 0.002$) and productive changes ($p(240) = .22, P = 0.001$). Introjected regulation positively correlated with split changes ($p(237) = .14, P = 0.026$) and zero change ($p(233) = .20, P = 0.002$).

The intrinsic motivation subtypes had positive correlations with several self-identity changes as well. The stimulation subtype positively correlated with additive changes ($p(241) = .24, P < 0.001$), confidence changes ($p(242) = .16, P = 0.013$), and productive changes ($p(245) = .13, P = 0.042$). The knowledge subtype of intrinsic motivation positively correlated with additive changes ($p(242) = .31, P < 0.001$), confidence changes ($p(243) = .23, P < 0.001$), and productive changes ($p(246) = .35, P < 0.001$). The final subtype accomplishment positively correlated with three changes—additive ($p(242) = .22, P = 0.001$), confidence ($p(243) = .25, P < 0.001$), and productive ($p(246) = .35, P < 0.001$). In addition the lack of motivation, or amotivation, also had positive correlations with three self-identity changes—subtractive ($p(241) = .20, P = 0.002$), split ($p(238) = .36, P < 0.001$) and zero ($p(235) = .24, P < 0.001$).

Several motivation types had negative correlations with self-identity changes. Identified regulation had a negative correlation with split change ($p(241) = -.18, P = 0.006$), and zero change ($p(237) = -.19, P = 0.004$); the subtypes of intrinsic motivation stimulation and knowledge also had negative correlations with zero change ($p(238) = -.15, P = 0.017$; $p(239) = -.16, P = 0.015$).

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has detailed the results of the questionnaire identifying the motivation types and self-identity changes among the participants, the group comparisons, and the correlation between motivation types and self-identity changes. The majority of the participants identified with the motivation type identified regulation and the self-identity change in the level of their self-confidence. The statistically significant differences between group comparisons were limited to one type of motivation between freshmen and seniors. The thoughts, perceptions, and additional information gained from the interviews were also presented. The following chapter will present the summary of the results, discussions, pedagogical implications, and recommendations for future studies.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Discussion

This research identified the motivation types and reported self-identity changes among Thai students studying EFL and determined to what extent there is a relationship between the two. The participants were surveyed, and follow-up interviews were conducted. This chapter presents the summary of the results, discussions, pedagogical implications, and recommendations for future studies.

5.1 Summary of the Results

The following section summarizes the results of the study by answering the three research questions presented in Chapter One using the results of the data analysis as presented in Chapter Four.

5.1.1 Motivation Types

The first research question focused on identifying the motivation types held by the participants and determined to what extent there were differences between university level groups. The highest motivation types among Thai EFL learners was identified regulation (mean = 4.67). The next three highest motivation types were all subtypes of intrinsic motivation: intrinsic motivation for stimulation (mean = 4.37); intrinsic motivation for knowledge (mean = 4.27), and intrinsic motivation for accomplishment (mean = 4.23). The remaining identified motivation types were external regulation (mean = 4.16) and introjected regulation (mean = 3.45), and amotivation had the lowest mean score of 1.46 which indicated few responders were not motivated in their ELL. In response to comparisons among groups, there was a statistically significant difference between freshmen and seniors in introjected regulation. There were no statistically significant differences between the groups in identified regulation, intrinsic motivation for stimulation, knowledge, or accomplishment, external regulation, or amotivation.

5.1.2 Self-Identity Changes

The second research question focused on the reported self-identity changes of the participants. The results revealed that Thai EFL students mostly changed in self-confidence (mean = 3.85) followed by productive change (mean = 3.79), additive change (mean = 3.27), zero change (mean = 2.98), and subtractive change (mean = 2.59), and the lowest level of change was split change (mean = 2.24). In response to comparisons between the groups of learners, there were no statistically significant differences in self-identity changes.

5.1.3 Correlation of Motivation Types and Self-Identity Changes

The final research question sought to determine to what extent there were correlations between motivation types and self-identity changes. All three extrinsic motivation types positively correlated with self-identity changes. Identified regulation positively correlated with additive, confidence, and productive changes while external regulation positively correlated with subtractive and productive changes; internal regulation positively correlated with split and zero change. In addition the subtypes of intrinsic motivation had positive correlations with self-identity changes. The subtypes of stimulation, knowledge, and accomplishment all positively correlated with additive, confidence, and productive self-identity changes. Finally, amotivation had positive correlations with subtractive and zero self-identity changes.

Several motivation types had negative correlations with self-identity changes as well. Identified regulation had a negative correlation with split change while the stimulation and knowledge subtypes of intrinsic motivation had negative correlations with zero change.

5.2 Discussion

The results concerning motivation types found in the current study were quite similar to Noels' study (2001a). The university students studying English in Thailand and the California university students studying Spanish in the United States both had the highest mean scores for identified regulation which is the most self-determined subtype of extrinsic motivation. Students who learn English because of identified regulation do so because they understand the behavioral goal has value and is good at the personal level. They personally choose to accept the values and participate. In the interview, the Thai students who identified this type of motivation valued communication and viewed English as the language that would allow them to communicate with the world or at least with people from the ASEAN.

The two contexts of second language learning in these studies are very similar even though the languages involved are different. Spanish is learned as a foreign language in the U.S. even though Spanish language skills can be beneficial in finding a job or interacting with the Spanish-speaking community. There is no official status for Spanish as a second language although many students study it in primary and secondary school in order to fulfill the foreign language credit. In Thailand English is learned for many of the same reasons and under the same conditions.

In the current research identified regulation was followed by intrinsic motivation and then external regulation while the American students chose external regulation followed by intrinsic motivation. Perhaps this difference in identification with intrinsic motivation is because of the chosen majors of the students. Spanish may have a more immediate effect on the lives of the students in California in terms of completing their university degree, and although they may have had a choice in what foreign language to take, they may have chosen Spanish just to fulfill the degree requirements. On the other hand, the Thai university students were English majors and were not required to take English classes in fulfillment of another degree plan. This is in contrast to Taejaroenkul (2006) who found that the majority of Thai students who were enrolled in a general English course identified different subtypes of extrinsic motivation as the most important.

In addition Thai students may have had higher intrinsic motivation because of the place English has in globalization. Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) write that a central

idea in the study of language globalization is that the promotion of English also causes a diminishment of other languages. This might explain how students could be intrinsically motivated to learn English as a foreign language in Thailand to a greater extent than students studying Spanish as a foreign language in the United States.

Noels (2001a) found a correlation between the integrative orientation and intrinsic motivation and the self-determined motivation type of identified regulation. Correlating these terms allows for comparison with this research and others who researched the integrative and instrumental orientations dichotomy. Most of the participants in this study had an integrative orientation as the top four reported motivation types were identified regulation and the three subtypes of intrinsic motivation, and these results correspond with the results from Degang's 2010 survey of Thai students majoring in business English. In contrast, other studies in Asia found that students who studied in an EFL setting and were not majoring in English were not integratively motivated (Liu, 2007; Warden & Lin, 2000).

Both Liu (2007) in China and Warden and Lin (2000) in Taiwan found instrumentally motivated groups which would correlate with the less self-determined types of extrinsic motivation and did not find integratively motivated groups; however, the present study found the majority of participants in this study were integratively motivated identifying with both intrinsic motivation and identified regulation. Dai (2009) and Gao et al. (2005) reference the limited contact English students in Taiwan and China have with the L2 community, but the interviewed Thai students in this research spoke about the numerous opportunities they have at the university campus to interact with Americans and others from the ASEAN community. Perhaps it is the interaction with the L2 community that caused the difference in motivation types between the Thai students and their counterparts who are also studying English in an EFL context.

In terms of self-identity changes, the current study found that self-confidence change was the highest rated self-identity change which was also the highest rated change in China and Taiwan (Gao et al., 2005; Dai, 2009); however, in China and Taiwan the second-highest rated identity change was zero change. In Thailand the next highest reported change was productive change. Dai (2009) writes that perhaps Taiwanese students experience zero change because they see ELL as fulfilling a requirement with little contact with the L2 community whereas the students in Thailand reported in the interviews that they valued the contact they have with the L2 community as they meet and work with the international students on the university campus. Students reported in the interviews that communicating in the classroom and outside of the classroom with foreigners has shown them that they are able to successfully use English to communicate. They have been able to express their opinions in English and have become more confident when talking to foreigners.

The studies in Taiwan and China (Dai, 2009; Gao et al., 2005) along with this current study identified groups who experienced productive changes which indicates that there are students who value their C1 and L1 more after learning the L2 and C2 and that this can be accomplished in EFL contexts. Thai students revealed in their interviews that ELL had expanded their worldviews and caused them to learn about the cultures of their English speaking friends. However, this did not cause them to lose respect for their own Thai culture. As they learn more about the cultures of their foreign friends, they also become more talkative and share the Thai culture with their friends.

The correlations between motivation types and self-identity changes differed slightly between this study and Boonchum's (2009a) study in Thailand. Although

both studies were conducted among university students in Thailand, the correlations between motivation types and self-identity changes were slightly different. This study identified positive correlations between intrinsic motivation and self-confidence, productive, and additive changes while Boonchum's (2009a) study found positive correlations between intrinsic motivation and additive, productive, subtractive, and split identity changes. In addition Boonchum's study found positive correlations between extrinsic motivation and self-confidence, additive, productive, subtractive, and split changes, and this study found positive correlations between the subtypes of extrinsic motivation and all six self-identity changes. Again the context of the studies is different. Boonchum's study was conducted at Thammasat University and Naresuan University while this research was conducted in Northern Thailand at a private university. The universities differ in structure where Thammasat University pairs new international students with a Thai English-speaking student to be a helper in learning about Thai culture, and the university in this study pairs the Thai English-speaking student to be roommates with the international student at the international dormitory ("About Us," 2010; "Student Life," 2011). The focus on sharing culture as two live together could produce more long-term self-identity changes than intermittent meetings scheduled throughout the semester between two university students who might not have much free time. Since the questionnaires in this study were administered at the end of the semester, students have spent much time together during the semester and have adjusted accordingly. The correlations between split and subtractive with the intrinsic motivation types may be temporary; a transition into the additive or productive changes could occur as they spend more time with the international students on campus.

5.3 Implications of the Study

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) write that because motivation is an important factor in learning success, "skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness" (p. 207), but much of the research has paired motivation types with linguistic outcomes. Based upon the results of this study, nonlinguistic outcomes deserve attention as well since there are correlations between motivation types and self-identity changes. Suggestions will be submitted for practical use in the language classroom so that motivation can be monitored, developed, and perhaps channeled in different directions in order to meet nonlinguistic ELL objectives.

After the teacher is aware of the students' current motivation types, steps can be taken to reinforce and strengthen the motivation types which correlate with the additive, confidence, or productive self-identity changes or to encourage students to create new goals as teachers encourage them to expand their goals for ELL. For example, if the students are motivated by their desire to communicate with the world as in this study, teachers can give them opportunities to do that through setting up pen-pal programs or by bringing in English-speaking guest speakers. Through experience and personally relevant activities, students will internalize more of the benefits of ELL and will become more self-determined in their motivation type ultimately leading to intrinsic types of motivation; increased motivation occurs simultaneously with learners becoming autonomous. In addition teachers can encourage goal-setting focusing on long-term goals to encourage intrinsic motivation rather than the often short-term goals associated with extrinsic motivation such as earning more money or getting a better job. Students should be encouraged to set realistic personal goals for their learning (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

In addition to addressing motivation in the classroom, teachers can also affect self-identity changes. The highest rated change was confidence change. Four students noted this type of change in their interviews with one student reporting this was a result of his professors. In class he noted his professor gave him an opportunity to express his opinions, and he learned he could successfully do that. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) suggest that teachers should focus on increasing the learners' linguistic self-confidence. This can be accomplished by giving positive feedback, giving the learners opportunities to be successful, encouraging learners, and allowing mistakes since they are a natural part of learning. Teachers must realize that self-confidence is not directly related to an actual level of competence but a perceived level of confidence; therefore, what the learners think they can do or accomplish will affect outcomes.

The last pedagogical implication addresses culture in the classroom. Learners should be familiar with the target language culture. Teachers can introduce learners to authentic materials, native English-speakers, the cultural background of the L2, and devise a pen-pal program for the learners (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). However, in order to promote productive self-identity changes, efforts should be made to strengthen learners' intrinsic motivation and enlarge their understanding and appreciation of their C1 and L1 while simultaneously developing their C2 and L2. Giving them opportunities to share about their own culture, beliefs, and values in English will bring about productive changes which will also improve their self-confidence. The results of this study identified a group who experience productive self-identity changes even in an EFL setting, and a proper integration of intrinsic motivation and positive attitudes about the C1 and C2 as well as the L1 and L2 will lead to more productive changes.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Studies

The current study was conducted in a private university in Northern Thailand; therefore, it was limited to mostly middle class students. Future studies that would include a larger cross-section of people groups are recommended as well as a larger sample size that would not be limited to English major students. This would enable researchers to find out if there is a group who has learned English not necessarily by choice but in fulfillment of a degree yet experienced productive self-identity changes.

When determining motivation types for this study, many students seemed to identify and hold to more than one motivation type. Cluster analysis could be used to identify certain subgroups within the sample. These subgroups would consist of participants who share similar characteristics. This would give more insight because although there are a large number of factors that influence L2 learning, "within a community of L2 learners there appear to be a smaller number of distinct sub communities who share similar cognitive and motivational patterns" (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 615).

Qualitative studies carried out over an extended period of time might also prove useful for discovering more about various aspects of motivation and self-identity changes. The current study considered the temporal aspect of motivation by comparing responses of different university levels, but it showed only one statistically significant difference among freshmen and seniors in one motivation type. Rather than using a questionnaire which gathers responses at one point in time, journal entries from students or multiple interviews with students might yield more insight as to whether their motivation types remain constant or vary day to day.

Finally, a comparative case study might also be used to determine other factors affecting self-identity changes. For example, some universities pair Thai students and international students together as roommates. Some university students have interaction with the international students, but it isn't consistent. Determining what kinds of self-identity changes these students experience in relation to how much time is spent with the L2 community will help determine if contact is necessary in order to experience positive self-identity changes and will further explore the results from previous quantitative research.

5.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a summary of the results from this study including their motivation types, self-identity changes, and the correlations between the two. The results were discussed and compared with other studies, and pedagogical implications were explored. Finally, recommendations for future studies were given to continue and expand motivation and self-identity change research.

REFERENCES

- About Us. (2010). Office of international affairs. Retrieved from <http://interaffairs.tu.ac.th/about.html>.
- Ahuja, A. (2011, May 30). Analysis: As Thais vote, a struggle with education. Reuters. Retrieved January 5, 2012 from <http://www.reuters.com/article/2011/05/30/us-thailand-education-idUSTRE74T0NV20110530>
- Boonchum, P. (2009a). A study of self-identity changes and correlation of influential factors of Thai students studying English. *Educational Research and Review*, 4(11), 535-548.
- Boonchum, P. (2009b). *A study of self-identity changes of Thai students studying English at the Faculty of Humanities, Naresuan University and the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University* (Master's thesis). Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Central Intelligence Agency. *The World Factbook education expenditures* [Data file]. Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2206rank.html>.
- Chihara, T. & Oller, John W. 1978. Attitudes and attained proficiency in EFL: A sociolinguistic study of adult Japanese speakers. *Language Learning*, 28(1), 55-68.
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44, 417-448.
- Clément, R. & Kruidenier, B.G., (1983). Orientations in second language acquisition: 1. The effects of ethnicity, milieu, and target language on their emergence. *Language Learning*, 33(3), 273-291.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Csizér, K. & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 55(4), 613-659.

- Dai, M. H. (2009). Relationships between language learning motivation, language proficiency and self-identity changes in EFL learning contexts. *Journal of Applied English*, 2, 121-137.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York, NY: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (2004). *Handbook of Self-Determination Research*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Degang, M. (2010). *Motivation toward English language learning of the second year undergraduate Thai students majoring in business English at an English-medium university* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from http://thesis.swu.ac.th/swuthesis/Bus_Eng_Int_Com/Manusak_D.pdf
- Dickinson, L. (1995). Autonomy and motivation: A literature review. *System*, 23(2), 165-174.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2000). Motivation in action: Towards a process-oriented conceptualization of student motivation. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70, 519-538.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow: Longman.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research*, 2, 203-229.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K. (2002). Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics*, 23(4), 421-462.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ottó, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics (Thames Valley University, London)*, 4, 43-69.
- Education First. (2011). EF EPI English proficiency index. Retrieved from www.ef.co.th/sitecore/~/media/efcom/epi/pdf/EF-EPI-2011.pdf
- Gao, Y. (2001). *Foreign language learning: 1 + 1 > 2* (Doctoral dissertation). Beijing University, Beijing, China.
- Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2004) Relationship between English learning motivation types and self-identity changes: A quantitative study on

Chinese university students. Retrieved from
www.readingmatrix.com/conference/pp/proceedings/yihong.pdf

- Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2005). Self-identity changes and English learning among Chinese undergraduates. *World Englishes*, 24, 39-51.
- Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2007). Relationship between English learning motivation types and self-identity changes among Chinese students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(1), 133-155.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London, GB: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R.C. (1991). Attitudes and motivation in second language learning. In A. G. Reynolds and L. Erlbaum (Eds.), *Bilingualism, multiculturalism, and second language learning* (43-63). Hillsdale: Associates, Inc.
- Gardner, R C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language learning. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 1-20). Honolulu: University of Hawaii press.
- Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-educational model*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Gardner, R. C. & Tremblay, P. F. (1994). On motivation: Measurement and conceptual considerations. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(iv), 524-527.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the Mind*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill USA.
- Khamkhien, A. (2010). Factors affecting language learning strategy reported usage by Thai and Vietnamese EFL learners. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 7(1): 66-85.
- Koul, R., Roy, L., Kaewkuekool, S., & Ploisawaschai, S. (2009). Multiple goal orientations and foreign language anxiety. *System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics*, 37(4), 676-688.
- Liu, M. (2007). Chinese students' motivation to learn English at the tertiary level. *Asian EFL Journal*, 9(1). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/March_07_ml.php/
- Lukmani, Y. (1972), Motivation to learn and language proficiency. *Language Learning*, 22(2), 261-73.
- Noels, K. A. (2001a). Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication style. *Language Learning*, 51(1), 107-144.

- Noels, K. A. (2001b). *New orientations in language learning motivation: Towards a model of intrinsic, extrinsic and integrative orientations*. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.) *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 43-68). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Centre.
- Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 50(1), 57-85.
- Oller, J.W., Jr., Hudson, A. J., & Liu, P.F. (1977). Attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL: A sociolinguistic study of native speakers of Chinese in the United States. *Language Learning* 27(1), 1-23.
- Oxford, R. L. (1996). New pathways of language learning motivation. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (pp. 1-8). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 25, 54-67.
- Student Life. (2011). About Payap. Retrieved from <http://ic.payap.ac.th/university/student-life.php>.
- Taejaroenkul, S. (2006). *Learning orientations and motivation among EFL undergraduate students in Thailand* (Master's thesis). Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand.
- Vallerand, R. J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 271-360). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Vallerand, R. J. & Ratelle, C. F. (2004). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: A hierarchical Model. In E. Deci and R. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (37-63). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Warden, C. A., & Lin, H. J. (2000). Existence of integrative motivation in an Asian EFL setting. *Foreign Language Annals*, (33)5, 535-545.
- Wiriyachitra, A. (2002). English language teaching and learning in Thailand in this decade. *Thai TESOL Focus*, 15(1), 4-9.
- Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2009). *Research methods in education*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire No. _____

QUESTIONNAIRE

English Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire

Your participation in this survey will help others in the field of English language learning. Your response is completely confidential and will not affect your grade in any way. Thank you for your help, cooperation, and time.

This questionnaire has three sections.

Part 1: Personal information (Please write your answer in the blank provided.)

1. Gender: _____ Age: _____ University year: _____
2. How many years have you studied English? _____
3. What age did you start studying English? _____
4. Do you have any foreign friends? _____

Part 2: The following section asks for the reasons you are learning English. Please circle the number in the column that best matches your response.

5	=	Strongly Agree	4	=	Agree
3	=	Uncertain	2	=	Disagree
1	=	Strongly disagree			

Reasons for Studying English	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Honestly, I don't know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time studying English.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak a foreign language such as English.	5	4	3	2	1
3. In order to have a better salary later on.	5	4	3	2	1

4. For the "high" I feel when hearing English spoken	5	4	3	2	1
5. I cannot come to see why I study English, and frankly, I don't care.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Because I think it is good for my personal development.	5	4	3	2	1
8. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in English.	5	4	3	2	1
9. For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about the literature of the English language group.	5	4	3	2	1
10. For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the English speaking community in their native tongue.	5	4	3	2	1
12. For the pleasure I get from hearing English spoken by native English speakers.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.	5	4	3	2	1
14. For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my English studies.	5	4	3	2	1
15. For the "high" feeling that I experience while speaking English.	5	4	3	2	1
16. In order to get a more prestigious job later on.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying English.	5	4	3	2	1
18. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know English.	5	4	3	2	1
19. Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the English	5	4	3	2	1

language community and their way of life.					
20. For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in English.	5	4	3	2	1

Part 3: The following section will ask you about how you see yourself as a result of your English language learning. Please circle the number in the column that best matches your response.

Self-identity Changes	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. After learning English, I feel my behaviors have become somewhat westernized. For example, I say 'Hello/Hi' instead of 'Sawaddee' on the phone or greeting friends and say 'Thank you' instead of 'Khob-khun'.	5	4	3	2	1
2. After learning English, I have become more understanding and can better communicate with others in various cultures and languages not only Thai or English but also other languages.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I can express my opinion in public easily and confidently.	5	4	3	2	1
4. For me, it is meaningless to talk about personal changes after learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
5. English learning makes me speak English with foreigners confidently and comfortably.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I feel a painful split when I switch between English and Thai behavioral patterns such as when meeting a Thai teacher I should "wai," but when I meet a foreign teacher I can simply say "hello."	5	4	3	2	1
7. I have the ability to do things and make decisions by myself, without needing other	5	4	3	2	1

people to help me.					
8. While I am talking to my Thai friends and a foreign teacher participates in our talking, I can switch easily between Thai and English according to the situation.	5	4	3	2	1
9. After learning English, I feel repugnant about some Thai conventions. For example, I think that Thai people can hold the hand of a man/woman openly anywhere.	5	4	3	2	1
10. With the improvement of my English proficiency, I can appreciate better the subtleties in Thai. For example, when I study European or American history, I am more proud of Thai history.	5	4	3	2	1
11. I have not felt any change in myself after learning English; an instrument is an instrument.	5	4	3	2	1
12. After learning English, I am often caught between contradicting values and beliefs. For example, Thai children should not argue with their parents about the reason in any situation, on the other hand, a child with western values can do it if he/she wants.	5	4	3	2	1
13. After learning English, I find myself more sensitive to changes in the outside world. For example, when I read or know English news about global warming, I feel more aware of the preservation of the environment.	5	4	3	2	1
14. It is impossible for me to change into another person after learning a language.	5	4	3	2	1
15. When parting with foreign friends, I'm frequently confused as to	5	4	3	2	1

whether I should shake hands or hug and kiss.					
16. I prefer to listen to the original English dialogue when watching English movies, just as I enjoy the original Thai dialogue when watching Thai movies.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I have privacy. I can be in a place or situation which allows me to do things without other people disturbing me.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I am relatively confident when speaking in English, and relatively modest when speaking in Thai.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I feel strange when my speech in Thai is mixed with English words. For example, I usually say 'O.K.' mixed with Thai speaking subconsciously.	5	4	3	2	1
20. I think that punctuality is important. If I have an appointment with other people, I am always very punctual.	5	4	3	2	1
21. I can accept someone's suggestion or comment without feeling sad.	5	4	3	2	1
22. No matter which language is used for expression, I remain myself.	5	4	3	2	1
23. After learning English, I have begun to reject some traditional Thai ideas such as we should behave in the same way as our parents because of what they have experienced. However, I think that I can do it in my own way.	5	4	3	2	1
24. When I chat with my foreign friends on the phone or internet, I usually use an English name in addition to my Thai name.	5	4	3	2	1
25. As my ability in appreciating the English					

language and literature and art increases, I have become more interested in Thai literature and art.	5	4	3	2	1
26. With the improvement of my English proficiency, I feel my Thai is becoming less idiomatic such as making a sound like ‘/s/, /sh/, /th/’ in Thai words unconsciously.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is your most important reason for studying English?
2. Why did you study English in elementary/secondary school? When did your reason change?
3. Since you began studying at Payap, has your reason for studying English changed?
4. Has learning English changed you?
If yes, can you give me an example?
If no, why not?
5. Do you think you can successfully learn English and not change?

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT SAMPLE

- I: OK, question number 1. What is your most important reason for studying English?
S: Uh, the important, right?
I: yes
S: Important reason, right?
I: yes
S: Um, I think English, uh is the language we can use for communication to other people and I can use this skill to apply for a job. And um, yeah, it's like the chance if I know the English I have more chance than other people.
I: OK. Good job. Question number 2—Why did you study English in prathom or mathayom school?
S: In, uh, again please?
I: Why did you study English in prathom, mathayom school?
S: Oh. Why I study since prathom 2 right?
I: Yes
S: Because the, like a, core curriculum of Thai government they provide the, I don't know what it's called in English. They provide English to be the subject that we have to study since prathom until mathayom 6. And now we like include in the university too.
I: So when did it change from you have to study to you want to study in order to communicate, get a good job?
S: I think in the university I have a change to choose what I want to study. Did I answer your question?
I: Yes, yes, I just have a couple more. Number 3. Since you began studying at Payap, has your reason for studying changed?
S: Pardon?
I: Since you started studying English, or started studying at Payap has your reason for studying English changed?
S: Mmm... Actually I study in English major. Yea, and I everyday and every time they teach me in English.
I: Mmhmm... So when you started at Payap, you chose English to communicate and get a good job?
S: Yes, when I study in English class the teacher give me a chance to like a give my opinion in English. So that is the chance that I have to use English oftly (unclear word).
I: OK. Question number 4—has learning English changed you?
S: Yes, I think English is changed me because last summer I have chance to join the work and travel program in America. And if I don't know English, I can't communicate to other people. And I know English so it can me like a mm..confident to communicate with the foreigner.
I: Where did you go in America?

S: Uh, last summer March until June.

I: Oh, where?

S: In North Dakota. You know?

I: Oh. I have never been to North Dakota.

S: Yea, it's like a cold and not like New York.

I: Did you see snow?

S: Hu? Yea, yea. I made snow in South Dakota.

I: Oh, wow. OK, last question. Do you think you can successfully learn English and not change?

S: Mmm, I'm not quite clear with this question.

I: Do you think that you can learn English well? And not change?

S: Yes, I think after I came back from America, I think I can successful in study English but before I go to America I, my English is very poor. And sometime I'm shy to show my opinion in the classroom.

I: Oh.

S: And yes like go to America give me a chance and improve my confidence to speak English

RESUME

Name: Susan Teer
Date of Birth: 24 July 1976
Place of Birth: United States of America
Institutions Attended: 1999 BA English Texas A&M University – Texarkana
2013 MA TESOL Payap University
E-mail: khruususan@gmail.com