

**AN EXPLORATION OF THE INTERACTION BETWEEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE
LEARNING ORIENTATION AND MOTIVATION AMONG MARKETING
STUDENTS AT AN FET COLLEGE**

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DECLARATION

I, Ericha Cosburn, have read and understood the University's policy on plagiarism. This is my own work and, where I have drawn on the work of others, I have referenced appropriately. This work has not been submitted to fulfill the requirements of a degree at any other university.

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ABSTRACT

Student motivation in FET colleges in South Africa is generally considered to be under-researched. Seyfried (1998, p. 54) contends that “motivations of participants still receive too little attention in the planning of vocational programmes”. In an attempt to explore how motivational variables interact with English language learning, this mixed-method study focused on FET marketing students studying English as part of their three-year vocational qualification.

In the first phase, three focus group discussions were conducted with students from the three levels in the programme – a total of 16 students. These interviews were transcribed and coded according to a theoretical model that was adapted from Dörnyei's Extended Framework of Motivation (1998). In the second phase, 195 questionnaires were distributed, of which 142 were used in the final analysis. The results of these were indexed according to the theoretical model. Initial data processing enabled the creation of two analytical models for use in data analysis – one to analyse focus group data and the other to analyse questionnaire data.

The study found a link between instrumentality, integrativeness, identity and perceived motivational orientations. It was also clear that orientation did not automatically translate into motivation. Another link was found between self-worth, self-efficacy and goal orientation. Perceived L2 competence, self-concept and identity also interacted strongly: participants who saw themselves as most alienated from their culture, also saw themselves as more competent in the L2, than their peers who identified more closely with their own culture. A predictable link was found between linguistic self-confidence, willingness to communicate [WTC] and language use anxiety. What made this finding interesting was that participants seemed to fear being judged by native English speakers to a greater extent than being judged by their peers. Finally some factors emerged as detracting from motivation, while others played a

contributing role. While this is to be expected, it was interesting to note which factors fell into which category.

Keywords: motivation, orientation, instrumentality, integrativeness, identity, self-worth, self-efficacy, goal orientation, perceived L2 competence, self-concept, self-confidence, willingness to communicate [WTC], language use anxiety

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of individual differences has been proposed to account for why some students are more successful at acquiring a second language than others (Dörnyei, 2006). Ellis (1994) identifies what he terms 'general factors' of individual differences which include intelligence, aptitude, learning styles and motivation. Thus motivation is one of the factors that play a role in defining the concept of individual differences. Motivation has been identified as one of the single most important factors in language learning success (McDonough, 1983). Campbell and Storch (2011, p.166) assert that “motivation is considered a crucial individual difference variable in determining long-term second language (L2) success”, to the extent that it supersedes language aptitude as a predictor of success (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). This makes it a particularly important aspect of language learning.

Two branches of the social sciences converge to form a broad framework for the study of language learning motivation. A socio-educational view of motivation pre-dates the more recent influences from mainstream psychology on the understanding of language learning motivation. Both of these approaches or conceptions of motivation have been included in this study.

This chapter will firstly provide the context of the research, followed by the rationale for the study. Thereafter the research goals are introduced. Finally an overview of the structure of the thesis is presented.

1.1 CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges are a relatively new phenomenon in South Africa. Although Technical Colleges have been operational in the country since the early 20th century (Gamble, 2003), it was only in 1998 that these technical colleges merged into 50 more streamlined and accessible multi-site FET colleges (Department of Education, 1998). In the Eastern Cape, 26 Technical Colleges merged to form 8 FET Colleges (Fischer, Jaff, Powell & Hall, 2003).

These changes in structure were accompanied by a change in curriculum. The traditional NATED or N courses were scheduled to be phased out and replaced with National Certificates (Vocational) courses at the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) levels 2 – 4 (FET Round Table, 2010). The rationale for this change was to address issues of poor quality and lack of relevance of the N programmes, as well as the complaint from industry that FET graduates display low technical and cognitive skills (FET Round Table, 2010).

With the introduction of the NC(V) in 2007, came the introduction of 3 fundamental subjects: Language, Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy and Life Orientation. Most colleges introduced English First Additional Language as their language of choice (FET Round Table, 2010). While

language instruction has long been the norm in European colleges, it is new to the South African FET landscape (Gamble, 2003). Duncan (2009 in FET Round Table, 2010), asserts that the introduction of fundamentals may better prepare students for the workplace. Sultana (1997 in Gamble, 2003) points out that communicative competence is held in higher regard by employers than specific technical skills. Thus the introduction of fundamentals, especially literacy and numeracy should lead to improved cognition among new FET graduates. Literacy acquisition is essential for the development of writing skills, which, as Webb (1999 in Gamble, 2003) points out, has a strong correlation with abstract thinking.

In practice, however, achievement among FET students has not lived up to expectations. The Systemic Audit Report published by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA, 2010), asserts that the percentage of students who passed all seven NC(V) subjects in 2009, at the two top-performing FET colleges in the Eastern Cape, is 27%.

The specific FET college selected for this study is an urban college comprising three main campuses and three secondary sites. One division was approached for permission to conduct the study, namely the Business Studies Division at one of the campuses. The total number of students in this division is 822. The division offers three programmes, namely Marketing, ICT and Finance. Students enrolled for the marketing programme were identified as being of interest due to their particularly poor class attendance. There are a total of 277 students enrolled for this programme: 119 in level 2, 75 in level 3 and 83 in level 4. Of the participants in the study, 54% indicated that their first choice of study field was marketing. Not all of these participants wanted to study at an FET college, however: only 37% indicated that NC(V) was their first choice.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Firstly, the lack of qualitative research in FET colleges served as an impetus to engage in this study. According to the *Report on the Research on FET Colleges in South Africa*, conducted by the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Wedekind, 2008, p.5), “[t]he research on FET colleges...and vocational education in South Africa is produced by a relatively small group of researchers and is comparatively underdeveloped”. The report highlights studies that have been done in the field of FET colleges and which include studies on student achievement, student support systems, dealing with disability and evaluations, among others. Most of these are large survey-type studies focusing on producing statistical information about the FET sector, like the Systemic Audit Report (SAQA, 2010). This indicates that there is a need for small-scale qualitative studies that explore stakeholders’ beliefs, perceptions, cognitions and behaviours. Seyfried (1998) concurs by asserting that data rarely relates to participant motivation, even though the literature points to participant motivation as an essential condition for learning achievement.

Secondly, the notion that motivation is a dynamic and interactive process (Dörnyei, 2003) stimulated the creation of a theoretical model adapted from Dörnyei's Extended Framework (1998), which attempts to display these characteristics. Kormos, Kiddle and Csizér (2011) point out that some of the models proposed to represent language learning motivation merely identify the components and that only a few studies attempt to investigate the interaction between motivational constructs. Therefore the theoretical framework was used to create analytical frameworks that attempt to show how motivational constructs interact in the context of the study.

This study aims to provide insights into the language learning experiences of marketing students at FET colleges in the Eastern Cape. It attempts to create a model of motivation that can aid understanding of how these motivational factors interact in the specific context of the study.

Thirdly, the poor performance and class attendance records of NC(V) Marketing students fostered the belief that a study of student motivation may contribute to understanding the situation. Thus understanding motivation in the FET language learning context forms the basis of this study.

1.3 RESEARCH GOALS

The aim of this study is to understand the interaction between English language learning and student perceptions of their motivational orientations among marketing students at an FET college.

The research questions are:

- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the language level?
- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the programme level?
- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the classroom level?
- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the individual level?
- How do these factors interact?

To explore these questions, two instruments were designed, namely a questionnaire and semi-structured focus group interviews. Students from all three levels (2 – 4) participated in the study.

1.4 ORGANISATION OF THESIS

The thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the study and includes the context, rationale and research goals.

Chapter 2 consists of a review of the literature. After the introduction, which deals with the theoretical framework and its origins, follows a historical overview of motivation in English Second Language (ESL) and English Language Teaching (ELT). Then the theoretical framework is discussed in detail with reference to the relevant literature. The theoretical framework consists of four levels according to which motivational factors have been organised: the language level, the

programme level, the classroom level and the individual level.

Chapter 3 discusses the methodology of the study and describes the methods employed in the collection and analysis of data. Firstly the research questions are discussed. This is followed by an overview of the research design. Thereafter, the nature of a case study and the site selection process is described. Next follows a discussion of mixed methods in research, with reference to qualitative and quantitative research, followed by the rationale for combining these two paradigms for this specific study. Then the data collection process is described, which includes the design of data collection instruments, pilot studies and sampling decisions. This is followed by a discussion of the ethical considerations taken into account in conducting the study and the measures employed to ensure reliability and validity. Finally the data analysis process is outlined and described.

Chapter 4 presents and analyses the data collected for this study. The presentation section is divided according to the two data collection tools namely focus group discussions and questionnaires as well as the four levels of motivation used as the framework of this study. The analysis section explains the data, comparing and contrasting results to make sense of students' perceptions regarding their motivation in relation to their language learning experiences at college. The analysis section, like the presentation section, has been divided into two parts: one for the analysis of focus group discussion data and the other for the analysis of questionnaire data, and subdivided according to the four levels of the framework.

Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the findings from the study, based on the prominent themes as they emerged from the data. The data are synthesised to provide a holistic view of participants' perceptions. Secondly the original goals of the study are reviewed to determine the extent to which they have been reached. Thirdly, the shortcomings of the study are identified and discussed. Finally, the contribution of the study to the existing body of knowledge is considered and further avenues of research suggested.

1.5 SUMMARY

This chapter described the context of the study; provided a rationale for the study; discussed the research goals and questions that the study aims to address and provided an outline for the organisation of the thesis.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews a selection of motivation theories from the 1930s to the present day. Therefore a brief historical overview of motivation in English Language Teaching (ELT) and English Second Language (ESL) is presented first, in order to situate the present study in its historical context. This is followed by an overview of the literature based on the theoretical framework that has been designed specifically for this study. Lastly, previous motivation studies carried out in South Africa are considered.

The literature reviewed in this chapter was selected for inclusion based on a theoretical model adapted by the researcher from Dörnyei's 'Extended Framework of Motivation' (1998).

The original model consists of three levels: language level, learner level and learning situation level as set out in Table 2.1 below.

Language Level	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
Learner Level	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language Use Anxiety • Perceived L2 Competence • Causal Attributions • Self-Efficacy
Learning Situation Level	<p><i>Course-Specific Motivational Components</i></p> <p>Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction</p> <p><i>Teacher-Specific Motivational Components</i></p> <p>Affiliative Motive Authority Type Direct Socialisation of Motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Task Presentation • Feedback </p> <p><i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i></p> <p>Goal-Orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure</p>

Table 2.1: Components of foreign language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 280 in Dörnyei, 1998, p.125)

Since the Dörnyei (1998) model was intended to explain voluntary foreign language learning, and the context under investigation in this study was that of compulsory second language learning, some

changes were made to improve the usefulness of the model to the specific context. The following adaptation was used to explore student perceptions of their motivational orientations towards learning English as an additional language in an FET College context.

In this adapted model, four levels were identified as having a possible impact on student perceptions of their own motivational orientations: language level, programme level, classroom level and individual level, as set out in Table 2.2 below.

Language level	Attitude Integrative orientation Instrumental orientation	Self-concept <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L2 possible selves Identity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acculturation • Culture and personal identity • Individualism vs. collectivism • Social identity • Intergroup model • Ethnolinguistic vitality • Group boundaries • Multiple group membership
Programme level	Course-specific factors	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
Classroom level	Lecturer-specific factors Group-specific factors	Affiliative drive Authority type Direct socialisation of motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Task presentation • Feedback Goal orientedness Group cohesion Classroom goal structure Norm and reward system
Individual level	Self-determination theory Expectancy-value theory <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The value placed on the completion of a task • The expectation of task completion 	Intrinsic motivation Extrinsic motivation Autonomy Amotivation Attainment value Cost Intrinsic value Extrinsic utility value Self-worth Self-efficacy Attribution Linguistic self-confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Willingness to communicate

	Achievement theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived L2 competence • Language use anxiety
	Goal theory	Fear of failure Desire to succeed Goal setting Goal orientation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mastery • Performance

Table 2.2: Adapted model of Dörnyei's (1998) 'Extended Framework of Motivation'

2.2 MOTIVATION IN ESL AND ELT

The study of motivation seeks to identify reasons for people's thoughts and actions. According to Graham and Weiner (1996, p.63) "[m]otivation is the study of why people think and behave as they do".

The scientific study of motivation originated around the 1930s (Graham & Weiner, 1996) and has evolved through a constant reconceptualising of constructs. The initial mechanistic view, prevalent during 1930 – 1960, mainly focused on the impact of the environment (Graham & Weiner, 1996). With the advent of the cognitive motivational approaches in the 1960s, the focus shifted to individual characteristics as driving forces in motivation (Graham & Weiner, 1996). The 1980s brought about a shift from broad, sweeping theories to focus on smaller, more specific aspects of motivation (Graham & Weiner, 1996). Educational psychologists have borrowed from mainstream psychology to formulate theories of motivation in education and language learning. This has revolutionised the approach to educational motivation in general, and second language learning motivation in particular.

"Second language motivation is an eclectic, multifaceted construct" (Dörnyei, 1994, p.279), which can be defined as the "dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and successfully or unsuccessfully acted out" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p.64). Motivation has alternatively been described as the "drive behind human behaviour" (Hollyforde & Whiddet, 2002, p.3), and the "internal processes that activate, guide and maintain behaviour" (Barron, 1991, p.2).

Gardner (1985) defines L2 motivation as the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity. He conceptualised motivation as comprising the following components: motivational intensity; desire to learn the language; attitude towards the act of learning the language. Motivation is thus conceptualised as a "central mental engine or energy centre that subsumes effort, want/will (cognition) and task enjoyment (affect)" (Dörnyei, 1998, p.122). The truly motivated student will

possess all three of these characteristics.

This relationship between motivation and attitude is key to Gardner and Lambert's (1972) conceptualisation of the motivation construct. They assert that student motivation is determined, not only by students' attitudes towards the target language speakers, but also by their orientation towards the actual learning task. Lifrieri (2005) concurs with this view that attitude, although necessary, is insufficient and needs to be considered in conjunction with motivation in order to determine student engagement with tasks and attainment.

Many researchers consider motivation to be one of the main determinants of L2 language achievement (Dörnyei, 1994; 1998; McDonough, 1983; Ellis, 1994). Dörnyei (1994) maintains that motivation is the primary impetus that initiates and sustains learning while McDonough (1983, p.142) asserts that "motivation of the students is one of the most important factors influencing their success or failure in learning the language". In fact, Gardner and Lambert (1972) are of the opinion that motivational factors can override language aptitude as a predictor of success in second language learning.

In addition to mastering knowledge, which involves environmental and cognitive factors, language learning also involves individual and social components (Dörnyei, 1994). Because language as a subject differs from other subjects, the motivation to learn it will also differ (Dörnyei, 2003). Dörnyei (2003) points out that while many aspects of the language, like grammar rules, can be taught explicitly, it is embedded in a social and cultural context. Gardner (2007) makes a distinction between language learning motivation, which he defines as the general motivation to learn a language, and classroom learning motivation which he situates in a specific context.

The social dimension of motivation explores the relationship between social attitudes and motivation (Dörnyei, 1994). According to Dörnyei (1994), 'attitude' and 'motivation' are the two constructs from which the social and psychological branches of motivation theory are derived. Thus, motivation can be conceptualised as belonging to either of two distinct traditions: motivational psychology and social psychology (Dörnyei, 1998). Motivational psychology is mainly concerned with individual factors driving human behaviour and focuses on the individual. Social psychology views individual actions as a function of the social context as well as the relationships that exist between the individual and the group or social context (Dörnyei, 1998). In order to build a comprehensive understanding of motivation, both the social and psychological factors need to be taken into account.

Another aspect that needs to be taken into account is the distinction that has been made between orientations and motivations. Pae (2008) reports two different views on the matter: that of the socioeducational school of thought and that of the self-determination researchers. Gardner and Tremblay's socioeducational model (1994) makes a clear distinction between motivation and

orientation. They define orientation as a 'class of reasons' while viewing motivation as a reflection of the students efforts in learning the language for intrinsic reasons, such as the satisfaction they experience in fulfilling the task of learning a language (Pae, 2008). The self-determination theory researchers conceive of orientation and motivation as conceptually similar (Pae, 2008). They extend the concept of orientation to include intrinsic and extrinsic motivation , which they study in relation to specific L2 orientations such as integrativeness and instrumentality (Pae, 2008). In this study, motivation and orientation are taken to refer to two separate concepts: orientation refers to the intention of the student to commit an act, while motivation refers to the action taken by the student. The abundance of theories related to second language learning motivation has resulted in a large field of study, much of which will be covered in the review of the literature that follows. Theories concerned with factors pertaining to the individual include self-determination theory; goal theory; identity theory; self-confidence and self-efficacy theories and attribution theory. Sociological theories include integrative and instrumental orientation; goal-oriented theory and group dynamics.

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 2.1 below provides an overview of the motivational factors that will be reviewed and how they are positioned in relation to one another.

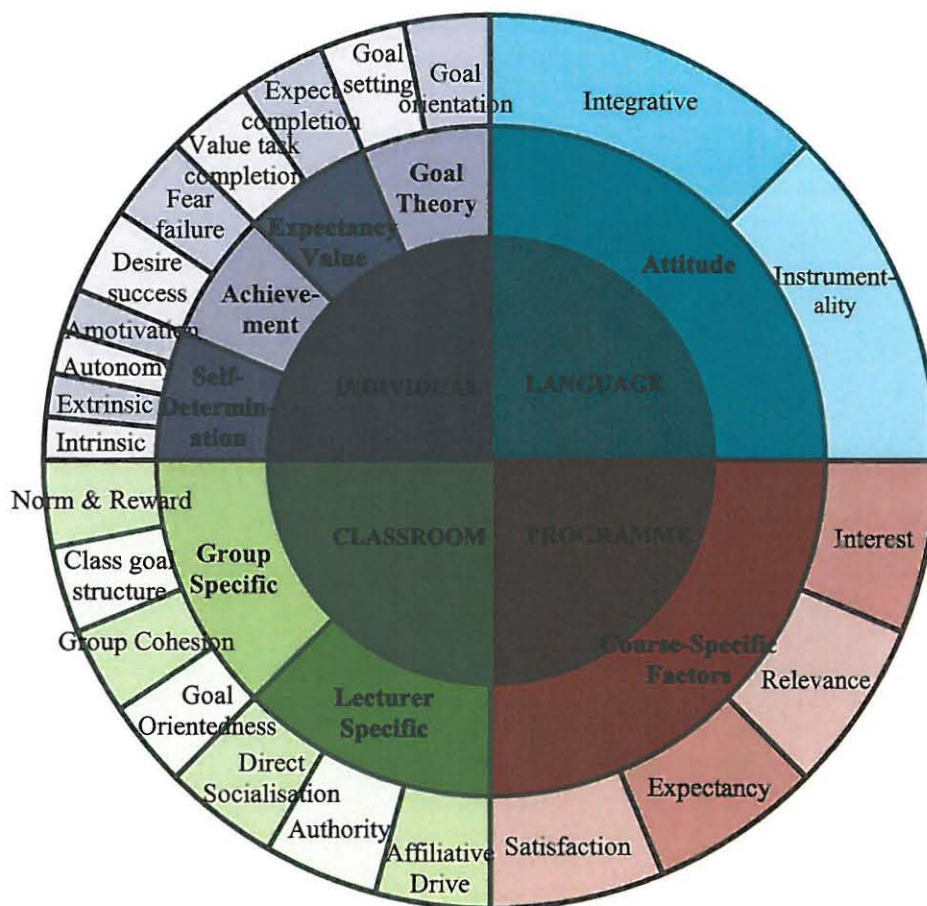


Figure 2.1 Three-tiered diagrammatic representation of theoretical framework

An outline of the theoretical framework, including the codes used throughout the thesis, has been included as Appendix A.

2.3.1 LANGUAGE LEVEL

Motivation at this level is conceived of as a general concept, focusing on student orientations and motives as they relate to the L2 (Dörnyei, 2001). The specific language being studied will influence these orientations (Liuolienė & Metiūnienė, 2006). The focus is on the social aspects of motivation and includes students' attitude towards the target language and the target language community.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) focus on the influences of the social context and relational patterns between language communities as measured by means of an individual's social attitudes in their socio-educational model. They distinguish between integrative and instrumental orientations. Integrative orientation refers to the student's desire to identify with the culture of the target language group. When students possess a functional-motivational drive, for example to pass an exam or to further their career, they are said to have an instrumental orientation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In a later article, Gardner and Tremblay (1994), however, caution that the socio-educational model should not be viewed as static, but rather as a dynamic model which evolves with the uncovering of new information on motivation.

Student attitudes to the target language are strongly associated with language proficiency (Madileng, 2007). Clément and Kruidenier (1983), however maintain that the desire for contact with members of the L2 group is not fundamental to the motivational process and only relevant in specific socio-cultural contexts. Brown (2000) and Ellis (1994) have found that both instrumental and integrative motivation can lead to successful language learning.

2.3.1.1 Attitude

Attitude refers to students' attitudes towards the target language and target-language speakers (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). It focuses on the reaction of students to their immediate context (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003), i.e. the learning situation. (Liuolienė & Metiūnienė, 2006). The notion of attitude is central to Gardner's motivation theory: He maintained that attitude is a key component of the L2 motivation construct (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005).

2.3.1.2 Integrative orientation

In his conceptualisation of the integrative motive, Gardner (in Masgoret & Gardner, 2003) asserts that a student who, at least in part, identifies with the target language group, has a greater chance of success than a student who does not, because learning a language involves the mastery of certain cultural aspects of that language. Integrative orientation refers to

students' interest in the culture of target language speakers, and their wish to affiliate with them (Liuolienė & Metiūnienė, 2006).

Motivation has affective characteristics which orient the student to trying to acquire elements of the second language. Included in this is the desire students have for achieving a goal, and the effort they are prepared to expend to this end. Because motivation plays a direct role in language learning, it serves to keep students in the programme, influences their perception of the situation and is the basis for reinforcements in the classroom. Motivation can therefore be conceptualised as a combination of attitude to learning the target language as well as the amount of effort expended in achieving mastery (Gardner, 1985).

This attitudinal/motivational complex is what Gardner (1985) refers to as the integrative motive. A student who has an integrative orientation will have favourable attitudes towards the target language group; wants to learn the language to meet and socialise with the target language community and wants to learn more about the target language community. It can also relate to the student's attitude towards the language and the course. According to Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), the greatest driving force of the instrumental orientation is the potential usefulness of L2 proficiency.

Because motivation is dynamic, the outdated notion of instrumentality vs. integrativeness has been criticised as too static to fully account for the factors involved in language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.1.2.1 Self-concept

In a study conducted by Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), the classical integrativeness construct is expanded to subsume what is termed 'L2 possible selves' – a notion borrowed from traditional psychology. 'Possible selves' refers to the ideas individuals have about what they might become, what they would like to become and what they fear they might become (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Thus, cognition can be said to have a conceptual link to motivation in that individuals will be motivated to narrow the gap they perceive between their actual and possible selves (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Higgins (1987, 1996 in Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005) makes a further distinction between 'ideal self' – what a person aspires to be like – and 'ought to self' – what the person thinks they ought to be like. Therefore, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), argue that a student whose 'ideal self' is proficient in the L2, can be described as having an integrative orientation.

The 'ought-to self' is driven by the expectations of others, for example parents and due to its more extrinsic nature is less influential in motivating students (Papi, 2010).

Wigfield and Karpathian (1991 in Dowson, Barker & McInerey, 2003, p.2) define self-concept as “the cumulation of an individual’s self-perceptions”, which drive human behaviour and therefore further influence our self-perceptions.

Individual’s experiences within their own contexts shape their self-perceptions, which is why more recent research has conceived of self-concept as multidimensional (Dowson et al, 2003). Self-concept deals with student perceptions of who they are, as well as who they are becoming (Dowson et al, 2003), which is why the L2 possible selves construct (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005) has been included in self-concept in the theoretical model. It is also an accurate predictor of academic achievement or performance (Bandura, 1997 in Pajares, 2003). Self-concept beliefs impact on academic performance (Skaalvik, 1997) and are related to attribution theory and goal theory.

Self-concept differs from self-efficacy in that an academic self-concept refers to the student’s knowledge of himself in academic situations and includes affective judgements about the academic situation (Pajares, 2003). Self-efficacy on the other hand is concerned with judgements about the ability to successfully reach a goal (Pajares, 2003) and is discussed under expectancy-value theory at the individual level. However, as Otsuka and Smith (2005) point out, the distinction between self-concept and self-efficacy is starting to become less clear.

Another point to consider when discussing self-concept is that of collective and individual cultures because of the strong cultural influences on many prominent motivational factors in ESL (Otsuka & Smith, 2005). They quote Triandis (1995a in Otsuka & Smith, 2005, p.95) as saying that “people who have been raised in collective cultures tend to 'cognitively convert' situations into collective settings; people who have been raised in individualistic cultures tend to convert situations into individualistic settings”. Therefore an individual's self-concept can be said to be intimately linked to their cultural background.

2.3.1.2.2 Identity

Changes brought about by globalisation and modernity have resulted in a world in which students of a second language can identify with a global community of English speakers, whether they have any contact with English speakers in their communities or not (Lamb, 2004). This global identity allows students to feel immersed in the target language community at a global level (Ribas, 2009). Thus, Ushioda (2006) asserts, it has become necessary to expand integrativeness to

encompass a more general outlook or attitude to the international English community at large.

Norton Peirce (1995) makes a case for 'investment' to embody the relationship between power, identity and language learning in a socially situated context. She maintains that a socially situated view of motivation is necessary to represent the multiplicity of both identity and context. The term investment refers to the extent to which students are prepared to invest time and effort in learning the target language, which is embodied in "the socially and historically constructed relationship of [students] to the target language and their sometimes ambivalent desire to learn and practice it" (Norton, 1997 in Hashimoto, 2002, p.34). As Phalet, Andriessen and Lens (2004, p.61) point out, "schooling is not an end in itself. It is a future-oriented investment". In this way identity, instrumentality and investment are interrelated concepts that can help to explain students' experiences of English language learning.

A study of African American adolescents' motivation contends that the legacy of perceptions of inferiority and oppression may lead to the rejection of the values of the dominant culture and cause resistance to learning (Long, Monoi, Harper, Knoblauch & Murphy, 2007). In addition to this, the pursuit of academic excellence may be perceived as 'acting White', and therefore be rejected (Long et al, 2007). Considering the legacy of discrimination in South Africa, one may draw the conclusion that some of the attitudes and perceptions among African American students could also be relevant to African students learning English and in English.

Tyson, Darity and Castellino (2005) assert that the accusation of 'acting White' is resentful: the behaviour is perceived by the accuser as an attempt by the accused to become superior by assuming the identity of the 'other'.

Barker (2004, p.100) proposes the following aspects of identity, which he terms "cultural aspects of language learning motivation": culture and personal identity; collectivism vs. individualism; social identity; intergroup model and acculturation.

2.3.1.3 Instrumental orientation

An instrumental orientation refers to recognising the utility value of the target language (Gardner, 1985). A student with an instrumental orientation will view the learning of the target language as a functional activity (Gardner, 1985). This refers to the student's non-interpersonal purposes like career advancement or passing a test (Liuolienė & Metiūnienė, 2006).

Coetzee-Van-Rooy (2002), in a South African study, found that English in South Africa is

learnt to communicate and better understand other speakers. According to her, this indicates an instrumental orientation rather than an integrative one (Coetzee-Van-Rooy, 2002). Because English acts as a *lingua franca*, reasons for English language learning are mainly pragmatic or instrumental. Furthermore, successfully mastering English is not reason enough to be accepted as part of the English-speaking community in South Africa (Coetzee-Van-Rooy, 2002), which would render an integrative orientation less likely in the South African context.

This study explored participants' attitudes and orientations towards learning English as part of their three-year NC(V) qualification. Participants were asked to express their perceptions with regard to the value of English and the impact it has had on their identities and their perceived L2 selves to determine what role motivation plays in their language learning behaviour.

2.3.2 PROGRAMME LEVEL

The programme level refers to the specific study programme for which the students have enrolled at the college. The participants in this study are marketing students, studying four vocational (core) subjects, namely Marketing, Marketing Communication, Advertising and Promotions and Consumer Behaviour. In addition to this, they also study three fundamental subjects, namely Mathematical Literacy, Life Orientation and English First Additional Language (FAL). The programme level refers to the entire NC(V) Marketing qualification. Within this programme, English FAL is defined as belonging to the course-specific motivational component.

2.3.2.1 Course-specific factors

Factors included in course specific motivational components are the syllabus, teaching and learning materials, methodology and classroom activities. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) provide the framework for course-specific motivational components, by suggesting four conditions for motivation: interest, expectancy, relevance and satisfaction, which Dörnyei (1994, p. 277) describes as “particularly useful in describing course-specific motives”.

2.3.2.1.1 Interest

Interest refers to the extent to which students are interested in engaging in classroom activities. It is related to intrinsic motivation, and “centred around the individual's inherent curiosity and desire to know more about him or herself and his or her environment” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.277). This concept was also used in this study to gauge how interesting students find the English course.

2.3.2.1.2 Expectancy

Expectancy refers to students' expectations of success in the course or activity and the extent to which they feel a sense of control over their progress. It is related to students' perceptions of their likelihood to be successful, as well as their general levels of self-confidence and self-efficacy (Dörnyei, 1994). At the learning situation level, "it concerns perceived task difficulty, the amount of effort required, the amount of available assistance and guidance, the teacher's presentation of the task, and familiarity with the task type" (Dörnyei, 1994, p.278). Because expectancy is examined in some depth under expectancy-value theory at the individual level, the term was used by the researcher in the focus group interviews to investigate what participants would like to see as part of their English course.

2.3.2.1.3 Relevance

Relevance refers to the extent to which the course is relevant to students' lives and applicable to them personally. In other words, the connection between instruction and personal needs and values (Dörnyei, 1994). It is related to instrumentality or utility value, at the macro-level (Dörnyei, 1994). At the learning situation level, "it refers to the extent to which the classroom instruction and course content are seen to be conducive to achieving the goal, that is, to mastering the L2" (Dörnyei, 1994, p.277). In this study, 'usefulness' was used as a synonym for relevance.

2.3.2.1.4 Satisfaction

Satisfaction refers to the extent to which students are satisfied with the outcome of the activity or the course. It refers to both extrinsic (praise and good grades) and intrinsic rewards (task-enjoyment and pride in their achievements) (Dörnyei, 1994). Satisfaction is also related to attainable proximal sub-goals (Dörnyei, 1994). In this study satisfaction was defined as students' perception that their English course is a worthwhile pursuit.

The NC(V) programme is a relatively new addition to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Studying a language as part of a vocational qualification is therefore unfamiliar to FET students. In examining this aspect of learning in relation to student motivation can provide valuable insights into the way in which the language component of the NC(V) course is perceived.

2.3.3 CLASSROOM LEVEL

Two factors were identified at the classroom level, which could have a potential impact on student perceptions of their motivational orientations, namely lecturer-specific and group-specific factors.

2.3.3.1 Lecturer-specific factors

These factors relate to the lecturer's personality traits and teaching style. The original term 'teacher' has been replaced with 'lecturer', since this is the term used for educators at FET colleges.

2.3.3.1.1 Affiliative drive

The affiliative drive has been identified as the most important lecturer-related motive, and refers to students' desire to do well to please an authority figure. Students who like their lecturers are more likely to feel an affiliation towards them, and although affiliation is essentially an extrinsic motive, it can become intrinsic when students become devoted to the subject taught by their favourite lecturer (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.3.1.2 Authority type

Lecturers can be perceived as either autonomy-supporting or controlling (Dörnyei, 1994). Students who perceive their lecturer as being too authoritarian lose confidence in their own competence and may lose their sense of self-confidence (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999). Dörnyei (1994) suggests that lecturers should share responsibility with students, offer them different options and involve them in decision making in order to enhance both self-determination and intrinsic motivation among their students. The same may not, however, hold true for students from all cultures in all situations.

Delpit (1992) identifies a potential conflict between home and school cultures for African American students. She cites as an example the difference between the approaches to discipline that exists between black and white teachers, teaching African American students in American schools. The black teachers are direct and explicit in their instructions to students while the more Euro-centric teachers are indirect in their requests for discipline. This lack of power-display by the Euro-centric teachers is not recognised as effective by the students (Delpit, 1992). She concludes, “[i]f teachers are to teach effectively, recognition of the importance of student perception of teacher intent is crucial” (Delpit, 1992, p.239).

This does not, however, mean that lecturers should threaten or intimidate their

students. Hsu (2010) suggests that language learning requires an environment that is warm, supportive, accepting and safe. She further asserts that the use of autonomous techniques is more successful in motivating students than an authoritarian type of approach.

2.3.3.1.3 Direct socialisation of motivation

Lecturers are able to actively develop and stimulate student motivation. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008, p.72) found “powerful evidence that the teacher's motivational practice does matter”. Dörnyei (1994) suggests three aspects where lecturers can contribute to student motivation: modelling, task presentation and feedback.

Modelling

Dörnyei (1994, p.278) conceives of modelling as the lecturer's leadership role, which embodies the “group conscience”. He asserts that student attitudes towards learning will follow the example of the lecturer – not only in relation to effort, but also in level of interest in the subject.

Feedback

Students value feedback from their lecturer over other forms of feedback such as peer evaluation (Lee, 2008). When students feel that they are not given useful feedback, they may lose their sense of competence and self-determination (Noels et al, 1999). In a study conducted among Hong Kong high school students, Lee (2008) found that students preferred written feedback which not only corrects errors, but also gives students more detailed feedback on their writing. However, lecturer-dominated feedback can cause students to be passive recipients of feedback, rather than actively responding to the feedback (Lee, 2008). Lecturers should take student differences like proficiency and motivation into account when giving feedback (Lee, 2008).

Dörnyei (1994) distinguishes between two types of feedback: informational (commenting on competence) and controlling (judging performance against external criteria). He asserts that informational feedback is more likely to encourage positive attributions in students, while controlling feedback could be detrimental to intrinsic motivation, since it encourages a performance orientation, rather than a mastery orientation. A mastery orientation refers to students' task involvement, with a focus on mastering the content (Dörnyei, 1998). A performance orientation involves the ego, and the focus is on demonstrating ability, getting good marks or being first in the class (Dörnyei, 1998). He also cautions against announcement of grades, display of selected students' work and ability grouping (Dörnyei, 1994).

Task presentation

Lecturers' classroom practices and discourse have an impact on their students' goal orientations (Ames, 1992 in Turner & Patrick, 2004). Lecturers, who are enthusiastic, have positive expectations for their students, expect students to be active participants and who are supportive, instil a mastery orientation in their students (Turner & Patrick, 2004). What lecturers say and how they say it, also impacts on student motivation (Turner & Patrick, 2004). Practices that facilitate intrinsic motivation include: an emphasis on helping students understand; asking students to explain what they understand; encouraging students to put in effort and persevere; approaching errors as opportunities to learn; a positive attitude and enthusiasm; a cooperative classroom goal structure (Turner & Patrick, 2004). In contrast, practices that are likely to lead to a performance goal orientation (and thus extrinsic motivation) include: an emphasis on the 'right' answer and following instructions; an emphasis on getting the work done 'perfectly', rather than on the learning experience; threats and sarcasm; comparing students or suggesting that some students are 'better' than others (Turner & Patrick, 2004).

Dörnyei (1996) asserts that lecturer personality can potentially motivate or demotivate students. Students expect their lecturers to at least partially motivate them, and to be enthusiastic and committed to their work. The lecturers themselves ought to be motivated and enjoy the course materials they present (Dörnyei, 1996). Effective lecturers raise students' interest and metacognitive awareness through emphasis on purpose, interest, practical application and strategies applicable to completing the task (Dörnyei, 1994).

Lecturer-specific factors are intimately related to student goal orientation, self-determination and causal attribution. As such, it would seem to be an influential factor in student motivation.

2.3.3.2 Group-specific factors

Group-specific factors include social influences exerted by the group in which the student finds himself. This refers not only to the peer group and the class group, but includes the lecturer as part of the group. In this study, however, the term 'group-specific' was taken to refer to peer and class group influences only.

According to Stevick (1980) success is largely dependent on the interactions of the people in the classroom. Dörnyei (1994) asserts that this is one of the most crucial factors

affecting the motivation of students in the language classroom. If homework and test preparation is not an accepted practice in the group, bad grades and punitive measures will not be effective in modifying student behaviour (Dörnyei, 1994).

The group forms a powerful social unit which has a profound effect on students' affect and cognition (Dörnyei, 1994). Group goals may not be exactly aligned with the goals of the individual, but can have an impact on them (Dörnyei, 1994).

Ryan (2001) found that peers exerted influences over certain aspects of motivation and not others. According to her, the peer group exerted influence over students' intrinsic value for school, but not over the utility value thereof.

2.3.3.2.1 Goal orientedness

Goal-oriented theory has been a central feature of L2 motivation research, with proven implications for both lecturers and students (Dörnyei, 2003). It refers to the extent to which the class group is committed to the pursuit of its collective goal(s). A satisfactory outcome would be one that is desired by the majority of students in the group (Dörnyei, 1994).

According to goal-oriented theory, motivation displays different characteristics depending on the level and stage students have reached in pursuing their targeted goal. Dörnyei (2003) highlights three phases: the preactional stage, actional stage and postactional stage. During the preactional stage, the individual chooses a goal or a task to be pursued. Their choice will be influenced by motivational factors, goal properties, attitude towards the target language and target language group, values associated with the learning process, expected success and strategies as well as environmental support or obstacles (Dörnyei, 2003).

During the actional stage, the initial motivation generated by the student is maintained and protected. This type of motivation is relevant to activities such as studying a second language and to learning in the classroom setting. It can be influenced by factors like the quality of the learning experience, a sense of autonomy, teacher and parental influences, classroom reward and goal structure, influence of the student group and knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies like goal-setting and learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2003).

The postactional stage follows the completion of action when the student reflects on what he has done (also referred to as retrospective evaluation) (Dörnyei, 2003). The way in which past experiences are processed is likely to influence future activities students will choose to pursue (Dörnyei, 2003).

These three phases do not act in isolation, but are related to a number of other constructs and motivation theories from more than one level as identified in the theoretical framework (refer to Figure 2.1). This interrelationship is represented in Table 2.3 below:

STAGE	LEVEL	RELATED THEORIES
Preactional stage	Language level	Goal orientation Attitude Expectancy-value Self-efficacy Achievement theory
Actional stage	Classroom level	Self-determination theory Lecturer-specific factors Group-specific factors
Postactional stage	Individual level	Causal attribution

Table 2.3: The relationship between goal orientedness and other theories of motivation

This table demonstrates how factors across the four levels of motivation identified in the theoretical framework can interact with one another.

During the pre-actional stage, when the students choose a task, their goal orientation will determine whether a difficult task is selected or not. Another contributing factor will be the extent to which students anticipate success. Attitude to the target language will ultimately influence student choices. It is placed in the language level because of the environmental and socio-educational influences that determine students' choices in the pre-actional stage.

During the actional stage, which is situated at the classroom level, lecturer and group factors will play a role. Feedback is likely to be an important facet at this stage. In addition to this, students' levels of autonomy, related to self-determination, will influence their actions.

In evaluating their performance during the post-actional stage, students will attribute the outcomes of their actions to any number of causes, which will impact on their future choices and actions.

2.3.3.2.2 *Group cohesion*

Another important aspect to consider is the strength of the relationships between members of the class group (Dörnyei, 1994) and the affiliation that results from it.

Evans and Dion (1991 in Dörnyei, 1994, p.279) found a “consistent positive relationship” between group cohesion and performance. Students in a strongly bonded group will want to perform well for the sake of the group, and the goals of the group will have a strong influence on their behaviour (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.3.2.3 Classroom goal structure

Classroom environment has a pronounced effect on student motivation (Turner & Patrick, 2004). The classroom environment can encourage either a mastery or performance goal orientation, which can determine the extent to which students are likely to cheat on tests, disrupt classes, engage in self-handicapping behaviour or avoid seeking help from the teacher (Turner & Patrick, 2004).

Of the three classroom goal structures (competitive, cooperative and individualistic) suggested by Dörnyei (1994), cooperative goal structures have been found to be the most successful for the language learning situation. When students work in small groups, sharing responsibility and reward, they are likely to be less anxious; more involved in the task; feel more positively towards the subject and form more positive and caring relationships with their classmates (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.3.2.4 Norm and reward system

Jacques (2001, p.186) defines the norm and reward system as “[g]roup standards which the group enforces” and maintains that a group’s norm and reward system “is one of the most salient classroom factors that can affect student motivation” (Jacques, 2001, p.186). Extrinsic regulations, such as rewards and punishment should be replaced by more intrinsic regulations like group norms “which are standards that the majority of group members agree to and which become part of the group's value system” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.278).

In fact, poor marks or punitive measures will be ineffective in classroom situations where effort and diligence are not accepted group norms (Dörnyei, 1994). However, norms that have been internalised by the group will be sufficiently powerful to affect the behaviours of individuals within the group (Dörnyei, 1994).

A part of this study was dedicated to exploring factors that may have an effect on student perceptions of their motivational orientations. The influence of the lecturer and the class group was interrogated to determine which factors were deemed most salient by participants in contributing to or detracting from their motivation.

2.3.4 INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

At this level, motivation is regarded as being influenced by the individual characteristics of students, which includes affect, self-confidence, expectancy and need for achievement.

An “educational shift” (Dörnyei, 1998, p.124) took place in the 1990s. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) are generally credited as being the pioneers of the new direction of motivation research, but many researchers contributed to the new approach to motivation research. A conscious attempt was made to extend and broaden the research agenda set by the social psychological approach pioneered by Gardner, by incorporating ideas from mainstream psychology into the existing social theories (Dörnyei, 1998).

The aim was to account for motivation at the task-specific level rather than just at the more broad social level. Thus the call was made for a more pragmatic approach which holds relevance at the classroom level (Dörnyei, 1998).

2.3.4.1 Self-determination

In the 1970's, researchers shifted their focus from the socio-psychological factors of motivation to explore motivational factors pertaining to individuals (Madileng, 2007), which includes self-determination theory. Brown (1994 in Dörnyei, 1998) emphasises the importance of intrinsic motivation and points out that traditional school settings neglect this aspect of motivation in favour of a rewards-driven extrinsic motivation.

Self-determination theory provides a comprehensive framework (Deci & Ryan, 2002 in Pae, 2008) for organising student-specific L2 orientations systematically and is an elaboration of the intrinsic/extrinsic motivation construct (Dörnyei, 1994). These orientations can be categorised according to the extent to which the goal for performing the activity is self-determined. Deci and Ryan (1985 in Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) argue that students can only maintain a sense of intrinsic motivation when they perceive of themselves as self-determined and competent. When students are self-determined and confident, they are more likely to achieve their goals than when they are pressured by an external force to do so.

Empirical evidence suggests meaningful links between student intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to learn (Clément & Pelletier, 1999 in Dörnyei, 2002). As Deci & Ryan (1985 in Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) point out, the need for competence and self-determination may be related to extrinsic motives. Students who engage in a field of study for economic motives may be said to be extrinsically motivated, but their basic needs for competence and self-determination are the driving force in their choices (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Thus it is possible to conclude that both intrinsic and extrinsic variables can contribute to motivation (Noels et al, 1999). Ryan and Deci (2000) summarise the processes and perceived loci of

control that differentiate amotivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as a taxonomy of human motivation. This is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

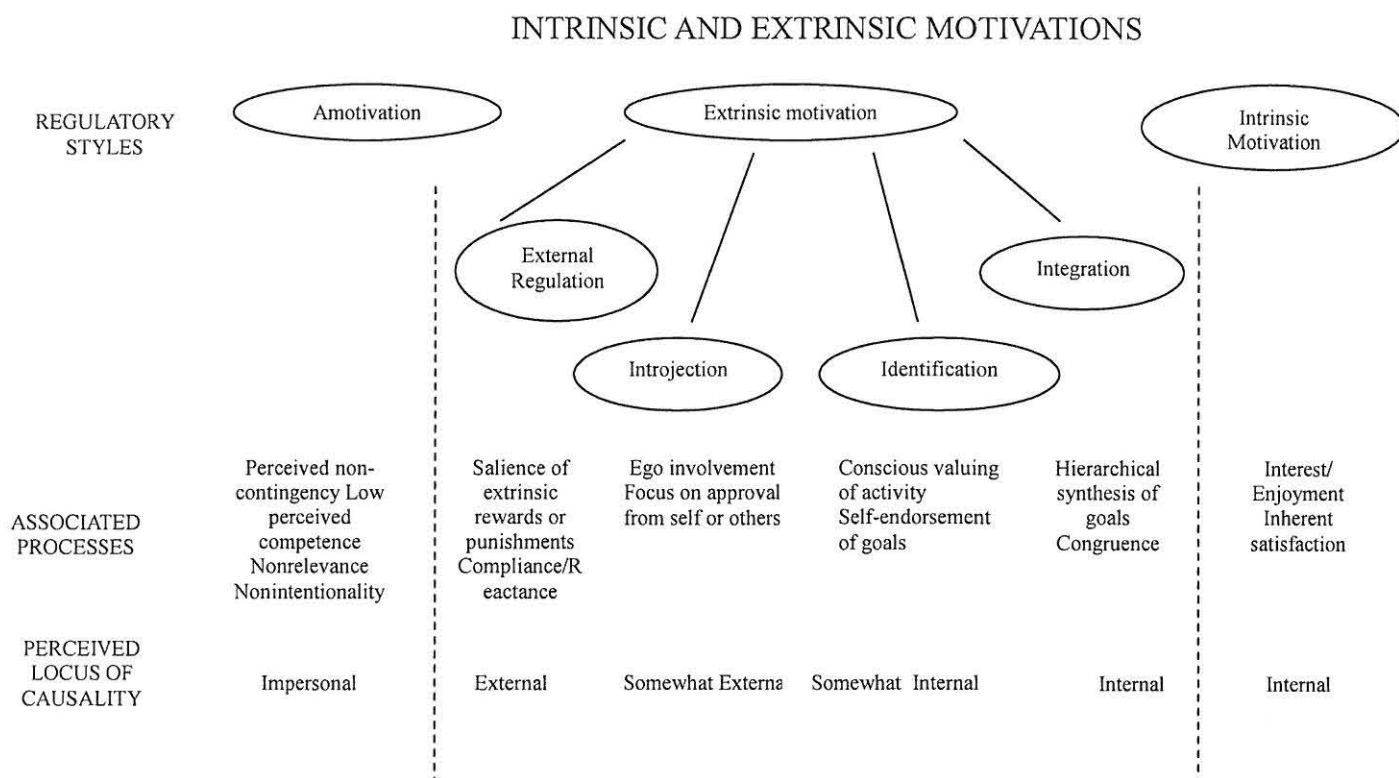


Figure 2.2: A taxonomy of human motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.61)

2.3.4.1.1 Intrinsic motivation

Pintrich and Schunk (2002 in Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002, p.318) define intrinsic motivation as “motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake” while extrinsic motivation is defined as “motivation to engage in an activity as a means to an end”.

Intrinsic motivation refers to the motivation to engage in an act because of an innate need for competence and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985 in Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000). Students who are intrinsically motivated to perform a task do so because they derive enjoyment and satisfaction from it. When students are free to choose to perform an activity, they will seek interesting situations where they can rise to the challenges that the activity presents as they develop a sense of competence in their abilities (Madileng, 2007). This kind of motivation is considered to be highly self-determined and the reason for doing the activity is linked solely to the individual's feelings while performing the task (Noels et al, 1999). Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Brière, Sénécal and Vallières (1992) identify 3 sub-types of student attitudes to learning activities:

- To learn: Students engage in learning for the pleasure and understanding something new, satisfying their curiosity and exploring the world.
- Towards achievement: Students engage in activities for the satisfaction of surpassing themselves, coping with challenges and accomplishing or creating something.
- To experience stimulation: Students engage in activities to experience pleasant sensations

2.3.4.1.2 Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation refers to actions that are carried out to achieve some instrumental end (Deci & Ryan, 1985 in Noels et al, 2000), such as good grades, or to avoid punishment (Dörnyei, 1994). Brown (1990 in Dörnyei, 1994, p. 276) asserts that traditional school settings cultivate extrinsic motivation that fails to “bring the student into a collaborative process of competence building”. Extrinsic motivation has traditionally been seen as undermining intrinsic motivation, and several studies have confirmed that students will lose their natural intrinsic interest in an activity if they have to do it to meet some extrinsic requirement (Dörnyei, 1994). Brown (1990 in Dörnyei, 1994, p.276) asserts that traditional school settings cultivate extrinsic motivation that fails to “bring the [student] into a collaborative process of competence building”. However, because self-determination is seen as a pre-requisite for any behaviour to be intrinsically rewarding, more recent studies have shifted their focus to show that extrinsic rewards can be combined with or even result in intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 1994). This has resulted in the division by Deci and Ryan (1985 in Noels et al, 1999) of extrinsic motivation into “4 types [of regulation] along a continuum between self-determination and controlled forms of motivation” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.276).

External regulation is the most controlled form of extrinsic motivation and refers to behaviour that is regulated by reward or punishment (Noels et al, 1999; Dörnyei, 1994). Introjected regulation refers to behaviours performed to avoid feeling guilty or to impress others and in response to some kind of pressure (Noels et al, 1999; Dörnyei, 1994). Identified regulation refers to how valuable students judge the activity to be. If it is regarded as worthwhile, they would be more likely to sustain such an activity (Noels et al, 1999; Dörnyei, 1994). The final form of extrinsic motivation is integrated motivation which is fully assimilated by students along with other values and identities (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.4.1.3 Autonomy

The term autonomy is used to describe student attributes as well as the learning situation (Benson, 2006). The notion of autonomy derives from Deci and Ryan's (2000 in Benson, 2006) theory of self-determination. Student autonomy is an aspect of self-determination that can have a positive impact on student motivation. It can be defined as students' willingness to take control of their learning. Because the students take responsibility for their own learning, and accept that their own efforts are responsible for their success or failure, rather than some external force, they are more inclined to be intrinsically motivated (Dörnyei, 1998). Many researchers have speculated that students' willingness to take responsibility for their own learning enhances motivation (Benson, 2006). Noels, Pelletier, Clément and Vallerand (1997 in Dörnyei, 1998) assert that the self-determination paradigm offers the following advantages: a large number of orientations can be arranged within this framework and it provides a continuum along which the intrinsic and extrinsic subtypes can be arranged. This suggests that lecturer-specific factors can have a great impact on students' sense of autonomy and competence (Noels et al, 1999).

2.3.4.1.4 Amotivation

A final concept proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985 in Noels et al, 1999), is amotivation. Someone is considered to be amotivated when they do not see a relation between their actions and the consequences of their actions. Instead, consequences are seen as arising from factors beyond the individual's control (Vallerand et al, 1992). In such situations, the individual is in a state of 'learned helplessness' (Abramson, Seligman & Teasdale, 1987 in Noels et al, 1999), and would most likely stop performing the activity (Noels et al, 1999). Dweck and Leggett (1988, p.256) assert that "[t]he helpless pattern...is characterised by an avoidance of challenge and a deterioration of performance in the face of obstacles".

Thus the foundation of learned helplessness is how individuals view the relationship between their own behaviour and the effects thereof (Graham & Weiner, 1996). When students view failure as something beyond their control, they exist in a state of helplessness, which is manifested through passivity, lack of motivation and poor performance (Graham & Weiner, 1996). Dörnyei (1994) asserts that this passive state occurs when a student wants to succeed, but views success as impossible, no matter what amount of effort is exerted. This state, once entrenched, becomes very difficult to overcome (Dörnyei, 1994).

There is a strong link between learned helplessness and causal attribution, discussed further in 2.3.4.2.7, since students explain failure based on the underlying causal aspects (Graham & Weiner, 1996).

According to Graham and Weiner (1996), the helplessness model consists of three dimensions: if failure is attributed to internal causes, the resulting loss of self-esteem will be greater than when external factors are identified as the cause of failure; when failure is attributed to stable, rather than unstable causes, the negative impact on self-esteem is more severe and lasts longer and if failure is perceived as a general, or global trend across contexts, rather than existing only in a specific context, self-esteem is impacted on more negatively.

2.3.4.2. Expectancy-value theory

In the mechanistic view of motivation, expectancy was conceptualised as habits (Graham & Weiner, 1996). The shift to a cognitive focus meant that researchers became more concerned with the direction of behaviour and individual choice as well as the incentives that drive us (Graham & Weiner, 1996). This change in how motivation is viewed resulted in expectancy-value theories (Graham & Weiner, 1996).

Expectancy-value theories are concerned with what directs and shapes inherent motivation and highlight two factors related to motivation: the individual's expectancy of success and the value the individual attaches to success (Dörnyei, 1998).

Traditionally expectancy-value theory is task-specific. However, for the purposes of this study, 'the task' was defined as the entire three-year NC(V) qualification. The two components of expectancy-value can be defined as the value placed on the completion of a task and the expectation of task-completion.

Value: The value placed on the completion of a task

Thus 'value' consists of four task values: attainment value; intrinsic value (interest); extrinsic utility value and cost (Dörnyei, 1994). The value of any given task is made up of a combination of these four factors and will determine the intensity of a student's response and resulting behaviour (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.4.2.1 Attainment value

Attainment value refers to the need of individuals to do well in order to satisfy their own personal values and needs (Dörnyei, 1994). Blumenfield, Kempler and Krajcik (2006) view attainment value as the importance individuals attach to accomplishing a task.

2.3.4.2.2 Cost

Cost refers to the negative valence of a task: the amount of time and effort expended and the emotional cost like anxiety or fear of failure (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.4.2.3 Intrinsic value

Intrinsic value refers students' level of interest in the topic (Blumenfield et al, 2006) and the enjoyment derived from completing a task and taking part in an activity (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.4.2.4 Extrinsic utility value

Extrinsic utility value is concerned with the utility of an activity, in other words how useful the activity will be in helping the student attain some future goal (Dörnyei, 1994). It is also referred to in some of the literature as instrumental value (Blumenfield et al, 2006). This concept is closely related to instrumentality at the language level.

Expectancy: The expectation of task completion

Expectancy can be divided into four main components: self-worth theory, self-efficacy, attribution theory and linguistic self-confidence.

2.3.4.2.5 Self-worth theory

The main construct of self-worth is students' perceptions of their own ability (Graham & Weiner, 1996). In fact, Graham and Weiner (1996, p.73) assert that "to be worthy is to be able". Covington (2000), makes the point that students' marks provide them with a measure with which to judge their self-worth. He goes further to say that our society values those who are able to achieve.

Self-worth theory refers to attempts to maintain self-esteem (Dörnyei, 1994). Covington (1992 in Dörnyei, 1994) points out that the need for self-acceptance is one of the most vital human developmental processes. This implies that a lot of what happens in the classroom will fulfil one of two purposes: attempts to impress others and attempts to protect self-perceptions of ability.

Considering these high stakes, it is no wonder that students go to great lengths to protect their sense of self-worth. Covington (1984 in Graham & Weiner, 1996) proposes various self-protective strategies used by students to maintain their sense of self-worth in academic settings: setting unrealistically high goals in order to attribute failure to the difficulty of the task rather than to lack of innate ability; self-sabotage, including

procrastination or lack of effort and citing external factors as excuses for failure.

Graham (1994), in her study of African American students' self-perceptions of ability has found that a positive sense of self-worth is maintained, regardless of achievement failure. A possible reason for this is that a sense of efficacy can counteract negative attributions to the extent that failure may not have as profound an impact as it would without a sense of self-efficacy (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.3.4.2.6 Self-efficacy

“As in expectancy-value theory and attribution theory, Bandura's self-efficacy theory focuses on expectancies for success” (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002, p.111). Dörnyei (1994) concurs and asserts that self-efficacy refers to students' perceptions of their own ability to complete a specific task. Bandura (1997 in Pajares, 2003) situates self-efficacy in a theory of personal (and collective) agency. He views self-efficacy as a “mediating mechanism of personal agency” (Pajares, 2003, p.140). According to Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara and Pastorelli (1996), people's sense of personal agency is the most significant factor in shaping self-efficacy beliefs. If people do not believe that they will be successful, they will have no real incentive to engage in an activity (Bandura et al, 1996).

Bandura et al (1996, p.1206) also assert that “efficacy beliefs exert considerable impact on human development and adaptation”. These beliefs have an impact on student aspirations, and their level of commitment to goals. It also impacts on their level of motivation; the extent to which they persevere in the face of adversity and to what they attribute success and failure (Bandura et al, 1996). In addition, efficacy beliefs can heighten student motivation (Bandura et al, 1996). Students' sense of self-efficacy holds the key to student choices, effort, perseverance, thought patterns and emotional reactions (Pajares, 2003).

Self-efficacy does not refer to a student's general self-esteem and self-concept, but is strongly situated in specific contexts (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). It is associated with increased effort, persistence in the face of difficulty and the choice of harder over easier tasks or courses (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). In this way it is related to a mastery goal orientation as discussed in 2.3.4.4.2.

Self-efficacy perceptions are formed by the interpretation of information from four sources (Pajares, 2003):

- perceptions regarding the success or failure of the individual's performance
- social comparisons with other individuals in the group

- input and feedback from others
- anxiety and stress

Attribution is one of the factors that will play a role in self-efficacy perceptions, along with the student's observations and evaluations by peers and teachers (Dörnyei, 1994). A sense of efficacy can also counteract negative attributions to the extent that failure may not have as profound an impact as it would without a sense of self-efficacy (Dörnyei, 1994). Attribution theory is discussed in more detail in 2.3.4.2.7.

Because students may initially have a weak sense of efficacy, teachers should help them develop their sense of self-efficacy by setting “meaningful, achievable and success-engendering tasks” (Oxford & Shearin, 1994 in Dörnyei, 1994, p.277). Bandura (1997 in Pajares, 2003) provides guidelines for measuring the self-efficacy beliefs of students:

- assess student confidence that they possess the required skills
- assess student confidence that they can complete a specific task
- ask students to assess their potential to obtain an A, B, C or D grade for English and compare it to their actual grade

These guidelines were taken into account when constructing the instruments for data collection.

According to Dörnyei (1994) a strong sense of self-efficacy will counteract the effects of failure, i.e. students are less likely to feel despondent when faced with failure if they have firm self-efficacy beliefs. Oxford and Shearin (1994 in Dörnyei, 1994) point out that students initially lack self-efficacy in the language classroom, which is why it is an important part of the teacher’s job to provide “meaningful, achievable and success-engendering language tasks” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.277) in order to develop students’ sense of self-efficacy.

Students’ sense of efficacy may be unrelated to their actual performance. In a small study conducted among ICT students at this FET college, Cosburn (2011) found that participants had strong self-efficacy beliefs in a formal oral presentation task, which were unrelated to actual performance.

Pajares (2003) asserts that self-efficacy beliefs at differing levels of specificity may explain differences between students' perceptions of their competence and their actual achievement and how these perceptions are related to other motivational factors. Alternatively students' causal attributions may account for their ability to maintain a sense of self-efficacy in the face of failure. Weiner (1985, p.559) states “[i]t has been rather definitively documented that causal attributions influence expectancy of success”.

Because self-efficacy judgements influence student choices, effort, perseverance and anxiety levels, self-efficacy beliefs of minority students may provide an explanation for why many become 'at risk' or drop out of school (O'Hare, 1992).

2.3.4.2.7 Attribution theory

Attribution theory has formed part of the motivational research landscape for many years. As Weiner (2000, p.1) points out “[a]ttribution theory is now ending its third decade as a dominant conception of motivation, social psychology and educational psychology”.

According to attribution theory, students may expect to succeed in relation to how much they assess themselves to be in control of their own successes or failures (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). While motivation refers to the direction of behaviour, attribution theory is concerned with people's beliefs about why they behave in certain ways (Hollyforde & Whiddet, 2002). It is one of the most important influences on a student's formation of expectancies (Weiner, 1979 in Dörnyei, 1994). Successful students may attribute their success to ability or effort, depending on the beliefs they have developed based on their experiences (Hollyforde & Whiddet, 2002). If students feel that their failure in a task is attributed to their own lack of ability, they would be reluctant to perform the task again. If, however, students feel that their failure is a result of insufficient effort, they would be likely to make another attempt (Dörnyei, 2003).

When students are faced with failure (or success) they will interpret the relevant information to establish an understanding of the cause for the failure (Weiner, 1986 in Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

There are three main causal dimensions: stability, controllability and locus of control (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Weiner, 2000). The stability dimension is divided into stable and unstable causes (Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010). Stable causes refer to factors like effort or task difficulty, while unstable causes can be attributed to mood or luck. Controllability refers to whether events can be controlled by the student or not – i.e. controllable or uncontrollable (Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010). Locus of control refers to students' perceptions of whether the means of control over events is located within themselves – internally - or outside of themselves - externally (Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010).

Stability is perceived by students as factors that are either changeable or unchangeable. If a cause is evaluated as being changeable, it can either be perceived as within the student's control or not. Students who attribute failure to factors that are unstable,

controllable and internal are able to find ways to avoid failure in future and protect their sense of self-worth (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). Therefore a student who attributes failure to a lack of effort can rectify the situation by studying harder (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

According to Dörnyei (1994) attribution theory demonstrates the relationship between past failures and successes and future goal-expectancy. For example, “failure that is ascribed to low ability or to the difficulty of a task decreases the expectation of future success more than failure that is ascribed to bad luck or to a lack of effort” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.278). Figure 2.2 illustrates the difference between effort and ability attributions.

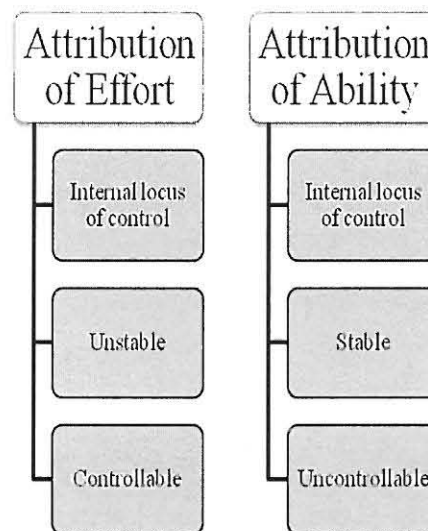


Figure 2.3: Effort and ability attributions

2.3.4.2.8 Linguistic self-confidence

Self-confidence refers to students’ beliefs that they have the ability to succeed, which is used in a more general sense than self-efficacy (Dörnyei, 1994). Self-confidence influences L2 proficiency both directly and indirectly through attitudes and effort expended on learning English (Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994). It includes an affective aspect, namely language use anxiety and a cognitive aspect, namely self-evaluation of proficiency (Dörnyei, 1994). Bandura (1986) is of the opinion that student’s beliefs about their abilities are better predictors of their behaviour than what their actual abilities are.

Clément (1996 in Dörnyei, 1998) examined the interrelationship between social contextual variables; attitudinal/motivational factors; self-confidence and language acquisition/acclimation processes, because of the closely related nature of linguistic

self-confidence and self-efficacy, although self-confidence is used in a more general sense and self-efficacy is always task-specific.

Linguistic self-confidence can be described as “self-perceptions of communicative competence” (Dörnyei, 1998, p.123) and is accompanied by low anxiety levels in using English. It refers to students’ beliefs about their ability to accomplish tasks and successfully reach goals, not only in multicultural, but also unicultural contexts (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Clément (1980 in Dörnyei, 1994) introduced the concept of self-confidence as comprising two components: language use anxiety (affective) and self-evaluation of L2 proficiency (cognitive), which is referred to in this text as ‘perceived L2 competence’.

Willingness to communicate

One of the more recent developments in the affective domain of language learning is ‘willingness to communicate’ (Hashimoto, 2002). Willingness to communicate (WTC) refers to whether a student would choose to speak to a native English speaker when presented with the opportunity to do so (Yashima, 2002; MacIntyre, 2007).

The two most prominent factors that impact on students’ ‘willingness to communicate’ are perceived communicative competence and communication anxiety, which are inversely correlated (MacIntyre, 1994; Noels et al, 2000; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Donovan, 2002). MacIntyre (1994) explains that ‘willingness to communicate’ depends on the students’ perceptions of their competence in conjunction with a lowered sense of language use anxiety, where the relationship between the two variables is reciprocal and reversible.

An integrative orientation would result in a stronger ‘willingness to communicate’ (Gardner, 1988). Wen and Clément (2003 in Hsu, 2010) assert that the desire to communicate in English does not automatically transfer into a WTC due to the tempering factors of anxiety, classroom tension and fear of taking risks. Hashimoto (2002) also acknowledges factors that include language learning strategies, language use anxiety and linguistic self-confidence as contributing to WTC. Other factors that Gardner (2001 in Hashimoto, 2002) takes into account are instrumental orientations and attitudes.

Language use anxiety

It seems quite obvious that language use anxiety will have a negative impact on second language learning (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991), but how does it relate to motivation? Anxiety will have an impact on students’ self-perceptions, which will, in turn affect their sense of competence (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1993 in Hashimoto, 2002). In their

study, MacIntyre, Noels and Clément (1997 in Hashimoto, 2002) found that anxious students were more inclined to underestimate their ability than less anxious students.

Clément, Baker and MacIntyre (2003) also maintain that language use anxiety will be a strong predictor of students' '[un]willingness to communicate'.

Scovel (1977 in Papi, 2010) describes L2 anxiety as being either debilitating or facilitating. Debilitating anxiety will negatively and impact on student performance, while facilitating anxiety is likely to result in a positive effect on performance.

Perceived L2 competence

Clément et al (2003) assert that perceived L2 competence is a strong predictor of a student's WTC. McCroskey and Richmond (1990 in Clément et al, 2003) define perceived L2 competence as students' beliefs that they can communicate effectively when the occasion demands. Actual competence may affect the effectiveness of students' communication, but their perceived competence will determine whether they choose to communicate (Clément et al, 2003).

In their study of Francophone and Anglophone students in Canada, Clément et al (2003) found that L2 confidence was not only related to students' WTC and their L2 identities, but also that both characteristics predicted the frequency with which students used the L2. Perceived competence is also closely linked to goal setting discussed in 2.4.4.3.1 and intrinsic motivation, discussed in 2.3.4.1.1 (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1994). According to Elliot and Harackiewicz (1994) perceived competence may enhance goals, because positive evaluation of attainment can improve perceptions of competence.

2.3.4.3 Achievement theory

Achievement theory refers to both the use of external incentives as motivators and the avoidance of situations that students perceive as likely to produce negative results (Atkinson, 1964) This means that the student is motivated by either a fear of failure or a desire for success, or both.

Atkinson (1964) points out that some students have a stronger need for achievement than others and will therefore be motivated by more challenging tasks. Others have a strong need for affiliation, and acceptance by their peers (McClelland, 1961).

Dörnyei (1994) considers students' need for achievement to be a stable characteristic that affects all aspects of a student's life. Such students would be considered intrinsically motivated since they are interested in pursuing excellence, are engaged in tasks with intensity and are likely to persist regardless of failure (Dörnyei, 1994). Another important aspect that will positively impact on a students' need for achievement is the academic

context. Dörnyei (1994, p.177) argues that “in institutional/academic contexts, where academic achievement situations are very salient, need for achievement will play a particularly important role”. This means that achievement theory can be related to self-determination theory at the individual level, discussed in 2.3.4.1, as well as the programme and classroom levels. Achievement theory can also be linked to goal theory, discussed below, in that “future goals sustain achievement motivation in the face of failure by turning away from past or present setbacks to possible improvement or progress in the future” (Phalet et al, 2004, p.62).

2.3.4.4 Goal theory

Goal theory is concerned with the purposes students perceive for their learning, rather than on actual levels of motivation (Dowson et al, 2003). As such, it was of value to this study, which dealt with student perceptions.

Early motivation research focused largely on basic needs, like Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Moore, 2008). More recent research however has focused more on goals which are seen as both igniting and directing actions (Dörnyei, 1998). Bandura and Schunk (1981 in Dörnyei, 1994) maintain that tests and exams can play a powerful role in motivating language students, since language learning demands a long-term commitment. Tests and exams have the potential to act as “proximal sub-goals” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.276) because they provide valuable feedback that initiates and supports student effort. It also contributes to the development of intrinsic motivation because successfully attaining a sub-goal allows the student to derive satisfaction from the activity (Dörnyei, 1994). In addition to this, attainable sub-goals boost student self-confidence and sense of efficacy (Dörnyei, 1994).

Oxford and Shearin (1994 in Dörnyei, 1994) propose four characteristics of efficient goals: goals should be specific; hard but achievable; accepted by students and accompanied by feedback about progress.

2.3.4.4.1 Goal setting theory

This theory originates with Locke and Latham (1994 in Dörnyei, 1998) and asserts that human action is driven by purpose. In other words, for action to take place, goals have to be identified and pursued. In order for goals to be effective, they need to be both specific and difficult. Specific and difficult goals are more likely to lead to improved performance rather than vague and easy goals (Dörnyei, 1998). Effective goals also need intensity and commitment. Goal-setting theory is related to expectancy-value theories, since commitment is improved when the goal is perceived as possible

(expectancy) and important (value) (Dörnyei, 1998).

Goals also serve a dual purpose: they do not only provide desired outcomes, but also provide a measure by which students can judge their performance (Dörnyei, 1998). In the case of language learning, where the overall goal is some distance in the future, the setting of short-term goals (proximal sub-goals) can help the student focus and provide motivation in the form of providing incentives and feedback. If goals are attainable, they also contribute to the development of a sense of self-efficacy (Dörnyei, 1998).

Dörnyei (1998) identifies four mechanisms by which goals affect performance: firstly students expend direct effort on activities identified as relevant to achieving the goal, at the expense of those activities deemed irrelevant; secondly students adjust their effort to suit the difficulty level of the task; thirdly, goals encourage students to persevere until the goal is accomplished and lastly, students are more likely to select strategies that will lead to the accomplishment of the goal.

2.3.4.4.2 Goal orientation theory

Achievement goal orientation theory was specifically developed by Pintrich and Schunk (1996 in Dörnyei, 1998) to account for children's school learning experiences. It “describes the different purposes that students adopt for engaging in academic tasks” (Turner & Patrick, 2004, p.1761). The theory provides two achievement goal constructs, namely mastery and performance orientation (Dörnyei, 1998; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Pintrich, Conley & Kempler, 2003). Other labels for these two orientations include learning and performance goals (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), task and ability goals (Maehr & Midgley, 1996 in Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002) and task-involved and ego-involved goals (Nicholls, 1984).

These are opposing orientations representing different sets of criteria for success and different motivations for engaging in a task in the first place (Dörnyei, 1998). Mastery goals focus on self-improvement and personal growth, while performance goals are focused on achieving the goal and the public recognition that goes along with successfully reaching the goal (Dörnyei, 1998). Ames (1992 in Dörnyei, 1998), maintains that mastery goals are preferable because they are most likely accompanied by an intrinsic interest in learning, and result in a preference for more challenging tasks. Pintrich et al (2003) make a distinction between achievement goals and orientations, which are taken to refer to what students are aiming to achieve at a task-specific level and achievement motives, which are defined as more general constructs, applicable in all achievement situations. In addition to this, achievement goal orientations are not

only applicable to the individual, but can be transferred to the group situation (Turner & Patrick, 2004).

Mastery

Ames (1992 in Linnenbrink and Pintrich, 2002) defines a mastery goal orientation as one in which students strive to develop skills and master content according to standards they have set for themselves. Mastery goals are more likely to result in heightened motivation because students are focused on solving the problem, understanding concepts and are absorbed in the task at hand (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

Performance

Students who are performance oriented are more prone to anxiety because of their competitiveness with others (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). They may also be more inclined to be distracted by irrelevant thoughts like worrying about how they compare to others rather than engaging with the task at hand (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). The performance goal construct has been elaborated on by achievement goal theorists, who, in the 1990s made a distinction between performance-approach and performance-avoidance orientations (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). Performance-approach refers to students' competitive characteristics which result in them trying to outdo other students, while performance-avoidance goals manifest themselves when students try to avoid looking incompetent in front of others (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

The individual level is the most complex of the four levels comprising the theoretical framework. Due to the overlapping nature of many of the theories, some were favoured at the expense of others during the data collection process.

2.4 SOUTH AFRICAN STUDIES ON MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH

A quantitative study by Madileng (2007) investigated the correlation between performance and language learning motivation among first-year National Intermediate Certificate (NIC) students in the Business Studies Division of an FET college in Gauteng. She found that there was not a significant correlation between motivation variables and ESL proficiency.

Coetzee-Van Rooy (2002) has conducted a number of studies into aspects of English language learning and motivational variables among South African students. Some of her findings have been cited in the review of the literature above.

Kanjira (2008) investigated the motivation and attitudes towards ESL among high school learners in rural KwaZulu-Natal. He found that the students were intrinsically motivated and had an instrumental orientation. Factors identified as having a negative impact on the students included

peer pressure; teacher factors; a lack of opportunities to practice English; poor educational foundations laid by primary schools and a lack of resources.

Molebatsi (2001) conducted a study in Qwaqwa to determine reasons for a lack of success in learning English among high school students. He identified the following as factors impacting on English learning: motivation, teacher versatility, learner participation and use of the L2 by teachers and learners.

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced the theoretical framework for the study. Dörnyei's (1998) Extended Framework of Motivation was adapted and extended to create this theoretical framework. Four levels of motivation were identified, namely the language level, the programme level, the classroom level and the individual level.

The first three levels are based on a socio-linguistic model of motivation and focus mainly on contextual aspects interacting with motivation and English language learning. The individual level addresses affective and cognitive variables. Due to the complexity of language learning motivation, each of the four levels contains a number of factors that play a role in motivation.

This chapter:

- provided a historical overview of motivation in the ESL context
- suggested a theoretical framework within which the various motivational factors can be understood identified other South African studies that have focused on language learning motivation.

In Chapter 3, the research approach and methods employed in the collection and analysis of data are described and explained.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the choices made around designing the research. This is to ensure that the study can be replicated; to allow for the validity and reliability of the findings to be interrogated and for the appropriateness of the methods to be evaluated. Firstly, the research questions are discussed. This is followed by an overview of the research design. Thereafter, the nature of a case study is described. Next follows a discussion of qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods in research, followed by the rationale for combining these two paradigms for this specific study. This is followed by a description of the site selection and sampling procedures. Then the data collection process is described, which includes the design of data collection instruments, pilot studies and sampling decisions. A discussion of the ethical considerations taken into account in conducting the study follows. Finally, measures taken to ensure that the data is reliable and valid are described and discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aim of this study is to understand the interaction between motivation and English language learning among marketing students at an FET college. To achieve this goal, the study seeks to answer the following research questions:

- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the language level?
- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the programme level?
- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the classroom level?
- Which motivational factors are perceived as influential at the individual level?
- How do these factors interact?

The research design aims to investigate students' perceptions of English language learning in their specific context; their attitude to English as a language and English language speakers and the impact of individual differences on their motivation to learn English.

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

The overarching research approach of this study is constructivist in nature. Firstly, because the study aims to understand a phenomenon. Secondly, because the underlying assumption is that knowledge is fluid and socially constructed. It also takes cognisance of the existence of multiple realities. Lastly, the unique context in which the study is situated is taken into consideration for

analysis and interpretation of the data. Noels and Giles (2009 in MacIntyre et al, 2010, p.7) assert that the “combination of methods and models offers great potential for the generation of new ideas, new knowledge and new practices in the study of language learning and motivation”. For these reasons, a mixed method case study has been identified as the most appropriate method.

3.3.1 CASE STUDY

A case study can be defined as “[a]n empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence” (Noor, 2008, p. 1602). Case studies usually focus on a specific issue and as such, are useful in understanding a specific situation (Noor, 2008). Because of this perspective, case studies fall firmly into the social constructivist view of the social sciences (Stark & Torrance, 2005).

A case study aims to identify and describe a specific context or social reality before analysing the data. An in-depth study of the specific case is preferred over the aim of generalising findings to a larger population (Stark & Torrance, 2005).

This does not however mean that a case study is not generalisable. Gerring (2004, p.342) provides a novel definition, namely “[a]n intensive study of a single unit for the purpose of understanding a larger class of (similar) units”. This definition allows us to challenge the common complaint that case studies are notoriously ungeneralisable. Even though one case may not strictly speaking be enough to generalise, it can serve to highlight more general issues (Stark & Torrance, 2005).

In addition to this, case studies can use one example of a phenomenon and apply a variety of tools to collect data with which to interrogate the specific phenomenon in context and from the perspective of the participants (Stark & Torrance, 2005). The context will determine the boundaries that are put in place – selecting what to include and exclude from the study (Ragin & Becker, 1992 in Stark & Torrance, 2005).

Due to the nature of the study, which is an investigation into the very complex phenomenon of motivation in English language learning, a case study approach is the most appropriate. According to Ryan (2006, p.75), case studies “are useful for examining levels of complexity that might otherwise be difficult to reveal”.

The case study involves the collection and use of various sources of data, which, apart from being one of its main strengths (Denscombe, 2007), makes it ideally suited to a qualitative approach (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

3.3.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2003, p.3), qualitative research is “a situated activity that

locates the observer in the world”. Its purpose is to make the world visible through a naturalistic approach. The aim is to understand the world through the meanings that people bring to it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

Strauss and Corbin (1998, p.10) define qualitative research as “any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification”. Qualitative research depends on ‘thick description’ which suits a case study – seeking a deeper, rather than broader understanding of the specific situation under investigation (Ercikan & Roth, 2006).

Qualitative methods also allow the researcher to gain access to the participants’ perspectives rather than focusing on the researcher’s own interpretations. Strauss and Corbin (1998, p.11) explain that qualitative research is “carried out for the purpose of discovering concepts and relationships in raw data and then organising these.” Cresswell and Clark (2006) assert that the defining aspect of qualitative data is its open-ended nature.

3.3.3 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Traditionally, motivation research has relied heavily on quantitative measures to obtain data – specifically large-scale questionnaire surveys (Dörnyei, 2008). Cresswell and Clark (2006) point out that quantitative data relies on closed-ended information. Thus, such an approach has its limitations. On the plus side, it is relatively quick and economical to collect the data. It does not, however provide the ‘thick description’ one would hope to gain from a qualitative approach.

The numbers used to quantify data not only provide information about the research context, it also reflects a socially constructed reality (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006).

This study has therefore made use of both qualitative and quantitative tools to collect data.

3.3.4 MIXED METHOD RESEARCH

Mixed methods research makes use of collecting and analysing both qualitative and quantitative data (Cresswell & Clark, 2006; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). By combining both qualitative and quantitative methods, the shortcomings of both can be compensated for. It provides deeper insight into the phenomenon than if one were to only consider a single approach to the data (Cresswell & Clark, 2006). MacIntyre et al (2010) point out that the qualitative section of a study may reveal certain aspects of motivation while it omits others. While qualitative instruments yield rich description, it falls short in identifying trends (MacIntyre et al, 2010). Conversely, interesting cases are often dismissed as outliers in quantitative studies (MacIntyre et al, 2010).

Making use of a mixed method design lends itself to induction and deduction, as well as

abduction (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004 in Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Induction refers to the discovery of patterns as they emerge from the data, deduction allows for the testing of hypotheses, while abduction permits the uncovering of the most relevant explanations with which to understand and interpret the results (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006).

Two general purposes for conducting this study using mixed methods, were identified: triangulation and complementarity (Bryman, 2006). Triangulation is the convergence of findings from different methods used to explore the same phenomenon (Bryman, 2006). Complementarity seeks to elaborate, enhance or clarify the results from one method to that of another (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006).

The data however, need to be integrated to constitute a mixed method and thus form a more complete picture of the problem under investigation (Cresswell & Clark, 2006). This does not mean that the researcher assigns equal weighting to the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study (Denscombe, 2007).

A dominant-less dominant design (Dörnyei, 2001) was selected for this study. The dominant approach is qualitative, consisting of three focus group discussions, with a less-dominant quantitative component, comprising a questionnaire. The quantitative data has been embedded in the qualitative data (Cresswell & Clark, 2006) to ensure that the interpretation of the quantitative data could be guided by the insights provided by the qualitative data. The focus group discussions were conducted first, as the main data gathering tool. A closed-ended questionnaire was produced to build on the information gained during focus group discussions. The quantitative data elicited by the questionnaire served the subsidiary purpose of validating the findings of the focus groups.

The study can be typified as a basic concurrent mixed design (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006): qualitative and quantitative data was collected separately at roughly the same time; the data analysis was conducted separately and the two parts of the study were integrated only once the data from each instrument had been analysed.

Denscombe (2007) lists the three features that characterise mixed method research, as:

- The combination of traditionally dichotomous approaches in a single study
- The use of triangulation to link the two approaches
- Pragmatism, the overriding aim of which is to seek a practical solution to real-world problems

The assumptions made about the nature of knowledge in pragmatism are based on practical considerations such as 'what works'. The premise is that knowledge is a product of a specific place in time and is therefore provisional and there is acknowledgement that there is no absolute truth (Denscombe, 2007).

A disadvantage of mixed method research, which occurred in this study, is that different methods may not yield the same results (Denscombe, 2007). This was not however treated as a set-back, because it served to highlight areas that needed closer inspection before reporting any findings. Furthermore, using mixed methods allowed for better instrument construction (Bryman, 2006), because the qualitative responses could be used to refine the wording of the questionnaire. It also improved the credibility of the study. Because data is collected using instruments from two research paradigms, the integrity of the findings is enhanced (Bryman, 2006). Including a qualitative component provided a contextual understanding that would not have been possible using the questionnaire alone (Bryman, 2006). The qualitative data could be used to illustrate and explain quantitative findings or to reveal meaning through the interaction between the qualitative and quantitative components of the study (Bryman, 2006).

3.4 SITE SELECTION AND PARTICIPANTS

The study was conducted at an urban FET college, among students enrolled for a National Certificate (Vocational) or NC(V) marketing qualification. This is a three-year programme, equivalent to a National Certificate Senior (NCS) at NQF level 4. The FET college selected for the study was one of the better performing colleges in the province.

The study made use of two data gathering instruments, namely focus group interviews and a questionnaire. Focus group participants were selected by asking for volunteers to participate in the discussions. The rationale for this was to ensure that participants would have an opinion and want to make a contribution to the discussion. Levels 2 and 3 had five participants each. There were six participants in the level 4 focus group. This was deemed an appropriate number of participants. The relatively small number of participants ensured that each participant would have an opportunity to express their views, while still affording a range of opinions.

Questionnaires were distributed to all students present at college on the day allocated for administration of the questionnaire. Of a total population of 277, 195 questionnaires were administered, of which 53 had to be discarded for various reasons (discussed under 3.7). A total of 70% of the population completed the questionnaire. After an initial processing of the questionnaires, 73% of the sample was retained for analysis. Level 2 students comprised 30% of the study – 43 students; level 3 students comprised 27% - 38 students and Level 4 comprised 43% - 61 students.

The participants in the study completed a biographical data section in the questionnaire to enable the researcher to provide background information about the participants. This allowed for a fuller picture of the context to emerge. Summaries of this information are presented in TABLES 3.1 and 3.2.

Demographics of participants (in percentages)		
NC(V) Level	2	30
	3	27
	4	43
Age	<18	1
	18-19	15
	20-21	44
	22-25	37
	25+	3
Gender	Male	37
	Female	63
Household monthly income	Less than R1000	22
	R1000 – R2000	30
	R2000 – R5000	19
	R5000 – R10 000	15
	R10 000 +	15
Housing	College hostel	1
	Alone	8
	House/flat with other students	11
	With parents	58
	With other family members	22

Table 3.1 Demographic information of the questionnaire participants

Educational history of participants (in percentages)		
Highest grade passed	10	2
	11	19
	12	79
First encounter with English as LOLT	Grade 1	56
	Grade 4	30
	Grade 8	7
	Grade 10	7
Type of school attended	Rural	17
	Urban township	65
	Ex-model C	12
	Private	6

Table 3.2 Educational history of the questionnaire participants

Of the participants whose questionnaires were included for presentation and analysis, 37% were male and 63% female. Only 1% was younger than 18 years of age; 15% were between the ages of 18 and 19; 44% were between 20 and 21; 37% were between 22 and 25 and 3% were older than 25. All participants' home language was Xhosa.

79% of participants had completed grade 12; 19% had completed grade 11 and 2% had completed grade 10. No participants had completed a lower grade than grade 10.

Participants were asked to indicate the mark they recalled receiving for their previous English assessment. When the data was compared to their actual scores as recorded on the class lists by their lecturers, it emerged that participants were not entirely accurate in their responses. The difference between their self-reported marks and actual marks is summarised in Table 3.3 below:

% obtained	% of participants indicating this score	Actual % of students obtaining this score	Discrepancy
0-29%	1%	2%	+/- 1%
30-39%	4%	3%	+/- 1%
40-49%	7%	11%	+/- 2%
50-59%	17%	30%	+/- 13%
60-69%	30%	34%	+/- 4%
70-79%	26%	15%	+/- 9%
80-100%	16%	5%	+/- 9%

Table 3.3: Discrepancy between reported and actual results

One of the initial stimuli for engaging in this study was the worryingly low levels of English class attendance. The attendance for participants who completed the questionnaire was calculated to verify this perception. Table 3.4 below compares class attendance to participants' actual assessment scores.

% obtained in most recent assessment/% average attendance of students	Actual % of students obtaining this score	% of students with this % class attendance
0-29%	2%	22%
30-39%	3%	20%
40-49%	11%	15%
50-59%	30%	13%
60-69%	34%	9%
70-79%	15%	9%
80-100%	5%	12%

Table 3.4: Comparison of participants' performance and attendance

Only 12% of participants had a class attendance of over 80%. Another 18% had a class attendance of over 60%. This means that only 30% of participants attended classes more than 60% of the time.

Yet 54% had assessment scores of over 60%.

The majority of participants (86%) were first exposed to English as the language of learning and teaching by grade 4. Fifty-six percent were taught in English from grade 1, while 30% were taught in English from grade 4. Only 14% reported being taught in English for the first time in high school.

Most participants attended urban township schools (65%). Seventeen percent attended schools in rural areas; 12% attended ex-Model C schools and 6% attended private schools.

The majority of participants live with their parents or other family members (80%). Twenty-two percent reported a total monthly household income of less than R1000.00; 30% had a total monthly household income of R1000.00-R2000.00; 19% reported an income of between R2000.00 and R5000.00. Thirty percent of participants indicated that their total monthly household income is above R5000.00, which means that 70% of participants' households had an income of below R5000.00 per month.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

The approach to collecting focus group data was based on the shared-understanding model, rather than viewing the focus groups as an information-extraction exercise (Ryan, 2006). The interviewer actively engaged with participants and aimed to gain insights into how they viewed their specific experiences (Ryan, 2006). In this interpersonal interaction, the interviewer's personality played a role in making participants feel comfortable and willing to express their opinions freely without fear of reproach or judgement. This allowed participants' interpretations to produce meaningful insights into how they perceive their world.

Interviews were semi-structured: 12 guiding questions were generated based on the theory covered in the review of the literature. For a list of these questions, see Appendix B. The interviewer allowed participants to speak freely and therefore sometimes stray off the topic. This was viewed as valuable because it revealed what the participants valued most and wanted to discuss. It also provided very rich data with powerful statements made by participants about who they are and how they see their world in relation to learning English.

The shared-understanding model was ideally suited to this study because of the extensive theoretical framework that was able to inform all decisions made with regard to the research approach. As Ryan (2006, p.79) points out: "when it comes to analysis, the model does not assume that the researcher cannot apply a theoretical framework that yields alternative understandings of the interviewee's experience."

3.5.1 FOCUS GROUPS

3.5.1.1 Purpose and nature of focus groups

One of the reasons for having chosen focus group interviews over individual interviews was that I felt students would be more comfortable in a group and would feel less pressurised, since they are not native English speakers. In addition to this I had to consider time factors involved in transcribing a large number of individual interviews. Lastly, the study analysed group factors of motivation, which could be better accessed through group interviews than individual interviews. Stark and Torrance (2005) assert that group norms can be better accessed and insights gained through focus group discussions which are not as easily achieved through individual interviews. Participants are engaged in a more natural form of communication than what would be possible in a face-to-face interview. Wilkinson & Birmingham (2003, p.92) assert, “ ... the discussion will be richer, deeper and more honest and incisive than any interview with a single participant could produce”. In addition to this, the interviewer is able to observe participants’ interaction with each other, to what extent they agree and disagree with one another and body language in reaction to the questions posed by the interviewer (Stark & Torrance, 2005).

A criticism of the reliance on interviews as a data collection tool, namely that it reduces the data to the ‘here-and-now’ of participants’ perceptions, can be counteracted by paying attention to the literature and determining how participants’ responses compare (Stark & Torrance, 2005).

In this study, focus group questions were carefully constructed to access the largest possible number of relevant constructs. The interviewer sought to elicit memories, explanations, descriptions and aspirations from participants.

The purpose of the focus group interviews was to elicit responses to and gain insight (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003) into a specific topic, namely student perceptions of the interactions between English language learning and motivation. Another intention was to use the interaction among members of the group to gain information and uncover their shared experiences (Denscombe, 2007), motivations, attitudes and behaviours (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). The role of the interviewer was to facilitate this process.

The group discussions resulted in one of two outcomes: either participants discussed a question after which they reached consensus or participants overtly disagreed on some point. Both outcomes are valuable because they reveal participants’ reasoning and provide insights into why they hold specific views (Denscombe, 2007).

The words used by participants are crucial in understanding their experiences, realities,

points of view and expressions of self (Stark & Torrance, 2005). This provides the researcher with multiple meanings that makes the interpretation of the data a critical part of the research process (Stark & Torrance, 2005). Therefore this study has relied heavily on the theoretical framework to guide the analysis of data.

3.5.1.2 Piloting of focus groups

The focus group discussions were piloted with a group of students from another division of the college, from the one used in the study. The purpose of the pilot was to practice interviewing participants; to clarify the amount of time each focus group interview would take; to look at the preliminary feedback received from the pilot group and to ensure that the questions selected for the focus group discussions yielded the sort of responses that would best contribute to answering the research questions of the study.

The pilot brought to light the following:

- The researcher spoke too much during the interview and had to take care during the actual focus group discussions to avoid repeating this mistake
- The researcher sometimes prompted participants too much and had to avoid doing so during the actual focus group discussions
- The researcher often did not pause for long enough to allow for a considered response from participants and had to consciously allow for silent periods during the administration of focus group discussions
- The researcher asked more than one question at a time, which did not permit participants to supply a focused answer and thus had to avoid doing this during the administration of the actual focus group discussions

3.5.1.3 Administration of focus groups

The focus group discussions formed phase 1 of the data collection process. Three groups of 5 – 6 participants each were interviewed over a two-day period. Each interview lasted approximately one hour. All interviews were audio- and video recorded for the purpose of transcribing pertinent extracts. These transcripts have been included in Appendix C.

The researcher conducted all three focus group discussions. Students were grouped according to the three different NQF levels (2, 3 & 4). The reasoning behind this was to build a profile of a cross-section of marketing students' perceptions about English language learning motivation as well as to ascertain whether there are any significant differences between the perceptions of students in different levels.

The researcher posed questions as stimuli for discussion and allowed for a fair amount of

digression. The researcher also worked hard to ensure that there was a climate of trust between her and the participants to allow for open, honest responses from participants. Although discussions were video recorded, participants were assured that their identity would remain confidential and that their responses would not be linked to their person, but reported anonymously. They were also assured that the researcher would not reveal any private thoughts expressed by individuals during the discussion to any third party. Participants were also cautioned to keep the content of the discussion to themselves and not reveal confidential information about fellow participants to third parties.

3.5.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

3.5.2.1 Purpose and nature of questionnaires

The questionnaire used in this study was expressly designed as a tool for collecting information about marketing students' beliefs, perceptions and attitudes towards the learning of English as a second language in their marketing course. The purpose of the questionnaire was to complement and validate the analysis of the focus group data.

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003, p.8) point out a number of benefits associated with the use of questionnaires: they are usually inexpensive to administer; very little training is needed to administer them; and they can be easily and quickly analysed once completed. In addition to this, questionnaires allow one to collect relatively large amounts of data; they ensure participant anonymity (in a way that is not possible when a video recording of proceedings is made); once the questionnaire has been developed, it can be re-used and questionnaires are reliable instruments for gathering data that can be analysed quickly and accurately (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003)

Participants were asked a set of direct questions based on the theoretical framework underpinning this study. Questions were constructed to be as clear as possible so as to avoid misunderstandings or misinterpretations. Language difficulty was kept to a minimum, avoiding the use of jargon to ensure that respondents had the best possible chance of comprehending questions fully.

Leading questions were avoided to prevent respondents from selecting the most socially desirable response from the multiple-choice options. Options available to respondents were: strongly agree; agree; disagree and strongly disagree. Four options were deliberately presented for each question to avoid neutral responses.

Although questionnaires afford wider coverage and limit the researcher's personal interaction with respondents, there is a danger that many responses will have to be discarded for validity reasons and the researcher has no real way of gauging whether

responses are truthful. Questionnaires contained 61 questions, roughly divided among the 4 levels according to the number of theories informing each level: 15 questions focused on the language level; 20 questions focused on the individual level; 19 questions focused on the classroom level and 5 focused on the programme level.

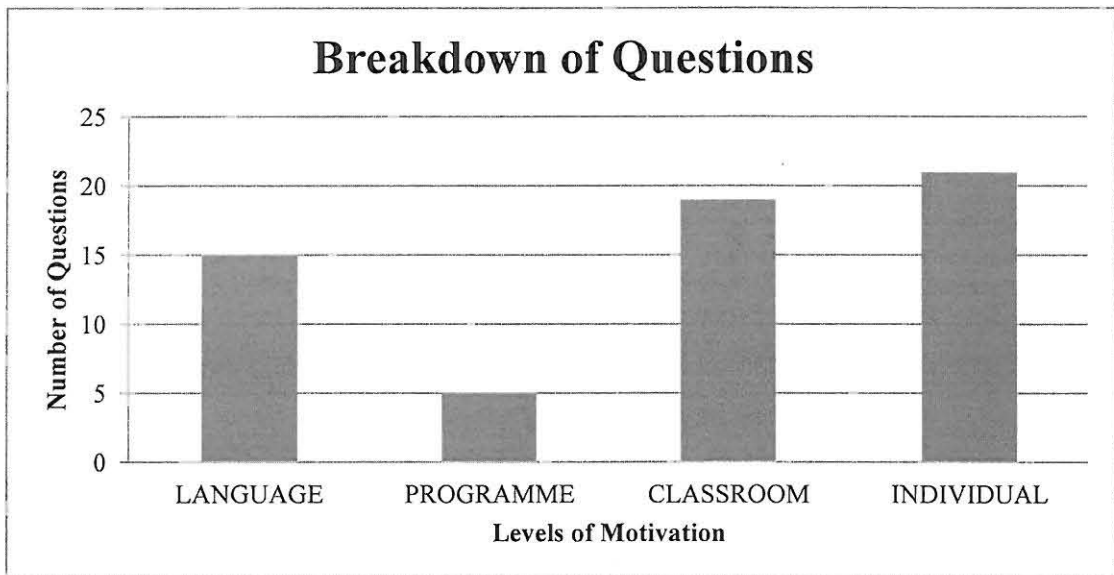


Figure 3.1: Breakdown of questions per level

3.5.2.2 Piloting of questionnaires

Questionnaires were piloted with the class of the students who participated in the pilot focus group discussion. The main aim of the pilot was to determine the amount of time needed by students to complete the questionnaire. Other factors that were taken into account were identifying those questions that students had difficulty understanding and those questions that were left out by respondents. Once the pilot was completed, it was also possible to reshuffle questions to make indexing, capturing and analysis of the data simpler.

3.5.2.3 Administration of questionnaires

Of a total population of 277, 195 questionnaires were distributed to students. All students who attended English on the day of administration were asked to complete a questionnaire. Respondents were informed that they were under no obligation to complete the questionnaire, but no-one declined to sign the consent form and complete the questionnaire. Questionnaires took 20-30 minutes to complete.

The researcher personally went to each class group to administer the questionnaire, which meant that conditions of completion were the same for every student.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

For the purpose of analysis, the following were considered (Holloway & Jefferson, 2000 in Ryan 2006):

- Participants may apply different filters to make meaning from the interviewer's questions
- Participants may knowingly or unknowingly respond in ways that protect vulnerable aspects of themselves
- Participants may be unaware of why they experience certain things in certain ways

To analyse the focus group data, the transcriptions of focus group interview were coded and the number of utterances tallied to compare the relative prominence of each of the factors under discussion. From these factors, a number of broader themes were identified, which were used to extract meaning from the data.

The questionnaire data were indexed, providing a numerical value for each factor measured in the questionnaire. These numerical values were contrasted to determine relative prominence. This allowed the researcher to make judgements about the meaning of the questionnaire results.

3.6.1 PROCESSING OF FOCUS GROUP DATA

The focus group discussions were audio- and video recorded and several back-up copies made. The recordings were transcribed for coding purposes. Items in the theoretical framework were numbered and these numbers used to code both the focus group questions and responses. Number of responses per code was tallied to prepare the data for analysis.

3.6.2 PROCESSING OF QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

Questionnaires consisted of two sections. Section 1 comprised questions regarding demographic information. Responses were summarised and captured on a spread sheet. Section 2 consisted of questions related to student motivation. Each questionnaire was assigned a number based on the class group (e.g. A, B, C, etc.) and level (e.g. 2, 3 or 4) of each student, to ensure that additional information like attendance and results could be accessed from the class lists using student identity numbers without requiring the name of the student, thus ensuring anonymity.

Responses were assigned a numerical value: *strongly agree* was assigned the value of 2; *agree* was assigned 1; *disagree* was assigned -1 and *strongly disagree* was assigned -2. This allowed an index to be created for each question included in the questionnaire. The formula used to calculate the index was: $(\% \text{ strongly agree} \times 2) + (\% \text{ agree} \times 1) + (\% \text{ disagree} \times -1) + (\% \text{ strongly disagree} \times -2)$. Thus, a summary index was created per question, for the full sample, that had a possible range of -200 to 200. This allowed for a judgement to be made by the researcher regarding the perceptions of the students with reference to their language learning motivation at a question level. This meant that

agreement increased the value of the index while disagreement decreased it. Thus, -200 indicated a full sample response of *strongly disagree*; -100 indicating a majority response of *disagree*; 0 indicating a neutral response; 100 indicating a majority response of *agree* and 200 indicating a full sample response of *strongly agree*. Figure 3.2 provides an illustration of the continuum along which indices were interpreted.

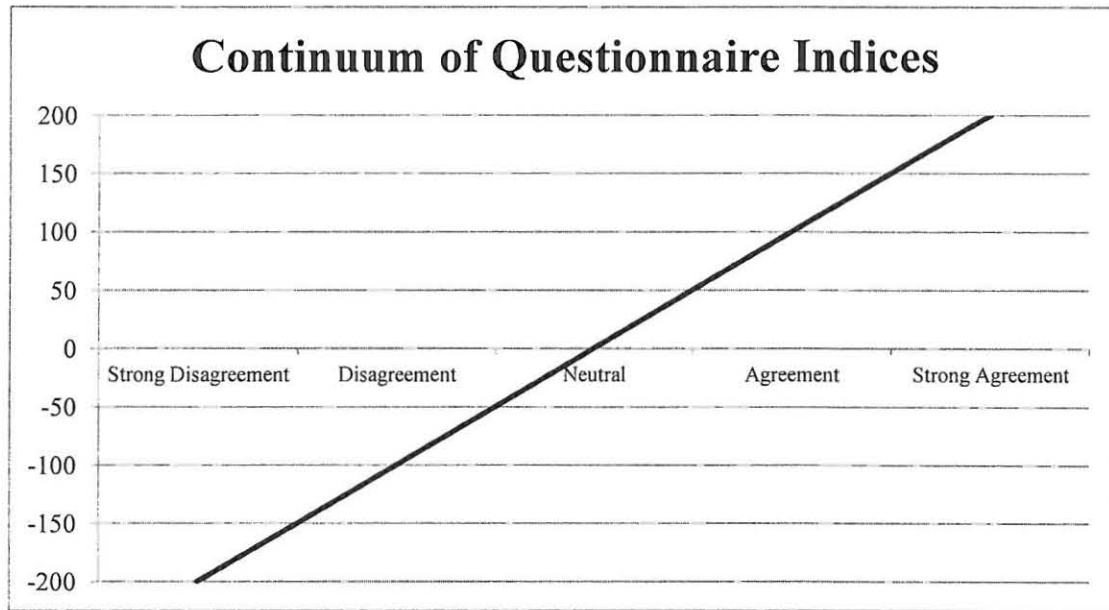


Figure 3.2: Continuum of questionnaire indices

Indices were also aggregated to calculate an index per level and theoretical factor, according to which the questionnaire was constructed. This value permitted a comparison to be made regarding which factors and levels appeared to be most prominent. The calculation for this aggregated index was: $(\text{sum of indices per question}) / (\text{number of questions})$. For this level of analysis, values were no longer interpreted along the continuum presented in Figure 3.2, but the values compared to evaluate whether a certain factor was more prominent than another.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The following ethical considerations were taken into account during the data collection process (Denscombe, 2007):

- Respect for the rights and dignity of participants
- Avoidance of harm arising from their participation
- Honesty and integrity throughout the process

The researcher took care to ensure that participants would not be worse off after their participation in either focus group discussions or completion of questionnaires. Students were interviewed during

official college hours, but at times when they were free from class attendance obligations. Students completed the questionnaires during English lessons, but this was combined with a lesson on filling in forms and questionnaires so as not to detract from class time. No individuals were unfairly advantaged due to their participation in the study.

Participants in focus groups were free to respond to those questions they chose to respond to, but were not forced to answer any questions with which they did not feel comfortable. In addition to this, participants volunteered to participate in the focus group discussions with full knowledge of the topic and the reasons for conducting of the study. Participants' anonymity and confidentiality of their responses were assured.

The researcher was open and honest with participants in the focus groups as well as those completing questionnaires about the nature and purpose of the study, and the role they would play in the research process was explained.

Participants were required to give their informed consent for participation in both the focus groups and questionnaires. Because all students were over 16, parental consent was not required. The CEO of the college and HOD of the Business Studies Division were also approached in writing to give their consent for the study to be conducted. Examples of the various consent documentation are attached as Appendices E1-E3.

Other ethical considerations included: awareness on the part of the researcher that she was in an unequal power relationship with the participants and a recognition of the fragility of the trust established between researcher and participants. The trust relationship between researcher and participants was used to counteract any inequalities in power and thus tempered the interviewer effect. Ethnicity was explicitly addressed during the focus group interviews, and the expression of students' honest opinions was encouraged through a non-judgemental and accepting attitude from the researcher.

3.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability is taken to mean the trustworthiness of the instruments, the methodology and the approach. Validity is taken to mean the trustworthiness of the interpretation of the data. Cresswell and Miller (2000) define validity as the accuracy with which the researcher's interpretation represents the participants' realities. Their assumption is that validity refers to the inferences drawn from the data.

The mixed method approach used in this study contributed to the validity of the data because the findings from one method could be checked against the findings of the other method (Denscombe, 2007). In addition to this, the data collected in the focus groups contributed to the design of the questionnaire, thus ensuring that the questionnaire was appropriately worded.

Although extracts from transcripts were used in the presentation and analysis of data, full transcriptions are provided in Appendix C. In addition to this, the context in which the interactions took place is described fully in the text to provide a rich, thick description. This will enable the reader to judge the validity of the findings (Cresswell & Miller, 2006). Care has also been taken to make a fair selection of what extracts to include, based on the theory and guided by participant responses.

Having established a rapport with many of the participants over a number of years meant that the researcher had an intimate knowledge of the context in which the participants found themselves. This prolonged engagement in the field (Cresswell & Miller, 2006) allowed the researcher to build trust with the participants which encouraged the expression of their opinions without reservation. The researcher could therefore gain a better understanding of participants' perspectives and perceptions. A section on the role of the researcher has been included in Chapter 5.

Quantitative data was collected through the administration of questionnaires. 195 questionnaires were distributed of which 53 had to be discarded. One of the criteria for discarding a questionnaire was whether a sufficient proportion of the document had been completed. If a participant omitted only one or two questions, the calculations for that question were adjusted to compensate for this and the questionnaire retained. If however a participant omitted ten or more questions, the questionnaire was discarded. These questionnaires were deemed to contain insufficient data. Twelve questionnaires fell into this category.

Questionnaires were discarded where a response set was evident (Wolfaardt & Roodt, 2005), for example where a participant checked only the 'strongly agree' or 'disagree' boxes, or where participants provided alternate responses, for example ticking 'agree' and 'disagree' alternately throughout the questionnaire. These participants were deemed unreliable. Only three questionnaires fell into this category.

Questions 23 and 36 as well as 43 and 56 were repeated in the questionnaire as a measure of internal validity. Participants who reported opposing attitudes in response to the repeated questions were discarded. These participants were similarly deemed unreliable. A total of 38 questionnaires fell into this category.

To measure the internal reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was calculated using Microsoft Excel. This measure was deemed most appropriate because it is specifically designed to calculate the coefficient of items that are not dichotomous, but continuous (Wolfaardt & Roodt, 2005). Therefore, if the questionnaire had asked participants to respond with just a 'yes' or 'no', other measures could have been employed. But because there were four responses to choose from and from these an index generated per question which was interpreted on a continuum, Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was the most suitable measure.

The full data set of 60 questions and 142 participants was used in the calculation. Negatively phrased questions were numerically reversed so as not to affect the accuracy of the calculations. Wolfaardt and Roodt (2005, p.31) assert that an acceptable score is “0.65 or higher for [making] decisions about groups” therefore any result above 0.65 was deemed appropriate. Four coefficients were calculated:

- language level questions only
- programme and classroom level questions only
- individual level questions only
- the whole questionnaire

Results of these calculations are presented below. When the questionnaire was divided into three broad levels, the internal reliability was evaluated as sufficient, since the four coefficients were all 0.65 or higher. When taken as a whole, the internal reliability of the questionnaire is significantly higher at 0.81. These results indicate that the questionnaire is suitable as an instrument with which to explore collective student motivation.

LEVEL	CRONBACH'S ALPHA COEFFICIENT
Language Level	0.65
Programme/Classroom Level	0.77
Individual Level	0.71
Full Questionnaire	0.81

Table 3.5: Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of reliability

Data from the questionnaire were used to describe aspects of the sample's motivational orientation. Grieve (2005a, p.215) asserts that when an instrument is used to “try to describe the test-takers as they are and in terms of the way they behave at the time of testing”, construct and content validity of the instrument needs to be established. In light of this, four existing motivation measures were consulted to assist in ensuring that the content of the questionnaire was “relevant and representative” (Wolfaardt & Roodt, 2005, p.33). These are:

- The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 2004)
- The Self-Efficacy Scales (Bandura et al, 1996)
- The motivation questionnaire designed and used by Kormos and Dörnyei (2004)
- The Goal Orientation Scale (Midgley, Kaplan, Middleton, Maehr, Urdan, Andermann, L.H., Andermann, E. & Roeser, 1998)

The most recent theoretical contributions of prominent researchers in the field of student motivation were continually sought and consulted during the design phase in particular, as well as

throughout the research, to ensure that the questionnaire was in fact measuring the construct of motivation and to assess the extent to which the indices generated from the questionnaire were valid and therefore suitable for analysis.

The comparison of data between qualitative and quantitative methods was used to triangulate results so as to provide a fuller picture of the phenomenon under investigation, namely student language learning motivation. This approach yielded areas of agreement as well as discrepancies, which made the analysis of data interesting, albeit challenging. This access to comparison allowed the researcher to see motivation among marketing students in English language learning from a wider perspective than would have been possible if only one type of method had been used. This chance to view the same data from different perspectives enhanced the validity of the data, because different methods delivered similar results, and the discrepancies could be explained because of the in-depth understanding by the researcher of the context in which the study took place.

3.9 SUMMARY

This chapter has aimed to provide the following information about the research process:

- To explain and justify my approach to the study.
- To explain and justify my choice of research questions.
- To describe and rationalise my choice of tools and methods.
- To outline the procedures used to collect and prepare data for analysis.

Chapter 4 will present the data collected in the course of the study and provide an analysis thereof.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and analyses the data collected for this study. The presentation section is divided according to the two data collection tools – focus group discussions and questionnaires – and the four levels of motivation used as the framework for this study. The analysis section synthesises the data, comparing and contrasting results to make sense of students' perceptions regarding their motivation in relation to their language learning experiences at college. The analysis section, like the presentation section, has been divided into two parts: one for the analysis of focus group discussion data and the other for the analysis of questionnaire data, and subdivided according to the four levels of the framework.

4.2 PRESENTATION OF DATA

4.2.1 FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Transcriptions were made of all focus groups in their entirety, but only a selection of pertinent extracts has been included in Appendix C.

After transcribing and coding the focus group responses, the frequency of each code was noted to determine which factors participants favoured when offering answers to questions posed by the researcher. Each NQF level was coded and counted separately and thereafter summarised to provide an overview of the full data set. The analysis was based on all the transcribed data, as well as situational and contextual factors. Results were coded according to the theoretical framework created from reviewing the literature and summarised under the broad levels of the framework.

Some factors occurred frequently, while others were not mentioned at all. The short-comings of the level of coverage provided by the interviews were compensated for by including a wider range of questions in the questionnaires. While questions addressed only a limited number of factors from the model, answers covered more areas than just those included in the questions prepared for the discussion. This gave the researcher some insight into which factors were most prominent in participants' minds.

At the language level, identity and instrumentality were most prominent. The programme level also emerged as a relatively dominant factor. At the classroom level, the most prominent factor was group cohesion, which included some teacher-specific references, even though these factors were not directly addressed in the questioning. Achievement, self-efficacy, causal attribution and linguistic self-confidence all emerged as powerful factors from the individual

level. Identity, while very prominent in relation to integrativeness and instrumentality at the language level, did not emerge as a prominent factor at the individual level. A summary of the number of utterances per code for the three focus group discussions together is provided in Table 4.1.

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Utterances	PROGRAMME LEVEL	Utterances
A: Attitude	13	B: Course-specific Factors	
1. Integrative	4	1. Interest	12
a. Self-concept	4	2. Relevance	11
b. Identity	36	3. Expectancy	14
2. Instrumental	49	4. Satisfaction	8
CLASSROOM LEVEL	Utterances	INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	Utterances
C: Lecturer-specific Factors		E: Self-Determination Theory	
1. Affiliative Drive	2	1. Intrinsic (a) Feedback	1
3. (a) modelling	1	3. Autonomy	1
(b) feedback	1	F: Achievement Theory	8
(c) task presentation	1	G: Expectancy-Value Theory	
D: Group-specific Factors		2. Expectancy of task completion	7
1. Goal orientedness	1	(b) Self-efficacy	8
2. Group cohesion	9	(c) Attribution	6
3. Classroom goal structure		(d) Linguistic self-confidence	
(a) competitive	2	i. Willingness to communicate	3
(b) cooperative	1	ii. Language-use anxiety	16
(c) individualistic	1	iii. Perceived L2 competence	8
4. Norm and reward systems	2	H: Goal Theory	
		2. Goal orientation	
		(a) Mastery	6

Table 4.1: Summary of number of utterances

4.2.1.1 Language level

The three focus group discussions were combined and the number of utterances according to codes was added up to provide a guideline regarding the prominence of each factor.

At the language level, attitude, without specific reference to instrumentality or integrativeness, was mentioned 13 times, integrativeness 4 times, identity 36 times and

instrumentality 49 times. Self-concept, which in the focus group discussion referred mainly to possible L2 selves, was mentioned four times.

For the purposes of analysis, self-concept was not considered because of its low prevalence. Integrativeness was, however retained for analysis due to its dichotomous relationship with instrumentality.

4.2.1.2 Programme level

The programme level contains what Dörnyei (1998) originally termed course-specific factors, which comprises four factors, namely interest, relevance, expectancy and satisfaction. These four factors received roughly equal mentions by participants: interest was mentioned 12 times, relevance received 11 mentions, expectancy was mentioned 14 times and satisfaction eight times.

4.2.1.3 Classroom level

The classroom level consists of two components: lecturer-specific factors and group-specific factors. This distinction serves to separate peer influence from the influence of the lecturer. For the purposes of the focus group discussion, teacher-specific factors were not included to avoid the ethical dilemma of discussing colleagues with students and also because the researcher is one of the lecturers and responses would therefore not be reliable or trustworthy.

Group-specific factors did not receive a lot of attention from students and were mostly dismissed as unimportant to their motivation. The most prominent factor to emerge was group cohesion, which received nine mentions. Other factors were mentioned only once or twice: goal orientedness was mentioned once, as was cooperative and individualistic classroom goal structures. Competitive classroom goal structures were mentioned twice as was norm and reward systems in the classroom. Due to its relative significance in comparison to the other factors, only group cohesion has been included in the model.

Even though lecturer-specific factors were not explicitly addressed, five mentions were made regarding lecturers as part of the group-specific factors. Two of these referred to the affiliative drive that students have to 'please the teacher'. Three mentions were made with regard to the direct socialisation of motivation, which includes modelling, feedback and task presentation, each of which received one mention. Teacher-specific factors have been included in the model because even though this factor was not addressed explicitly, it did arise from participant responses. This suggests that participants perceive teacher-specific factors as significant.

4.2.1.4 Individual level

The focus group discussions were heavily weighted in favour of individual factors, not by design, but by the responses that participants offered to questions. In the model of motivation proposed in Chapter 2, the individual level contains by far the most components and sub-categories, which also contributed to some extent to its prevalence.

Individual differences and self-determination did not emerge as prominent factors, with no references to individual differences and only one mention each for feedback and autonomy, which form part of the self-determination component. Goal-setting was not very prominent either, but there was a clear distinction between the mastery and performance orientation, with 100% preference for mastery expressed by participants.

Identity, while it emerged strongly at the language level as a factor that is bound to the actual language being investigated (English), was not as prominent at the individual level. Three factors that participants alluded to were culture and personal identity; social identity and multiple group membership. These three factors have been omitted from the model, however, because they did not emerge explicitly and because in comparison to the prominence of identity at the language level, their significance was deemed negligible.

Achievement theory received 8 mentions and has therefore been included in the analytical model. Expectancy-value, although traditionally utilised at a task-specific level, has been redefined for the purposes of this study as referring to the entire 3-year NC(V) programme. This means that the 3-year programme is viewed as the 'task'. The components of expectancy-value that were most prominent were self-efficacy, mentioned 7 times; causal attribution, which was mentioned 8 times; linguistic self-confidence, mentioned 6 times; perceived L2 competence, mentioned 8 times and language use anxiety, mentioned 16 times. Self-worth in relation to language learning failure and success, did not receive any mention, which is the reason for its omission from the models. Attainment, cost, intrinsic and extrinsic utility factors were also omitted as they were strongly represented at the language level but not at the individual level.

4.2.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

Questions included in the questionnaire were selected with two purposes in mind: firstly, the aim was to cover as large a theoretical area as possible and secondly, an attempt was made to cover those areas that may have been neglected in the focus group discussions.

Based on the index that was created to capture the questionnaire data, the following distinction can be made between the four levels of language motivation that formed the framework of this study: the language level index was 102; the individual level index was 126; the programme

level index was 130 and the classroom level index was 103. TABLE 4.2 provides a summary of the indices per level and theoretical factor.

LANGUAGE LEVEL (102)	Index	PROGRAMME LEVEL (130)	Index
A: Attitude	42	B: Course-specific factors	130
1. Integrativeness	134	1. Interest	111
a. Self-concept	138	2. Relevance	139
i. Hypothetical	168	3. Satisfaction	141
ii. Actual	108		
iii. L2 possible selves	159	INDIVIDUAL LEVEL (126)	Index
b. Identity	-42	E: Self-Determination Theory	137
2. Instrumental	131	1. Intrinsic	140
CLASSROOM LEVEL (103)	Index	3. Autonomy	133
C: Lecturer-specific Factors	134	F: Achievement Theory	141
1. Affiliative drive	147	G: Expectancy-Value Theory	108
2. Authority type	86	2. Expectancy of task completion	
3. Direct socialisation		b. Self-efficacy	69
a. Modelling	148	c. Attribution	133
b. Feedback	148	i. Effort	171
c. Task Presentation	143	ii. Ability	-94
D: Group-specific Factors	71	d. Linguistic self-confidence	92
2. Group cohesion	100	i. Willingness to communicate	103
3. Classroom goal structure	64	ii. Language-use anxiety	13
4. Norm and reward systems	50	iii. Perceived L2 competence	117
		H: Goal Theory	124
		1. Goal setting theory	130
		2. Goal orientation theory	
		a. Mastery	113
		b. Performance	99

Table 4.2: Summary of indices for each level and factor in the questionnaire

Specific factors stood out. At the language level, the instrumental motive and self-concept factors were most prominent. Course-specific factors at the programme level were significantly higher than the group-specific factors at the classroom level. Lecturer-specific factors at the classroom level were deemed important by the participants, but while affiliative drive and direct socialisation of motivation were identified as significant factors, authority type was not. Intrinsic motivation and autonomy were prominent at the individual level, as was causal attribution. In terms of goal orientation, students favoured a mastery orientation, which scored

14 points more than a performance orientation.

4.2.2.1 Language level

Attitude and identity each scored 42 points on the index scale. Since attitude subsumes integrative and instrumental orientations, it was retained for the purposes of analysis, while identity was discarded.

Participants' perception of the self-concept construct was tested with two questions, one proposing a hypothetical situation (...if) and the other an actual situation (...when). While both questions received positive responses, the imagined scenario (...if) scored 168, and the scenario phrased as an actual occurrence scored 108. Also contained within self-concept is the L2 possible selves construct testing how participants view themselves as future English speakers. This construct scored 159.

The overall index for the language level was 102, which marginally gave it the smallest share of the model adjusted to represent the questionnaire data.

4.2.2.2 Programme level

The programme level emerged as the strongest component in the questionnaire data. Course-specific factors were indexed as 130. Some questions attempted to access participants' perceptions of the value of the course: whether they thought it was useful and relevant. Other questions explored how interesting participants found their English classes and whether participants were satisfied that the English course meets their needs. Expectancy was omitted from the questionnaire at this level as it was explored under expectancy-value at the individual level. Interest was indexed as the lowest with 111, while relevance and satisfaction were indexed at roughly 140 each.

4.2.2.3 Classroom level

At the classroom level, two components were included in the questionnaire: lecturer-specific factors and group-specific factors. Group-specific factors were indexed at 71, which was not significant when compared to lecturer-specific factors, which were indexed at 134. For this reason group-specific factors have been omitted from the classroom level in the model.

Lecturer-specific factors comprise three constructs: affiliative drive, authority type and direct socialisation of motivation. Direct socialisation, indexed at 146, contains three aspects: modelling, feedback and task presentation, which were indexed quite equally.

Authority type was indexed as 86. Due to its relative lack of significance within this level, authority type has been omitted from the questionnaire model. Affiliative drive and direct socialisation of motivation both scored roughly 147 and were therefore included in the

model. The overall index for lecturer-specific factors is 134. The classroom level is indexed as 103, which makes it the second-lowest score out of the four.

4.2.2.4 Individual level

Three components emerged as significant at the individual level: self-determination, expectancy-value and goal theory. Based on the overall index for each component, self-determination scored the highest at 137; goal theory scored 124 and the overall score of expectancy-value was 108. At face-value, the overall score of expectancy-value seems insignificant, but the factors contained within this component displayed some significant values.

The two factors of self-determination that participants perceived as most salient were intrinsic motivation which was indexed at 140, followed closely by autonomy at 133.

Two factors emerged as significant from the goal theory construct: goal setting and goal orientation. The goal setting questions attempted to gauge whether participants perceived themselves as putting a lot of effort into learning English; whether they valued success in their English course and whether they aspired to improve their performance in English.

Goal orientation questions were aimed at determining whether students perceived themselves to have a mastery or performance orientation. Mastery was indexed at 113, while performance was indexed at 99.

In the motivation model proposed in Chapter 2, expectancy-value consists of two parts: the value we place on the completion of a task and the extent to which we believe that we can complete a task. While participants clearly indicated their belief that they are capable of completing the task, they did not demonstrate that they place value on the completion of the task. Three factors emerged as significant: self-efficacy, causal attribution and linguistic self-confidence.

The overall score for self-efficacy was 69, but when the two questions were scrutinised more closely, they did emerge as significant indicators of participants' sense of self-efficacy and were therefore retained for the purposes of analysis.

Attribution questions attempted to gauge whether participants attributed academic success to effort or ability. Effort was indexed at 171, while ability was indexed at -94.

Two factors that were prominent in the linguistic self-confidence component were perceived L2 competence, indexed as 117 and willingness to communicate, indexed as 103.

The individual level obtained an overall index of 126, which placed it as the second most prominent of the four levels.

4.3 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

An analytical framework for each of the instruments, namely focus groups and questionnaires was created from the theoretical framework, based on the relative prominence of factors as they emerged from the data. Therefore the data were analysed according to the four levels of the theoretical framework, but with the necessary adjustments, which meant that some factors were omitted from the analysis.

4.3.1 FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

The focus group discussions addressed a limited number of factors in an attempt to access rich responses from participants. The aim was therefore to ask fewer questions, but record responses with greater depth than what is possible when administering a questionnaire. The group situation allowed participants to use responses by others to stimulate their own thinking, which is not possible when completing a questionnaire. This source of rich data could then be used to provide a 'thick description' of participants' perceptions of their own motivational orientations in relation to learning English at college.

Figure 4.1 (p.65) provides a diagrammatic representation of the analytical model utilised for the analysis of the focus group data, depicting the relative prominence of each factor and indicating which factors have been included for analysis. (Refer to Appendix F to view the calculations made in designing this model).

4.3.1.1 Language level

The language level refers to the specific language that students are studying, namely English, since attitudes and orientations towards language learning will differ depending on the language being studied. Included in this level were the following factors: attitude towards English and English-speakers; an integrative orientation originating from a desire to become part of the English-speaking community and an instrumental orientation resulting from the realisation that speaking English can serve many purposes.

Self-concept and identity have been included under integrativeness. Self-concept was used to refer to Dörnyei's (2008) concept of L2 possible selves which states that students who see themselves as excellent future speakers of English will be more motivated to master the language. Since being an excellent speaker of English may be viewed as a desire to be a native-like English speaker, it has been included in the integrative orientation.

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	
F	Achievement theory
G	Expectancy-value theory
2	Expectancy of task completion
b	Self-efficacy
c	Attribution
d	Linguistic self-confidence
(ii)	Language-use anxiety
(iii)	Perceived L2 competence
H	Goal theory
2	Goal orientation
a	Mastery

CLASSROOM LEVEL	
D	Group-specific factors
2	Group cohesion

PROGRAMME LEVEL	
B	Course-specific factors
1	Interest
2	Relevance
3	Expectancy
4	Satisfaction

LANGUAGE LEVEL	
A	Attitude
1	Integrative
b	Identity
2	Instrumental

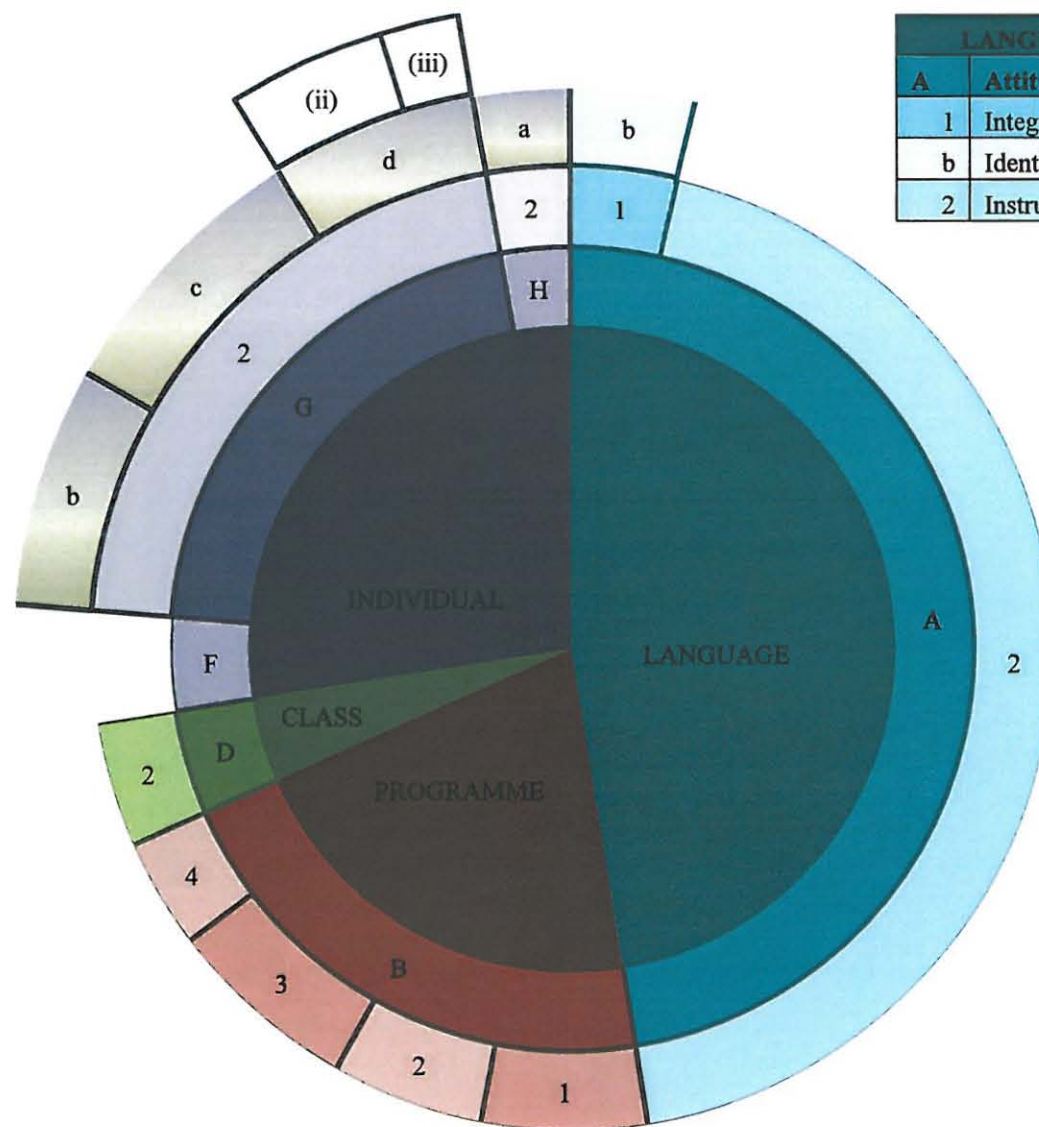


Figure 4.1: Diagrammatic representation of the focus group analytical framework

Identity refers to students' cultural, social and personal identities and how these identities are affected by the acquisition of an additional language. Therefore identity has been included under integrativeness because an integrative orientation holds significant implications for identity.

The two factors that were included in the analysis, namely instrumentality and identity emerged as most prominent from the focus group discussions. Self-concept, attitude and integrativeness as described above were not prominent in relation to identity and instrumentality and have therefore been omitted from the focus group analysis.

4.3.1.1.1 Instrumentality

In response to the question of whether they had a positive attitude towards English and English-speakers, participants explained their positive attitude by referring to the instrumental function of English. Their responses exclusively made mention of the workplace benefits of speaking English.

“... in the workplace you have to speak English”.

“...in a company (working), you have to speak English”.

“In the business world there are many languages, but you need a language that everybody understands. We need one language”.

Even when specifically asked about the usefulness of the English course at college, responses focused on workplace utility:

“...We need fluency for job purposes”.

“...For you marketing career you need English to communicate”.

“It will help marketing students in the long run. We learn how to apply for jobs...”

In response to what parts of the English course they found interesting, one student commented that it interacts with other subjects. But even this reference to the academic utility of English was directly followed by the observation that “...[y]ou can apply it in your future marketing career”.

The prominence of instrumentality overshadowed all other factors at the language level.

4.3.1.1.2 Identity

Identity is included in the integrative orientation, for the reasons mentioned in 4.3.1.1. However, participant responses focused predominantly on how learning English impacts on their social, cultural and personal identities, rather than focusing on the impact of an integrative orientation on their identities. Integrativeness was therefore discarded for the purposes of analysis, while retaining identity for the purposes of analysis.

References to identity emerged almost immediately during the focus group discussions. In response to a question about attitude towards the English language and English speakers, one participant had the following to say:

“I don't feel comfortable speaking English. People think you're a coconut. The people I'm with speak Xhosa. I'm a bit negative towards English”.

In another group, the following exchange took place: One participant said “...if someone speaks English fluently, they undermine someone who doesn't...” to which another participant responded “because we're all different. Fluent people don't understand I'm Xhosa. All black people are not the same. Three different speakers, Xhosa, Tswana, etc. don't have the same accent. People undermine that I speak like Mandela and she (gesturing towards a third participant) speaks it so fluently, like she's a telephone machine or something”.

Participants were presented with a statement and asked to respond to it. The statement “Having to speak English has a negative effect on my home language” elicited the following response:

“...I should stick to my own language and background so as not to forget it, but I have to adapt.”

This participant expressed a desire to remain true to her cultural identity, while at the same time acknowledging the power of English as a global language. Her view was refuted by another participant who stated the following: “We don't have to follow Western culture to speak English. We're not taking the language as our own...you should keep your culture, just using English as a language not a lifestyle”.

This exchange demonstrates the two prevalent views among participants on the matter of culture and identity in relation to learning and having to speak English. The view that it is possible to just use English as a tool was however held by much fewer participants. Most felt that having to speak English impacted negatively on their home language, their culture and their identity, as is evident from the extracts below:

“I had to speak English in primary school. But in high school, if you speak English, people think you treat yourself high, so I had to speak Xhosa”.

“Grandmothers can't speak English. Your mother has to explain the child goes to a white school. The grandmothers say: 'You must take the child back to his roots’”.

“My nieces are fluent in English. When they call people's names in Xhosa, they do it with an English accent and I get angry”.

A noteworthy (almost verbatim) response emerged from each of the three focus groups, independently of each other and unprompted by the researcher, as an immediate,

seemingly automatic response to the question about the impact of English on their identity and home language. Student 4 in group 1 said: “Some people forget about their culture”. Student 2 in group 2 said: “Some people forget about their home language when they know English”. Student 1 in group 3 said: “Some people forget their culture, their roots”. This seems to express a socialised opinion – something that is often discussed in the communities the participants form part of.

Participants also displayed multilingual identities, showing that identity is context-specific and that their social, cultural and personal identities are fluid and dynamic. One participant remarked: “At home you have to be at home – be yourself, speak your language that everyone uses...You need to speak your own language. At work it must be different”. Another participant responded by saying: “Our parents want us to practice English. They motivate us to speak English....Small kids are taught to speak English for the future....but they do speak Xhosa at home. They do their homework in English, but play in Xhosa”.

4.3.1.2 Programme level

The programme level is made up of four course-specific factors, namely interest, relevance, expectancy and satisfaction. Each of these factors were addressed during the focus group discussions and emerged as roughly equal in prominence. The aim of including this level in the adapted motivation model was to explore the extent to which the structure of the programme for which the students have enrolled affects their motivational orientations.

4.3.1.2.1 Relevance

Relevance is related to instrumentality and utility. In response to the question about the usefulness of the English course, participants predictably responded by providing instrumental reasons for why the course is useful. Comments included:

“Is good for marketing”.

“Yes, for what we want to become”.

“...It helps with learning content subjects”.

One participant, Student 2 in group 3, responded negatively: “No, I feel the stuff we're taught from level 2 to 4 is the same thing”. In reaction to her statement, another student had the following to say: “I disagree. I learnt English as second language in high school. My home language is isiXhosa. Learning English at college is useful. To be in a multilingual school we have to speak English. I do find it useful in that manner. I learn to express myself with confidence in English”.

Student 2 later conceded that the English course was useful: “You learn useful things. We've learnt so much already”, but reiterated her dissatisfaction with the English course again later on: “We feel some of the stuff we've already done in high school”. This time the response from another student was more telling: “It feels like a waste of time”.

4.3.1.2.2 Interest

Interest refers to how interested students are to engage in classroom activities. When questioned about how interesting they found English as a subject, participants responded positively. This was incongruous with the English FAL class attendance statistics. Responses included:

“It's interesting and challenging”.

“We learn something new every day”.

“It is interesting the things we do, for example presentations. I enjoy learning about things in general and talking about stuff. We learn things. It gives us new ideas, how to get ideas...”

In practice, students who attended classes were willing to engage in the lessons. However, English FAL attendance was generally poor among students.

4.3.1.2.3 Satisfaction

The question of whether they were satisfied that the English course taught them what they needed was not discussed in as great depth as the other three course-specific factors. Participants were in agreement that they were generally satisfied with what they learnt in the English course, but did not seem to recognise the distinction between the four factors, which resulted in responses that were quite similar to that received for interest.

4.3.1.2.4 Expectancy

In response to what they would like to see as part of their English course, participants from all three groups mentioned oral practice:

“Oral practice – people are not confident in pronunciation”.

“More presentations...”

“Unprepared orals”

“Role plays to perfect our speaking”

“We need more public speaking training”.

“The subject can include debate...to get used to expressing our own ideas”.

Participants not only made reference to formal presentations, but also included other forms of oral practice like unprepared speeches, role plays and debates.

One participant mentioned writing and the fact that students tended to translate from their mother tongue into English when writing, resulting in incorrect word order. The overwhelming call, however, was for more speaking activities to be included in the course.

4.3.1.3 Classroom level

Although the classroom level includes both lecturer-specific and group-specific factors, the focus group interviews dealt exclusively with group-specific factors. As mentioned previously, this was done to avoid discussing colleagues with students and because the researcher was one of the lecturers whose students participated in the focus groups. Responses however did include some mention of lecturer influence on English learning motivation.

In response to whether their experiences of English would be different if they were in a different class group, participants had mixed feelings. Some felt that the group had no impact on their English learning experiences.

“It doesn't matter. It's all about who you are”.

“We don't know what another group is like, so it doesn't matter”.

Others disagreed. Of those who disagreed, one participant referred to the influence of the lecturer on their English learning experiences.

“The person who teaches you English is the one who influences you. If I were in a different class, it wouldn't be okay”.

When lecturer-specific factors were assessed in the questionnaires, it did emerge as a prominent feature of student motivation, while group-specific factors were not deemed as influential.

The focus of participant responses to group-specific factors was group cohesion and the affiliative orientation that accompanies it. One participant characterised his class group as lazy, and expressed a desire to be in another group, demonstrating that he did not share the goals of his class group. Another participant had resigned himself to the practices of his class group, and commented: “We don't attend classes, but we hand in assignments on time”.

4.3.1.4 Individual level

Four broad theories formed the backbone of the analytical framework at the individual level: self-determination theory, expectancy-value theory, achievement theory and goal theory.

Each of these theories contains factors drawn from a number of other theories, which made the individual level the most complex level of the model.

4.3.1.4.1 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory consists of four factors: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, autonomy and amotivation. This theory was not explicitly addressed in the focus groups, because the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy was judged to be less applicable to the context in which the study was conducted. Participants were not engaged in voluntary foreign language learning, but rather in compulsory second language learning. In addition to this, aspects of this theory had been addressed at the language level when instrumentality and integrativeness were explored. Likewise, autonomy and amotivation were covered under causal attributions in expectancy-value theory. Questions relating to self-determination were, however included in the questionnaire, where results were of some significance.

4.3.1.4.2 Expectancy-value theory

Expectancy-value comprises two components, namely expectancy and value. Expectancy is taken to mean the expectation that students have of completing the task, while value refers to the value students place on the completion of the task. Value placed on the completion of the task, did not emerge as a prominent factor during the focus group interviews. Neither did it feature in the questionnaire responses. The four factors of this component, namely attainment value, cost, intrinsic value and extrinsic utility value did, however emerge at the language level.

Expectancy of success is a complex construct, consisting of five factors: self-worth theory, self-efficacy, attribution theory, linguistic self-confidence and goal theory. Linguistic self-confidence contains three further sub-divisions, namely willingness to communicate; language use anxiety and perceived L2 competence. Goal theory is further sub-divided into goal setting and goal orientation.

Not all factors were interrogated during the focus group discussions. In addition to this, some concepts in expectancy are very closely related to one another. Self-worth, self-efficacy, linguistic self-confidence and perceived L2 competence were often interpreted by participants to have similar meanings. This resulted in self-worth not arising in the focus group interviews at all, while self-efficacy and linguistic self-confidence were roughly equal in prominence.

4.3.1.4.3 Self-worth theory

Self-worth did not emerge as a prominent factor during the focus group interviews and was therefore omitted from the analysis. This was partly because no direct questions were directed at determining participant perceptions of self-worth, and partly because the concept is so closely related to the concepts of self-concept, self-efficacy, linguistic self-confidence and perceived L2 competence that responses became enmeshed and therefore difficult to separate from one another. Questions 8 & 9 in the questionnaire were intended to explore participants' perceptions of self-concept.

4.3.1.4.4 Self-efficacy

Participants' perceptions of their ability to hold their own when speaking English ranged from highly confident to hesitant. In response to a question about how speaking English in class made them feel, participants said the following:

“It's not so difficult. English is not my home language [but] I'm confident. I mumble sometimes and I know I'm going to make mistakes, but I'll make my point...”

“Your worst enemy is yourself: “What is Mrs 'X' going to think about me?” You end up saying the wrong thing”.

“I feel confident. We had lots of practice in high school. If you didn't do it, you got 0 and I don't want 0. There's nothing scary – it's just talking”.

“I've done English as a first language. In most cases I talk a lot. I did debate, so to me English is something I do fluently. I'm used to it”.

From these utterances, it would seem that familiarity with the language and practice in its use boosts confidence levels among participants. Those who expressed insecurities attributed it to a lack of fluency and practice. These anxieties are discussed below under language use anxiety in linguistic self-confidence.

4.3.1.4.5 Attribution theory

Students attribute successes or failures to either effort or ability. These perceptions regarding the causes of success or failure will determine whether students are likely to continue their efforts or not. Causes that are unstable, controllable and internal are deemed as resulting from a lack of effort and are therefore likely to result in continued attempts by the students. Stable, uncontrollable, external causes are attributed to lack of ability and therefore likely to discourage student from continuing to exert any effort in attaining their goals.

In order to explore participants' causal attributions, participants were asked to what they

would attribute failure in an English assessment. All the responses ascribed possible failure to a lack of effort rather than a lack of ability:

“...We don't read the exam. We just write”.

“I didn't study”.

“When people don't attend class, don't study, are not serious”.

“If I fail, I know that I didn't study. Something was wrong. Something happened at home. I was under stress. Your mind's thinking something else”.

Because the causes provided by participants were unstable, could be controlled by them and were perceived as 'their own fault', it was likely that they would persevere in their studies.

4.3.1.4.6 Linguistic self-confidence

Linguistic self-confidence not only refers to the belief that one has the ability to succeed, but also to perceptions of communicative competence. Therefore the concept of willingness to communicate (WTC) is contained within the concept of linguistic self-confidence. WTC refers to whether someone would choose to speak to a native speaker of English when faced with the opportunity to do so. It comprises two factors, namely language use anxiety and perceived L2 competence. These two factors are inversely related to one another. Low anxiety and high perceived L2 competence is more likely to result in a willingness to communicate than high anxiety and low perceived L2 competence.

For the purposes of analysis, therefore, only language use anxiety and perceived L2 competence have been included, since WTC is implied.

Language use anxiety

In response to the question of how they feel when speaking English in class, a number of participants indicated that they experience a sense of anxiety. One student said: “I think of what I'm going to say. It confuses me when I have to present. I think of words. I'm shaking. I try my best. The words flush and I can't present”.

Another student referred to the impact of anticipating judgement: “I feel nervous. People are judgemental. In the back of your mind you think people will judge you or they're going to laugh [at you]”. This was echoed in another group: “People are scared of judgement...Our problem is we laugh at each other”.

Interestingly, the questionnaire responses to whether they are anxious that others will laugh at them, was indexed at -51, which indicated that respondents disagreed that they were afraid of their classmates laughing at them. Possible reasons for this will be

discussed in Chapter 5.

Perceived L2 competence

When asked to judge their current level of competence in English, participants in one group were very confident that they were “...good...”, “...excellent...”, “...kind of good...” and “...very good...” Another group was more reserved, chorusing “average”. No-one felt that they had poor levels of English competence.

4.3.1.4.7 Achievement theory

Achievement theory deals primarily with fear of failure and desire to succeed. A student who has the desire to succeed will not only be intrinsically motivated, but will also prefer more challenging tasks. In this way it is related to goal orientation theory which is discussed below.

In order to gauge whether participants were achievement oriented, they were asked whether it is important for them to get good marks in English. Responses were positive, as is to be expected in an academic context. The reasons participants provided for their desire to perform well mainly included instrumentality and affiliative drive. The instrumental utility of English was reiterated by participants with comments which included the following:

“When they want to see your qualifications, they want to see your English marks. English is the main language”.

“English is used as a communication language”.

Some participants felt that performing well in English was important because it improved their overall academic performance in all other subjects, including mathematical literacy.

Affiliative drive was demonstrated by another participant who said: “It shows that students give positive feedback to the lecturer”.

4.3.1.4.8 Goal Theory

In order to be valuable, goals should be specific, achievable, and realistic and contain elements of feedback. Two theories provide a more detailed understanding of goals theory, namely goal setting and goal orientation. Goal setting did not emerge as prominent from focus group discussions. Goal orientation refers to whether students are driven by a mastery or performance orientation. Mastery was cited as a goal in utterances like the following: “If you do well, you feel that you are growing, that you have learnt”. Performance was not referred to at all.

4.3.1.5 Summary

In summary, factors were classified as either contributing to, or detracting from student motivation. They are outlined in TABLE 4.3.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO MOTIVATION	FACTORS DETRACTING FROM MOTIVATION
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• instrumentality• interest• satisfaction• lecturer-specific factors• self-efficacy beliefs• causal attribution• perceived L2 competence• need for achievement• mastery orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• threat to identity• relevance of course content• expectancy• value attributed to the course• language use anxiety

Table 4.3: Factors of motivation arising from focus group analysis

4.3.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

Questionnaires were administered after focus group discussion had been conducted. The questionnaires covered all of the theories contained in the theoretical framework, which was not possible to do with the focus group interviews. 195 questionnaires were distributed of which 142 were eventually used for the data set. Therefore the scope of the questionnaire was much wider than that of the focus group: It contained 60 questions, completed by 142 participants, while focus groups consisted of 16 participants responding to 12 prepared questions in a semi-structured group interview. An analytical framework was created using the same method as for the focus groups. Figure 4.2 is a representation of the relative prominence of each factor selected from the questionnaire indices. (Refer to Appendix G for a record of the calculations made in designing this model).

4.3.2.1 Language level

At the language level, the following constructs were explored: attitude, integrativeness and instrumentality. Attitude refers to a general view of English and English speakers. Integrativeness refers to participants' desire to become part of the English-speaking community and included self-concept, L2 possible selves and identity. Instrumentality is concerned with the extent to which participants recognised the utility value of English. These factors have been placed in the language level because they were specific to the English language for these participants.

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	
E	Self-determination
1	Intrinsic
3	Autonomy
F	Achievement theory
G	Expectancy-value theory
2	Expectancy of task completion
b	Self-efficacy
c	Attribution
(i)	Effort
(ii)	Ability
d	Linguistic self-confidence
(i)	Willingness to communicate
(ii)	Language-use anxiety
(iii)	Perceived L2 competence
H	Goal theory
1	Goal setting theory
2	Goal orientation

CLASSROOM LEVEL	
C	Lecturer-specific factors
1	Affiliative drive
3	Direct socialisation
a	Modelling
b	Feedback
c	Task Presentation

LANGUAGE LEVEL	
A	Attitude
1	Integrative
a	Self-concept
(i)	Hypothetical
(ii)	Actual
(iii)	L2 possible selves
2	Instrumental

PROGRAMME LEVEL	
B	Course-specific factors
1	Interest
2	Relevance
4	Satisfaction

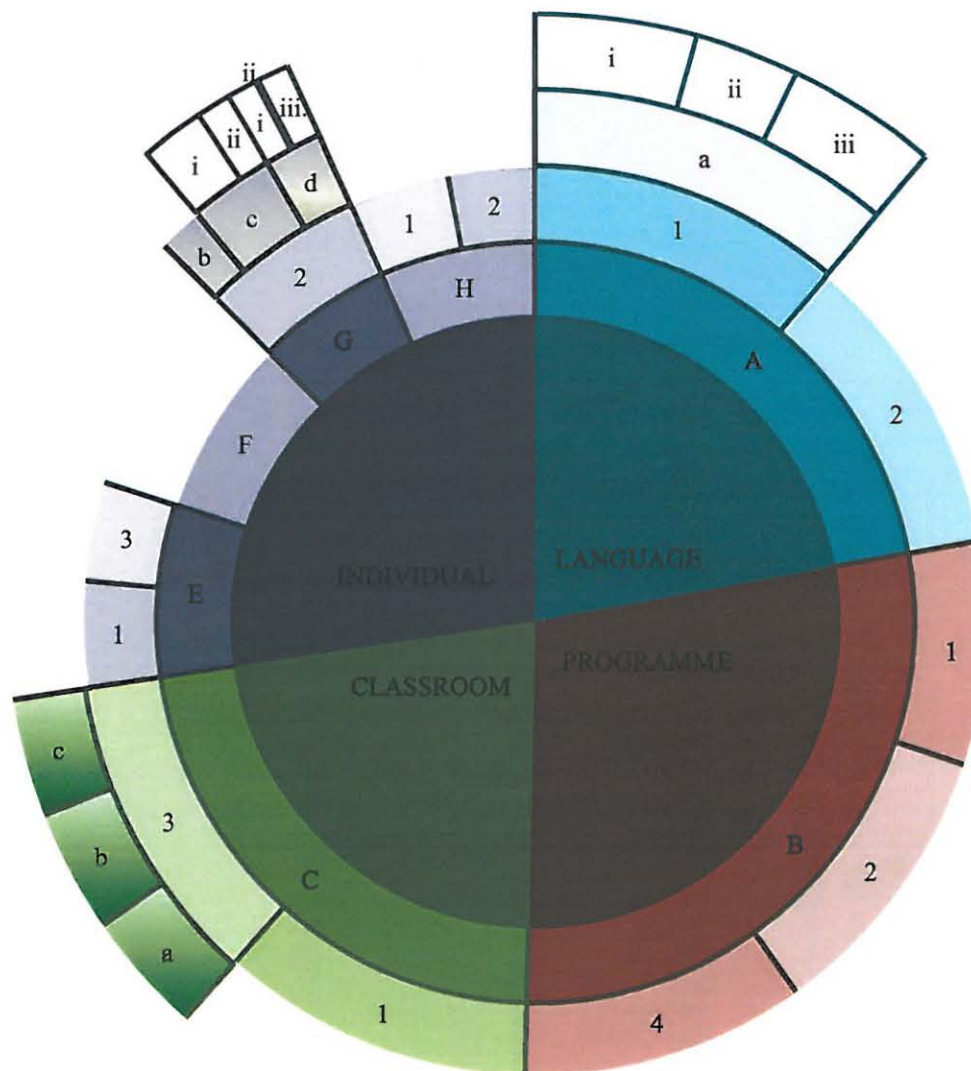


Figure 4.2: Diagrammatic representation of the analytical framework for the questionnaire

TABLE 4.4 below provides a summary of the raw and aggregated indices for the language level.

Tier 1	LANGUAGE LEVEL													
Tier 2	INTEGRATIVENESS										ATTITUDE		INSTRUMENT.	
Factor	Integrativeness				Possible Selves			Self concept		Identity	Attitude		Instrumentality	
Ques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	11	12	13	14	15
Index	172	135	144	-28	175	144	158	168	108	-42	35	50	158	104
AGGREGATED INDICES PER TIER AND FACTOR														
Tier 1	102													
Tier 2	134										42		131	
Factor	106				159			138		-42	42		131	

Table 4.4: Raw and aggregated indices for language level questions

4.3.2.1.1 Integrativeness

Participants indicated strong agreement with the statement that English is important because it results in personal growth (question 1), as is evidenced by the indexed value of 172 for this questions. This indicated that participants recognised the value of exposure to an additional culture and a willingness to engage with this culture, which can be interpreted as having an integrative orientation. However, participants indicated that they did not want to immerse themselves entirely in the English culture and would not do so at the expense of their own language and culture. In response to the statement “I prefer to speak English rather than my own language” (question 4), participants disagreed, resulting in an index of -28.

4.3.2.1.2 Self-concept

Because self-concept refers to, amongst other things, students' affective judgements about the academic situation, the question “I would feel bad if I failed an English assessment” was included in the questionnaire (question 8). Responses to this question were indexed at 168, indicating that participants strongly agree with the statement.

4.3.2.1.3 L2 possible selves

A question relating to the relative strength of participants' desire to be good at English in the future (question 5) was included to explore the 'L2 possible selves' construct. This question also received a strong positive response, indexed at 175.

This indicated that participants had a strong desire to improve their English skills. These responses could be indicators of perceived high levels of motivation among participants. These results can, however, be problematic when participants' self-efficacy beliefs and perceived L2 competence are taken into consideration. A strong sense of self-efficacy and inflated judgements of competence may result in the perception that improvement is not a priority, resulting in the possible selves construct not acting as a motivator.

4.3.2.1.4 Identity

In contrast to the prominence with which identity emerged from the focus group discussions, respondents to the questionnaire indicated that they disagreed with the statement that their cultural identity is threatened when they communicated in English. This statement was indexed at -42.

The phrasing of the questions may explain this discrepancy, since the questionnaire question reads 'I feel my cultural identity is threatened when I communicate in English, while the focus group participants were asked to respond to the statement "Having to speak English impacts on my identity". Considering the difference between the use of 'when', which is neutral and the use of 'having to', which may imply being forced to do something, this may account for the discrepancy in the responses. An alternative explanation may be that participants in the focus group discussions were of a different opinion than the majority of the students completing the questionnaire.

Identity was not deemed as sufficiently significant to include in the analytical model for questionnaires.

4.3.2.1.5 Attitude

Responses to questions about their attitude to English and English speakers were indexed at 35 and 50 respectively, indicating some ambivalence. Although participants perceived themselves as mainly positive to the target language and target language speakers, they did not report an overwhelming agreement with questions 12 and 13.

4.3.2.1.6 Instrumentality

Because instrumentality has been largely neglected in favour of integrativeness by Gardner in his conceptualisation of motivation (Dörnyei, 2006), only one question explicitly addressed the utility value of English. Participants were asked to respond to the statement "People who are good at English have a better chance of getting a job" (question 15). Participants' responses were indexed at 104, indicating that there was general agreement with the statement. This is borne out by the strong instrumental

orientation expressed by participants in the focus group discussions. When contrasted with the more general statement “Learning to speak English well is important to me” (question 14), which was indexed at 158, it would seem that respondents recognised the importance of learning English, but not just in the context of career prospects. This seems to suggest that respondents' perceptions of the instrumental value of English extend beyond that of just employment opportunities.

4.3.2.2 Programme level

The programme level deals with course-specific factors that include motivational components like the syllabus, teaching and learning materials, methodology and classroom activities. The course-specific factors explored in the questionnaire were interest, satisfaction and relevance. Expectancy was not explored at the programme level, but rather as part of expectancy-value theory at the individual, and has therefore been omitted from the analytical framework. TABLE 4.5 provides a summary of the raw and aggregated indices for this level. The programme level emerged as most prominent from the questionnaire data, at 29.34% of the total (refer to Appendix G). Participants' positive responses to the programme level and course-specific factors, indicate that course-specific factors contribute to, rather than detract from participants' language learning motivation.

Tier 1		PROGRAMME LEVEL			
Tier 2		COURSE-SPECIFIC FACTORS			
Factor	Interest	Relevance			Satisfaction
Ques.	37	38	39	40	41
Index	-111	123	132	162	-141
AGGREGATED INDICES PER TIER AND FACTOR					
Tier 1	130				
Tier 2	130				
Factor	111	139			141

Table 4.5: Raw and aggregated indices for programme level questions

4.3.2.2.1 Interest

Interest refers to student enthusiasm to engage with classroom activities and how interesting they find the English course. In response to the statement “I think my English class is boring” (question 37), participants provided a negative response, indexed at -111, indicating that they disagree with the statement.

This response would suggest that participants perceived the programme as sufficiently

interesting and therefore not a problematic aspect of motivation.

4.3.2.2.2 Relevance

Relevance is related to instrumentality or utility value and refers to whether participants view classroom instruction and course content as useful achieving their goals. Questionnaire questions mainly explored whether participants perceived the English course as useful to them.

Participants agreed that their classroom instruction and course content are useful to them, as was evidenced by their respective indices of 123 and 132 (questions 38 & 39). When asked to respond to the statement “English is a very important part of the college programme” (question 40), the index was somewhat higher, at 162.

Based on these results, one could conclude that participants found the English course to be relevant and useful to them and therefore not a problematic aspect of motivation.

4.3.2.2.3 Satisfaction

The concept of satisfaction was employed to determine to what extent participants found the English course to be a worthwhile pursuit. In response to the statement “My English class is really a waste of time” (question 41), responses were indexed at -141, indicating that participants disagreed with the statement.

This response suggested that participants found the English course worthwhile and were satisfied with the outcome of the course. Satisfaction was therefore not deemed to be a problematic aspect of motivation for these students.

4.3.2.3 Classroom level

The classroom level consists of two factors, namely lecturer-specific and group-specific factors. Lecturer-specific factors consist of three components, namely affiliative drive, authority type and direct socialisation of motivation which is concerned with modelling, feedback and task presentation. TABLE 4.6 outlines the raw and aggregated indices for this level.

Of the lecturer-specific factors, authority type did not emerge as significant from the data and was therefore omitted from the analytical framework.

Group-specific factors deal with goal orientedness, group cohesion, classroom goal structure and norm and reward system. Although group cohesion emerged as somewhat prominent from the focus group discussions, none of the other factors were mentioned. Likewise, group-specific factors were not significant in the questionnaire data and were

therefore omitted from the analytical framework.

Tier 1	CLASSROOM LEVEL																			
Tier 2	LECTURER-SPECIFIC										GROUP SPECIFIC									
Factor	Affiliative Drive		Authority Type		Modelling	Task Presentation		Feedback	Norm & Reward Systems					Group Cohesion		Classroom Goal Structure				
Ques.	42	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	
Index	132	161	-39	-133	148	151	135	148	89	22	-6	-96	-86	113	95	39	28	39	118	
AGGREGATED INDICES PER TIER AND FACTOR																				
Tier 1	103																			
Tier 2	134										71									
Factor	147		86		148	143		148	50					100		64				

Table 4.6: Raw and aggregated indices for classroom level questions

4.3.2.3.1 Affiliative drive

The statement “I look forward to going to class because my English lecturer is so good” (question 42), was indexed at 132, while the statement “I really like my English lecturer” (question 44), was indexed at 161. This seemed to suggest that participants could express affection for a lecturer even if s/he was judged as not necessarily being a good lecturer.

4.3.2.3.2 Direct socialisation of motivation

The three components of direct socialisation of motivation were indexed at 148 (modelling and feedback) and 143 (task presentation). This seemed to suggest participants' positive orientation towards the levels of enthusiasm; quality of feedback and classroom practices and discourse demonstrated by their lecturers.

Modelling

Modelling refers to how interested the lecturer is in their subject and how much effort they put into their teaching. Participants viewed their lecturers as enthusiastic and committed as evidenced by the index of 148 for question 47.

Feedback

Participants agreed strongly with the statement “My English lecturer gives me good feedback on tasks and assessments” (question 50). Since lecturer feedback was valued

above all other types of feedback, this was a significant endorsement of the quality of feedback as perceived by participants.

Task presentation

Questions exploring task presentation dealt with lecturer preparedness for lessons (question 48) and the style of teaching used in the classroom (question 49). In both instances participants rated their lecturers highly as evidenced by the respective indices of 151 and 135.

The data for lecturer-specific factors would seem to suggest that participants held their lecturers in high esteem, and that lecturer-specific factors contributed to their motivation.

4.3.2.4 Individual level

The individual level is concerned with affective and cognitive factors like self-confidence, causal attributions, self-determination and goal theories. The theories included in this level aim to explore motivation at a task-specific level as opposed to the more general, social aspects of motivation of the preceding three levels.

Due to the complexity and variety of theories contained in this level, a summary of factors that have been included for analysis has been presented in TABLE 4.7.

SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsic motivation • Learner autonomy 		
EXPECTANCY-VALUE THEORY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expectancy of task completion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-efficacy • Attribution • Linguistic self-confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language use anxiety • Perceived L2 competence
ACHIEVEMENT THEORY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear of failure • Desire to succeed 		
GOAL THEORY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goal setting theory • Goal orientation theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mastery • Performance 	

Table 4.7: Summary of the factors contained in the individual level

TABLE 4.8 provides a summary of the raw and aggregated indices for the individual level.

Tier 1		INDIVIDUAL LEVEL																												
Tier 2		SELF-DET THEORY			GOAL THEORY			ACHIEVE-MENT			EXPECTANCY VALUE THEORY																			
Factor	Intrinsic	Autonomy	Goal Setting	Goal orientation	Achievement Theory	Linguistic Self-Confidence	Willingness to Communicate	Language-Use Anxiety	Perceived L2 Competence	Causal Attribution	Self-Efficacy																			
Ques.	16	17	18	19	21	23	20	22	24	25	26	10	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36								
Index	140	149	118	121	138	113	171	154	-99	109	74	103	77	-51	137	101	103	126	171	-94	-37	-100								
AGGREGATED INDICES PER TIER AND FACTOR																														
Tier 1	126																													
Tier 2	137			124			141			108																				
Factor	140	133	130	113	141	92	103	13	117	171	-94	69																		

Table 4.8: Raw and aggregated indices for individual level questions

4.3.2.4.1 Self-determination theory

None of the factors related to self-determination emerged as prominent from the focus group discussions. Therefore only three questions, focusing on intrinsic motivation and autonomy in the questionnaires were explored this theory. Both factors received positive responses. Questions focused on the enjoyment of English (question 16) as evidence of intrinsic enjoyment of the task, indexed at 140 and the extent to which participants felt that they took responsibility for their own learning, indexed at 149 (question 17).

From these responses it would seem that participants perceived themselves as intrinsically motivated and autonomous, which was to be expected since intrinsic motivation is closely linked to autonomy in the literature. When the autonomy question was adjusted, however, to “In the English class I ask the lecturer if I do not understand something” (question 18), it became evident that participants were not as autonomous as they may have believed, since this question was indexed at only 118.

4.3.2.4.2 Expectancy-value theory

As with self-determination theory, expectancy-value was only partially prominent in the focus group discussions. Expectancy emerged strongly, while value was not mentioned. This resulted in only the expectancy component being explored in the questionnaire. In addition to this the intrinsic and extrinsic utility value had already been included at the language level under instrumentality and integrativeness. Within the expectancy

construct, only three factors were included in the questionnaire, namely self-efficacy, causal attribution and linguistic self-confidence, because these were the factors that emerged prominently from the focus group discussions. Self-worth was not mentioned at all during focus group discussions and was therefore omitted from the questionnaire, and as a result from the analytical model for the questionnaire. However, the concept of self-worth encompasses all the other concepts contained in expectancy and is therefore worth commenting on in Chapter 5.

4.3.2.4.3 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy deals with participants' perceptions of their ability to complete the task – the task being the three-year NC(V) course, containing English as a subject. In addition to this, students who have a strong sense of self-efficacy will persevere in the face of adversity and have a strong sense of personal agency, amongst other factors. Participants were therefore presented with the following two statements exploring self-efficacy beliefs: “I feel like I do not have control over how well I do in English” (question 35) and “I give up easily when the work is difficult in the English class” (question 36). Participants responded negatively to both statements, but to differing degrees. Question 35, related to sense of personal agency, was indexed at -37, while question 36, related to perseverance, was indexed at -100. This would seem to suggest that while participants perceived themselves as tenacious, they were less confident of their sense of personal agency.

4.3.2.4.4 Attribution

Attribution theory refers to the reasons students provide for their behaviours. Failure can be attributed to either a lack of effort or a lack of ability. Students who attribute failure to a lack of effort will be more likely to persevere than one who ascribes failure to a lack of ability.

In an attempt to explore to what participants attributed failure, two statements were presented: “Doing badly in an English assessment makes me want to work harder for the next one” (question 33) and “If I do badly in an English assessment it is because I'm just not good at English” (question 34).

Question 33 was indexed at 177, indicating strong agreement with the statement. Question 34 was indexed at -94, which indicates disagreement with the statement. Both of these responses support the conclusion that participants attributed failure to a lack of effort rather than to a lack of ability, which is likely to result in higher levels of

motivation.

4.3.2.4.5 Linguistic self-confidence

Linguistic self-confidence includes the notion of 'willingness to communicate', which in turn refers to students' perceptions of their linguistic competence, coupled with low levels of anxiety about speaking English in public.

Willingness to communicate (WTC)

WTC refers to students choosing to communicate in English when presented with an opportunity to do so. To explore this concept, the following statement was included in the questionnaire: "I volunteer to answer questions in the English class" (question 10). The responses to this statement were indexed at 103. This indicated that students agreed with this statement and conceived of themselves as likely to voluntarily engage in speaking English.

Language use anxiety

Participants reported low levels of anxiety as is evidenced by their responses to questions 27 and 28. "I get very worried if I make mistakes during English lessons" (question 27), was indexed at 77, indicating mild agreement with the statement. Question 28, "I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I have to speak English in class", was indexed at -51, indicating mild disagreement with the statement. This was contradictory to what participants in the focus groups revealed during discussions. Possible explanations will be addressed in Chapter 5.

Perceived L2 competence

This factor is closely related to self-efficacy, so it is no surprise that the two factors were indexed at 116 and 117 respectively. This seemed to indicate that participants had a strong sense of self-efficacy, at least partially, because of their perception of their competence in the L2.

The questions exploring perceived L2 competence were divided into four to include four skills required in learning English, namely reading, writing, speaking and comprehension. Two of these skills rely on input (reading and comprehension) and two rely on output (speaking and writing). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that their skills in English were good (questions 29-32). Reading ability was indexed at 137, while comprehension was indexed at 126. This resulted in an overall index of 131 for skills involving input. Writing ability was indexed at 101 and speaking at 103, which results in an overall index of 102 for skills involving output.

These results seemed to suggest that participants perceived themselves as being more competent in skills involving input than those involving the production of output.

4.3.2.4.6 Achievement theory

Achievement theory proposes that students are motivated by either a fear of failure or a desire for success, or both. Three questions were included to explore achievement theory. Question 20, "I like getting good marks in English", was indexed at 171, indicating strong agreement with this statement. Question 22, "I would like to be the best in my English class" was indexed at 154, indicating a strong agreement with this statement.

Participants responded negatively to the statement "I give up easily when the work is difficult in the English class", indexed at -99, indicating perceived perseverance in the face of adversity. These results seemed to imply that participants perceived themselves as achievement oriented.

4.3.2.4.7 Goal setting theory

To explore participants' perceptions of how goals affect their performance, they were provided with the following statement: "I put a lot of effort into learning English" (question 19). Responses were indexed at 121, indicating that participants agree with the statement.

In addition to this, goals provide a measure for students by which to judge their performance. To explore whether participants engage in this type of self-evaluation, the following statement was included in the questionnaire: "I use my test result to see how well I'm doing in English" (question 21). Question 21 was indexed at 138, indicating that participants perceived themselves as engaging in self-evaluation.

Both of these responses suggest that participants conceived of themselves engaging in goal setting.

4.3.2.4.8 Goal orientation theory

Also referred to as 'achievement goal orientation theory', this theory describes the different purposes that students adopt for engaging in academic tasks. Students are believed to possess a mastery or a performance orientation, each with its own implications for motivation.

Mastery goals focus on self-improvement and personal growth, while performance goals are focused on achieving the goal and the public recognition that goes along that.

Those with a mastery orientation are more likely to prefer challenging tasks, which is why question 23 was included in the questionnaire to explore participants' perceptions of whether they possess a mastery or performance orientation.

"I prefer challenging tasks in the English class to easy ones" was indexed at 113, indicating that participants agreed with this statement.

4.3.2.5 Summary

Factors arising as prominent from the analysis of questionnaire data were assigned to one of two categories: factors that contribute to motivation and factors that detract from student motivation. TABLE 4.9 is an outline of the organisation of these factors.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO MOTIVATION	FACTORS DETRACTING FROM MOTIVATION
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • integrativeness • self-concept • instrumentality • course-specific factors • lecturer-specific factors • intrinsic motivation • autonomy • self-efficacy beliefs • causal attribution • language use anxiety • perceived L2 competence • goal setting • mastery orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L2 possible selves • attitude to English and English speakers

Table 4.9: Factors of motivation arising from questionnaire data analysis

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the data collected for this study were presented and analysed based on the theoretical model used for a review of the literature. The data were then used to create two analytical frameworks, one for each instrument, to determine which factors should be included in the analysis. Some factors were identified as contributing to participants' motivation, while others were considered as detracting from participants' motivation. A summary of these factors is presented in Chapter 5. Also in Chapter 5, the interpretation of the data analysis is discussed, findings are presented and conclusions drawn.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present a discussion of the findings from the study, based on the prominent themes as they emerged from the data. Secondly the original goals of the study will be reviewed to determine the extent to which they have been reached. Thirdly, the shortcomings of the study will be identified and discussed. Finally, the contribution of the study to the existing body of knowledge will be considered and further avenues of research suggested.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The analysis of the data resulted in the emergence of a number of interactions between factors. These factors are identified and discussed below with reference to the empirical evidence and supporting literature.

5.2.1 INTEGRATIVENESS, IDENTITY AND INSTRUMENTALITY

Participants displayed a strong conscious awareness of the instrumental value of English and therefore expressed mainly positive attitudes towards English as a language and English language speakers. Participants expressed a positive orientation with regard to the utility value of English in the classroom, the workplace and broader society. However, some participants during the focus group discussions were overt in their expression of dislike of English and English speakers. Some expressed discomfort at having to speak English. Others questioned the global status of English.

“I have a negative attitude. I don't understand why we have to speak English. Why can't we speak Xhosa to you (addressing the researcher)? You can learn Xhosa if you want”.

“Why is English a universal language? Why English?”.

“I don't feel comfortable speaking English. People think you're a coconut. The people I'm with speak Xhosa. I'm a bit negative towards English”.

Integrativeness was also identified as an orientation among participants – not in the focus group discussions, but from the responses to the questionnaire. There was, however an expression of discomfort with integration during focus group discussions in as far as it had a negative impact on students' cultural identity. It is possible that their strong leaning towards instrumentality in the focus group discussions, at the expense of integrativeness may have been an unconscious form of resistance against the threat to their identity, which was strongly asserted by a number of participants.

“To me, it's like they speak it because it's new to them. They don't understand Xhosa has a place in their lives. Your home language is important. English is for opening up the world. When we are at home, we make sure that we speak our own language. We're also trained at home there's a language when you go out – a language to interact with people, so you don't want to found as ignorant and be respected because you speak their language...It does have a negative effect on our home language and we are to blame to not find pride in our own language...”

The participants in this study were a specific group of students – home language Xhosa-speaking NC(V) marketing students at an FET college – in a specific context – the compulsory study of an additional language – responding to a specific language – English.

Norton Peirce (1995) argues that 'investment' embodies the relationship between power, identity and language learning. In addition to this, she points out that both identity and context are socially constructed and therefore complex and multi-layered. According to her, this would be the rationale for viewing motivation as socially situated. Because students' social and historical relationship with the target language can be seen as socially constructed, and inseparable from their identity, ambivalence towards the target language may be the result (Norton, 1997 in Hashimoto, 2002) as is demonstrated by participants' responses during the focus group discussions.

This study made it clear that the initial instrumentality/integrativeness dichotomy as conceived of by Gardner (1985), does not hold true for the participants in this context. Questionnaire results placed these two orientations as roughly equal to one another, while focus group discussions revealed that participants held strong instrumental beliefs and experienced a threat to identity when forced to use English. This echoed Gardner and Tremblay's (1994) caution that the socio-educational model which produced the concepts of integrativeness and instrumentality should be viewed as dynamic and evolving from new insights about motivation.

5.2.2 ORIENTATION VS MOTIVATION

This study dealt with participants' perceptions of motivational factors as they relate to themselves personally. Questions attempted to determine how participants view themselves in relation to a number of motivational factors, both contextually and individually. What seemed to emerge from this approach was that participants reported on their *orientations* towards the factors presented to them. That is, their intentions were revealed.

When one considers the stimulus for this study, namely student attendance, it is clear that while participants, for the most part had positive orientations, this did not translate into *motivation* – namely their actions. Masgoret and Gardner (2003, p.175) state: “Orientations do not necessarily reflect motivation”.

A possible explanation for this may lie in the fact that participants, in terms of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) generally had strong socio-linguistic and strategic skills, as well as a strong sense of self-efficacy, which may mean that they were, on an unconscious level, satisfied with their communicative competence and therefore did not see the need to improve. Responses in both questionnaires and focus groups indicated that participants perceived themselves as wanting to improve in English. However, their actions contradicted this.

Another possible explanation for this may be a distinction made by Gardner (2007), between the language learning motivation and classroom learning motivation. Participants may be motivated to study English and see the value of learning English, but are not motivated to attend classes due to a lack of classroom learning motivation. This is borne out by the fact that the following three factors were identified as detractors from motivation among the participants in this study: relevance of course content, expectancy and the value attributed to the course.

Another possible interpretation is suggested by Gan (2011) in a study of Hong Kong university ESL students. Less successful students understood the utility value of English and expressed the wish to learn English well, but a lack of investment resulted in unmotivated behaviour. In addition to this, the participants did not see how the English course they were doing at university would benefit their English development (Gan, 2011). This seems to be closely related to the results that were found in this study. The participants in this study expressed a strong instrumental orientation and indicated that they want to speak English well. However, the value of the course was not rated particularly high. The problematic class attendance also indicated that participants had not made the necessary investment to master the course content.

5.2.3 SELF-WORTH, SELF-EFFICACY AND GOAL ORIENTATION

Self-worth as a concept was not directly addressed in either the focus group discussion or the questionnaire. However, since it can be defined in more general terms than the other constructs contained in expectancy at the individual level, it can be interpreted as an overarching concept and therefore worthy of inclusion in the discussion of findings. Self-worth deals with perceptions of ability (Graham & Weiner, 1996), while self-efficacy deals with perceptions of task-specific ability, in a specific context (Dörnyei, 1994). Other concepts that are closely related are self-concept, linguistic self-confidence and perceived L2 competence. The challenge of making a clear distinction between these very closely related concepts is discussed under 5.4.

The data analysis suggested that participants viewed themselves as tenacious and that participants' self-efficacy beliefs were related to their familiarity with the language. Although both focus groups and questionnaires seemed to indicate that there are individual differences between students with regard to their self-efficacy beliefs, on the whole participants had a firm sense of self-efficacy.

Graham (1994), in her study of African American students' self-perceptions of ability has found that a positive sense of self-worth is maintained, regardless of achievement failure. When exploring this notion in the data analysis, the conclusion can be drawn that participants' relatively strong sense of self-efficacy may result in their sense of self-worth remaining intact in spite of academic failure, a suggestion made by Dörnyei (1994). He attributes students' self-worth not being adversely affected by failure to the fact that a sense of efficacy can counteract negative attributions to the extent that failure may not have as profound an impact as it would without a sense of self-efficacy.

Another possible reason for self-worth remaining intact in the face of failure could be attributed to the goal orientation participants perceived themselves to have, namely a mastery orientation. Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2002) explain this phenomenon as follows: because the students are intent on improving their own performance, it will be possible for him/her to maintain a sense of self-efficacy when faced with failure. Mastery goals mean that students are focused on solving the problem, understanding concepts and are absorbed in the task at hand (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). A mastery goal orientation could therefore be said to result in a heightened sense of self-efficacy, which in turn improves participants' sense of self-worth.

5.2.4 PERCEIVED L2 COMPETENCE, SELF-CONCEPT AND IDENTITY

The majority of participants in this study (65%) were from urban township schools. They did, however report visiting family members in rural areas. This sometimes gave rise to a conflict of identity as was evident in the following excerpt from the focus group discussions: “Especially when you speak to them in rural areas because their Xhosa is different from the city. Here we mix Xhosa and English and they can't understand”.

It was interesting to note the use of 'othering'— an 'us and them' perspective. This participant clearly identified with urban youth and distanced himself by placing his rural family in the position of the 'other'. It can also be inferred that this participant viewed his English competence as superior to that of his rural counterparts.

As much as this identification with urban youth was evident, participants were adamant that they do not want to be labelled as 'coconuts' (a derogatory term for black youth who speak unaccented English). One participant said: “...There are categories of addressing elders. These children, coconut children, lose respect. They can't differentiate”. Another said that he did not feel comfortable speaking English because people may label him as a coconut.

Perhaps the most telling exchange is this, from group 3:

STUDENT 3: Because we are all different. Fluent people don't understand I'm Xhosa. All black people are not the same...different speakers don't have the same accent. People undermine that I speak like Mandela and she (gesturing to Student 5)

speaks it so fluently like she's a telephone machine or something.

And then, later, in the same group:

STUDENT 6: We tend to judge. If you talk English, people will say you are a coconut.

STUDENT 5: All through my life I've been called a coconut....I've done English as a first language. In most cases I talk a lot. I did debates, so to me English is something I do fluently. I'm used to it.

It would seem that those participants who saw themselves as most alienated from their culture, would also have seen themselves as more competent in the L2, and those who identified more closely with their culture may have judged their L2 competence as inferior to that of their peers.

Another point to consider is that urban students are exposed to English more often than their rural counterparts. This may result in stronger perceived L2 competence regardless of actual competence, simply because in comparison, they may be more fluent than their rural peers.

5.2.5 LINGUISTIC SELF-CONFIDENCE, WTC AND LANGUAGE USE ANXIETY

Participants displayed a relatively strong willingness to communicate (WTC), indexed at 103. A similar index, 109, emerged in response to the statement 'I feel confident answering questions in the English class'. This would seem to suggest that participants are relatively confident and willing to communicate in the target language. However, when the matter of formal oral presentations arises, the picture changes somewhat, as is evidenced by the index of 73.9 in response to the statement "I feel confident making formal speech presentations in the English class". This may not be surprising, since public speaking is a notoriously stressful activity (Cosburn, 2011) but participants unanimously requested more oral practice in the classroom.

This could be for one of the following reasons: firstly, because participants are fairly fluent in spoken English, they may feel that it is a task they can complete with relative success. In fact the index for the statement "My speaking ability in English is good" was exactly the same as that of WTC, namely 103.

Language use anxiety provided some interesting results. It was discussed in some detail during the focus group discussions, with participants expressing a sense of anxiety with regards to all forms of public use of English – both in conversation and as part of formal presentations. The data from the questionnaires, however, contradicted this and was indexed at 13, a basically neutral response. Upon closer inspection, however, the following comes to light: Participants agreed that they worried about making mistakes during English lessons, but disagreed that they were worried about classmates laughing at them when speaking English. If one were to consider the following statements by participants in group 2, a possible explanation may be suggested:

STUDENT 2: I feel nervous. In the back of your mind you think people will judge you or they're going to laugh at me.

STUDENT 4: Your worst enemy is yourself. What is Mrs X going to think about me? You end up saying the wrong thing.

While participants expressed some nervousness about speaking in front of their peers, their fear of being judged by the native English speaker appeared to be greater than that of judgement by their peers. This was congruent with the finding that participants did not perceive the class group as having a big impact on their language learning, while the lecturer was identified as exerting a more significant impact.

The dichotomy between facilitating and debilitating anxiety may also explain why anxiety can be identified as both a contributing and detracting factor of motivation, where debilitating anxiety impacts negatively on performance and facilitating anxiety has a positive influence.

Another possible explanation for the discrepancy between focus group and questionnaire results may be that during the focus group discussion, participants found themselves in the anxiety-causing situation of speaking English in front of others (including a native English speaker). This may be why they recalled their anxiety more clearly than when they were in the safety of the classroom, anonymously completing questionnaires. Because the questionnaires were less threatening, participants may have perceived language use anxiety as less prevalent than it actually was.

5.2.6 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO AND DETRACTING FROM MOTIVATION

In an attempt to answer the research question 'How do all the factors of motivation interact?', the following distinction emerged, which is represented in FIGURE 5.1

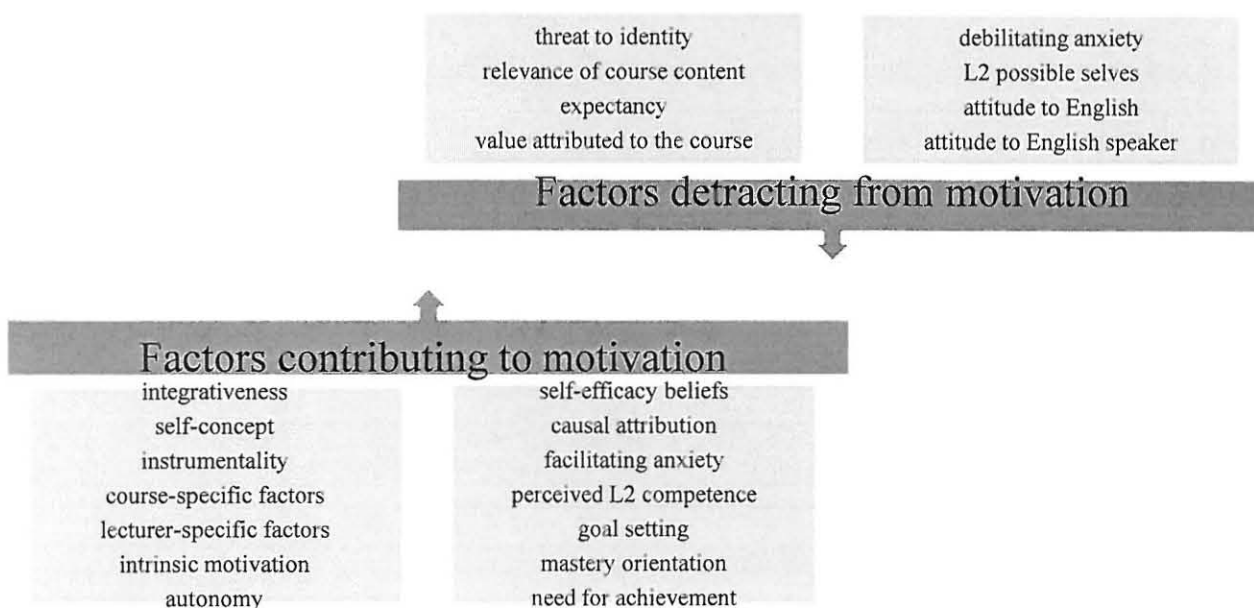


Figure 5.1: Summary of factors contributing to and detracting from motivation

While it is logical that this distinction will exist, it was interesting to see, in the specific context of the study which factors belong where. A few of the more pertinent findings are discussed below.

5.2.6.1 The role of integrativeness

What was particularly illuminating was the role that integrativeness seemed to play, in spite of the overtness with which focus group participants favoured instrumentality and in spite of the threats to identity that emerged strongly from the focus groups. It had not been anticipated that integrativeness would emerge as a factor from the questionnaires. When the indices for the two constructs were compared in the final full set summary of questionnaire data, integrativeness is indexed at 134 and instrumentality at 131.

5.2.6.2 Lecturer-specific factors

Because this factor was not included in the focus group questions, it was unclear what would emerge from the questionnaire. There was an indication from some of the participants that they considered lecturer impact to be of importance, but no significant conclusions could be drawn from the focus group data. It was therefore interesting to discover which lecturer-specific factors were perceived as most relevant by participants. Participants seemed to favour affiliative drive and direct socialisation of motivation (modelling, feedback and task presentation) over authority type as a possible factor.

5.2.6.3 Language use anxiety

This was another interesting factor, yielding mixed results. For this reason it has been included as both a contributing and detracting factor. Based on the data from the focus groups, language use anxiety is a detractor from motivation, but the questionnaire data seem to suggest that participants do not perceive language use anxiety as being a prominent factor.

5.2.6.4 Goal setting

Focus group discussions seemed to suggest that participants favoured a mastery orientation over a performance orientation. It was initially considered to be a localised response, but questionnaire data confirmed that participants perceived themselves as having a mastery orientation.

5.2.6.5 The threat to identity

While personal experience in the field of education had created an awareness of the impact of learning English on speakers of other languages, there was no real evidence to confirm these

notions. This study has, however, shed some light on the issues of identity and English language learning. The unconscious ambivalence among participants was of particular interest. It also became apparent that for these participants, identity was strongly context-specific, and allowed them to change their behaviour from one context to another. One could conclude that participants possessed a multilingual context-bound identity.

5.3 REVIEW OF GOALS

The aim of this study was to explore the interaction between English language learning and student perceptions of their motivational orientations. The research questions were:

- Which factors influence motivation at the language level?
- Which factors influence motivation at the programme level?
- Which factors influence motivation at the classroom level?
- Which factors influence motivation at the individual level?
- How do these factors interact?

The findings were relatively well-aligned with the initial goals and research questions. Each of the questions was answered to a greater or lesser degree of success. The factors that emerged were interesting and sometimes unexpected. The most prominent factors which were included in the discussion of the findings yielded some valuable insights into the perceptions of the participants in the study.

5.4 ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER

In studies where researchers find themselves in a position of authority over the participants, it is necessary to consider the researcher's role in the research process. As Lemesiano and Grinberg (2006, p.218) point out, "[t]he translation process whereby local knowledge becomes scholarly knowledge is particularly fraught with danger for education researchers...as it is deeply rooted in power relations". Power issues that had to be borne in mind included the age, ethnicity, social status and education levels (O'Leary, 2004) of both the researcher and participants. As a 42-year-old, white, middle-class, well-educated, English-speaking woman, interviewing black, Xhosa-speaking, working-class twenty-something-year olds, the perceptions of both the researcher and participants were bound to be affected in some way.

Some of this imbalance of power could be addressed by taking other considerations into account, like establishing a rapport with the participants; and being aware of the expectations one may have of participants (Grieve, 2005b). Due to the nature of the relationship between the researcher and

many of the participants, a rapport had already been established based on classroom and campus interactions. This facilitated an open and relaxed exchange during focus group discussions as was evidenced by their willingness to express their opinions and share their experiences. Participants were, for the most part, relaxed during focus group discussions as can be observed from their body language in the video recordings. Also, because the researcher and participants were familiar with one another, the researcher was aware of participant limitations and proficiencies in expressing themselves in English. It was possible for the researcher to match the level of questioning to the proficiency of the participants.

Lemesiano and Grinberg (2006) also caution that any research study provides only a partial reality of the participants, mediated by the researcher. Throughout the research process, this potentially problematic aspect of the research was considered and reflected on by the researcher. All attempts were made to represent the voices of the participants as fairly and honestly as possible in the process of making meaning from the data.

As Neumann (2006) points out, it is the role of the researcher to provide meaning to the data; to translate and make the data understandable. The researcher started with the perceptions, opinions, beliefs and cognitions of the participants, which can be termed first-order interpretation (Neumann, 2006). Next, the researcher reconstructed the first-order interpretation to create meaning from the data and in doing so creates a second-order interpretation (Neumann, 2006). The researcher also assigned broader theoretical significance to the data by making the link with the theoretical framework (Neumann, 2006) introduced in Chapter 2.

5.5 SHORTCOMINGS OF THE STUDY

The fact that research goals were largely met, does not however mean that there are no shortcomings in the study. Firstly, because motivation is such a complex phenomenon, there are a number theories and factors that simply could not be included for consideration due to the limited scope of a half-thesis masters. These include:

- Schumann's Acculturation Model (Barker, 2004)
- different aspects of identity such as culture and personal identity; social identity; ethnolinguistic vitality; group boundaries and multiple group membership
- amotivation and learned helplessness
- the role of feedback in motivation

Secondly, only when the data were analysed could better insight be gained into the effect of language use in both the questionnaire and focus group questions. In retrospect, questions could have been worded more carefully and precisely. In addition to this, a more adequate distinction between a number of closely related concepts (self-concept, self-worth, self-efficacy, linguistic self-

confidence and perceived L2 competence), could have improved the quality of the findings.

Thirdly, due to time constraints and the timing of examinations in the FET sector, it was not possible to check the accuracy of transcriptions and the interpretation thereof with participants. A counter-measure, namely having a critical colleague transcribe the recordings independently to the researcher and making comparisons afterwards had to suffice. In addition to this, the critical colleague was involved in acting as a sounding-board for interpretations in an expert capacity in lieu of member-checking. As Messick (1995 in Vogt, King & King, 2004, p.232) points out, “one method of content validation involves consulting with experts or members of the target population.”

5.6 CONTRIBUTION OF STUDY AND FURTHER AVENUES OF RESEARCH

A small mixed method case study such as this does not lend itself to generalisation. However, because of the context-specific nature of the study, it can be used to improve the classroom practice of the staff on the site where the study was conducted.

The study provided some valuable insights into some of the people who make up FET colleges, namely the participants in the study. The qualitative data collected during focus group discussions are rich in powerful statements and insights provided by participants, which can guide English lecturers at the site in adapting their approaches to better suit the needs of their students.

It could also contribute to identifying shortcomings in textbooks, the FET English FAL curriculum, policy and practice. In understanding student motivation, conclusions may be drawn on how to improve student motivation and, ultimately student performance. It may also contribute to the body of literature on FET colleges in South Africa.

The study also serves to create a partial motivation profile of marketing students at and FET college, by identifying those factors that contribute to and those that detract from motivation. These contributions are necessarily only partial and context specific, which lends itself to a number of further avenues for future research.

The avenues for further research have been divided into two categories: the data that had been collected but excluded due to the limited scope of the study and interesting aspects emerging from the analysis of data, which may warrant further investigation.

5.6.1 DATA EXCLUDED FROM THE STUDY

The following were included in the questionnaire, but could not be included due to limited space:

- the correlation between attendance and perceived results
- the impact of gender differences on motivation
- the impact of age differences on motivation
- the impact of participants' socio-economic status on motivation

- the impact of lecturer differences on motivation
- a comparison of differences between the three NQF levels
- whether the NC(V) Marketing course was the first choice of participants or not and its impact on motivation

5.6.2 INTERESTING ASPECTS THAT MAY WARRANT FURTHER INVESTIGATION

It was not possible to discuss all the data and findings in great detail. Some of the areas that proved interesting and could result in further research are:

- the interaction between identity, integrativeness and instrumentality in the FET context
- self-efficacy, self-worth and academic failure in the FET context
- language use anxiety and its impact on WTC and perceived L2 competence in the FET context
- exploring perceptions regarding the difficulty level of the NC(V) English course
- assessing actual difficulty of the NC(V) English course
- exploring the inverse proportionality of attendance and achievement among Marketing students studying English FAL at this FET college

5.7 CONCLUSION

Much of the data were surprising in that they pointed to relatively high levels of motivation among participants. This was not an expected result. Class attendance would seem to suggest that students were demotivated and uninterested in English. The distinction Gardner (2007) makes between classroom and language learning motivation seems to be the best explanation for this discrepancy.

Another explanation that seems to fit this study is the distinction between orientation and motivation. It would seem that while participants have a positive orientation (the intention to act), this is not necessarily translated into motivation (the act itself).

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LIST OF APPENDICES

- A: Coded theoretical framework
- B: Questions for focus group discussions
- C: Transcriptions of focus group discussions
- D: Motivation questionnaire
- E: Consent documentation
 - E1: Letter requesting consent from the college
 - E2: Student consent form for focus group participation
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- G: Calculations for questionnaire analytical framework
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 - H1: Language level full data set
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CODED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

LANGUAGE LEVEL

A: Attitude

1. Integrativeness
 - a. Self-concept
 - i. Hypothetical
 - ii. Actual
 - iii. L2 possible selves
 - b. Identity
2. Instrumental

PROGRAMME LEVEL

B: Course-specific factors

1. Interest
2. Relevance
3. Expectancy
4. Satisfaction

CLASSROOM LEVEL

C: Lecturer-specific factors

1. Affiliative drive
2. Authority type
3. Direct socialisation
 - a. Modelling
 - b. Feedback
 - c. Task presentation

D: Group-specific factors

1. Goal orientedness
2. Group cohesion
3. Classroom goal structure
 - a. Competitive
 - b. Cooperative
 - c. Individualistic
4. Norm and reward systems

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

E: Self-determination

1. Intrinsic
 - a. Feedback
2. Extrinsic
3. Autonomy
4. Amotivation
 - a. Learned helplessness

F: Achievement Theory

1. Desire to succeed
2. Fear of Failure

G: Expectancy-value

1. Value placed on the completion of the task
 - a. Attainment
 - b. Cost
 - c. Intrinsic
 - d. Extrinsic utility
2. Expectancy of task completion
 - a. Self-worth
 - b. Self-efficacy
 - c. Attribution
 - i. Effort
 - ii. Ability
 - d. Linguistic self-confidence
 - i. Willingness to communicate
 - ii. Language-use anxiety
 - iii. Perceived L2 competence

H: Goal Theory

1. Goal setting theory
2. Goal orientation
 - a. Mastery
 - b. Performance

QUESTIONS FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

SECTION A: PROGRAMME LEVEL		CODES
PART 1: COURSE-SPECIFIC MOTIVATIONAL COMPONENTS		
1	Do you think that the English course at college is useful? (wait for response) Explain what is useful/not useful.	B2
2	What parts of the English course are interesting?	B1
3	Are you satisfied that the course teaches you what you need?	B4
4	What would you like to see in the English course? You can also mention things that are in the course at the moment.	B3
SECTION B: CLASSROOM LEVEL		CODES
Part 1: Lecturer-specific motivational components <i>This part was left out because of reliability, validity and ethical concerns</i>		
Part 2: Group-specific motivational components <i>The remainder of this component is addressed in the questionnaire</i>		
5	Would your experience of English be different if you were in a different class group? (wait for response) Why/why not?	D2
SECTION C: INDIVIDUAL LEVEL		CODES
6	Is it important for you to get good marks in English?	H2; F
7	How do you feel when you have to speak English in class? (wait for response) a) How do you feel when you have to answer questions? b) How do you feel when you have to make a presentation?	G2b; G2d (ii) & (iii)
8	If you failed an assessment, what do you think the reasons would be?	G2c
*11	Would you choose to speak to an English speaker if you had the chance to do so? <i>*this question was asked 11th but is assigned to this level</i>	G2d
<i>Self-efficacy is addressed in the questionnaire</i>		

SECTION D: LANGUAGE LEVEL		CODES
9	Would you say you have a positive attitude towards English and English speakers?	A
10	Statement: Having to speak English has a negative impact on my home language. What do you think about this statement?	A1b
12	Do you see yourself as being excellent at English one day?	A1a

TRANSCRIPTIONS OF FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Group 1 (NQF Level 2): 19 April 2011 at 11:00

Group 2 (NQF Level 3): 19 April 2011 at 12:00

Group 3 (NQF Level 4): 18 April 2011 at 10:30

LANGUAGE LEVEL

A: ATTITUDE

Q: Would you say you have a positive attitude towards English and English speakers?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A	S1	Positive. It affects a lot of things.
G	S2	I don't have confidence. I feel nervous.
G	S3	I'm positive doing presentations.
A1b)	S4	I don't feel comfortable speaking English.
A1b)		People think you're a coconut. The people I'm with speak Xhosa.
A		I'm a bit negative towards English.
A1b)	S3	People don't have to judge you by the language you speak.
A1b)		They need to accept you for who you are.
A2	S2	We're not perfect. We must practice every time.
A1a)		We are practicing for our future.
D	S1	True friends will support you to do something positive.
G2b)		You need to say: "I can do this."
D	S5	(peer pressure)
A2		But in the workplace you will have to speak English.
A2		You must have a positive attitude
A1a)		because it's for your future.

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A	S3	Yes (emphatic).
A	S4	No (hesitant).
A2	S2	To be able to communicate with English speakers
A2	S3	It connects you with everybody. People can answer back in English.
A	S5	It's a nice language. I'm so positive towards it.
A2		It connects you with everybody. You <i>have</i> (participant's emphasis) to speak English, somewhere, somehow.
A		It's not that difficult.
A	S3	Even when we are sitting around, no-one is offended when you speak English. We mix it.
A	S4	I have a negative attitude. I don't understand why we have to speak English. Why can't we speak Xhosa to you? You can learn Xhosa if you want.
A2	S1	But in a company (working) you have to speak English.
A	S2	Why is English the universal language? Why English?
A2	S5	In the business world there are many languages, but you need a language that everybody understands. We need one language.
A	S3	I think English people are smart enough to influence their language so everybody would go with English. Wherever they go they force people to speak English. It's a simple language and
A1b)		we (Xhosa people) are very accepting/accommodating. We don't want anyone to be left out. If we're 4 or 5 and 1 is not Xhosa, we will rather speak English.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A	S2	[nodding]
A	S6	I'm positive to English and home language speakers.
A Towards English SPEAKERS	S4	Of course if someone speaks English it gives me confidence that someone is going to say something interesting. I have to listen.
A A2	S3	I'm neutral. I don't regard it as positive or negative. English is to communicate. It's a communication tool.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A A1a)	S1	I'm neutral – if someone speaks English fluently then they undermine someone who doesn't. If you say 'stop beating around the bush', someone does not understand.
A1a)	S3	Because we are all different. Fluent people don't understand I'm Xhosa. All black people are not the same. Three different speakers, Xhosa, Tswana, etc. don't have the same accent. People undermine that I speak like Mandela and she [gesturing towards student 5] speaks it so fluently like she's a telephone machine or something.
A1a)	S1	When black people speak English, white people think they're dumb, because of the accent and because we tend to take our time. So when we talk, it seems we don't know what to say.

A1a) IDENTITY

Q: Having to speak English has a negative effect on my home language. What do you think about that statement?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1b) A1b) A2	S4	Some people forget about their culture. They want white things. I should stick to my own language and background, so as not to forget it. But I have to adapt
A2 A A1a) A2	S5	There are certain things we have to embrace. We don't have to follow western culture to speak English. Western kids are rude, they talk back to parents. We're not taking the language as our own. You can have the language without becoming white. 'I have to be like this to fit in', but you should keep your culture, just using English as a language, not a lifestyle.
A1a) A2	S1	At home you have to be at home – be yourself, speak your language that everyone uses. If you speak English you can offend people. They can feel left out. You need to speak your own language. At work it must be different.
A2 A2 A2	S2	Our parents want us to practice English. They motivate us to speak English. This is sometimes negative, sometimes not. Small kids are taught to speak English for the future. We are teaching them to speak English but they do speak Xhosa at home. They do their homework in English but play in Xhosa.
A2 A2 A2 A2	S3	I don't think it really has a negative effect. Parents send kids to schools where they can do well and learn. English plays a big role. Being able to speak English properly is very important, e.g. television and radio – especially radio. The people on TV and radio speak English properly. It's more about learning.

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1b)	S2	Some people forget their home language when they know English. I don't know if it's on purpose.
A A1b)	S4	A child starting in a white school...my sisters can't write Xhosa, so English has a negative effect on our home language.
A1b)	S1	I had to speak English in primary school. But in high school, if you speak English, people think you treat yourself high, so I had to speak Xhosa.
A1b)	S4	Grandmothers can't speak English. Your mother has to explain the child goes to a white school. The grandmothers say:"You must take the child back to his roots".
A1b)	S2	It's not English that does that to people. It's people who do it to themselves. You're not white.
A2 A1b) A2 G2c) A1b) A1b)	S3	To me it's like they speak it because it's new to them. They don't understand Xhosa has a place in their lives. Your home language is important. English is for opening up the world. When we are at home, we make sure we speak our own language. We're also trained at home there's a language when you go out – a language to interact with people, so you don't want to be found as ignorant and be respected because you speak their language. You have taken time to learn. It does have a negative effect on our language and we are to blame to not find pride in our own language. In Xhosa when you speak to elders, you speak in a specific way. There are things that you can say better in English than in Xhosa, but we understand and express better in Xhosa.
A1b)	S5	It has a negative effect. There are categories of addressing elders. These children, coconut children lose respect. They can't differentiate.
A	S1	They think they're better. They're perfect because they know English. They think they're better.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A	S4	Yes, it does, but sometimes...
A1b)	S6	I find it so hard to finish a sentence in Xhosa. Somehow I've got to use an English word. I don't know why. In normal conversations with friends there must be an English word.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1b)	S2	Most people in the community won't understand.
A1b)	S1	Especially when you speak with them in rural areas because their Xhosa is different from the city. Here we mix Xhosa and English and they can't understand.
A	S6	It does have a negative effect on our Xhosa.

Q: Does English impact on your identity as a Xhosa speaker?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1b)	S1	No, not if you who you are and where you're from.
A1b)	S2	People from rural areas and townships their Xhosa is different. Rural people are English at school only. In the city English is any time- mixing Xhosa and English.

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1a)	All	[nodding]
A1b)	S4	The way you speak Xhosa. We will use English mixed with Xhosa.
A1b)	S2	When you buy a drink, you use English. "Ndifuna idrink".
A1b)	S5	My 5-year-old niece, at home, she says: "So what?" How do you know 'so what'? And there's always 'because'. The new generation has other cultural influences.
A2	S2	When she grows up she will speak English. People want to know English at an early age. Parents want their children to speak English from an early age. 20 – 35 years from now...eish...Xhosa...
A1b)	S4	We're losing our origins.
A1b)	S3	But still we'll be the best...
A2	S2	In our environment, we <i>have</i> (participant's emphasis) to use English, even if we are going to lose our roots, our culture.
A1b)		We can't even do our traditional ceremonies properly, even at funerals...

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1b)	All	Ja, ja, ja, ja
A1b)	S1	Some people forget their culture, their roots
A1b)	S5	They don't forget. They don't see the importance. Like me in Xhosa culture. There are some things I don't know how to do, don't want to do, don't understand why.
A1b)	S1	Most people don't feel the same as their parents about culture. Our generation looks at it and thinks: "What are they doing?"
A1b)	S6	"Oh no! They're slaughtering a goat!" It's not about forgetting.
A1b)	S5	We do it. It's our culture, but if it's up to us, not parents, we wouldn't do it.
A1b)	S1	We follow western, instead of our own culture. We watch TV
A1b)	S3	My nieces are fluent in English. When they call people's name in Xhosa, they do it with an English accent and I get angry.
A1b)	S1	It depends on the way you are brought up by your parents. They want the best for us. They send us to private school and educate us at home about our culture.
A1b)	S3	Some parents get away from their culture. Running away to suburbs.

PROGRAMME LEVEL

B: COURSE SPECIFIC FACTORS

B2: RELEVANCE

Q: Do you think the English course at college is useful?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A	S1	We need it.
A2	S2	It's good for marketing.
A1	S3	Presentations and talking to people.
A2		Pronunciation – to sound like native speakers.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A2	S4	To understand each other.
A2	S5	The global nature of English – to travel. We need fluency for job purposes.

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
B2	S1 – 5	Yes (chorus)
A1a) A2	S1	Yes, for what we want to become For your marketing career you need English to communicate.
A2	S2	In business you need English. It's a universal language. We need to write and communicate in English.
A2 A2	S3	In the business world, English is the standard. It helps with learning content subjects.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
B2	S2	No, I feel the stuff we're taught from level 2 to 4 is the same thing.
B2 A2	S3	I disagree. I learnt English as second language is high school. My home language is isiXhosa. Learning English at college is useful. To be in a multilingual school we have to speak English. I do find it useful in that manner. I learn to express myself with confidence in English.
A2	S1	It will help marketing students in the long run. We learn how to apply for jobs, so it is a good thing. It helps people to talk, do presentations.

B1: INTEREST

Q: How interesting is the subject English?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
B1 A2 A2	S5	Very interesting. We are able to communicate. We get to understand and use English.
A2 A2	S2	Learning new words. We learn from word to word.
B1	S4	It' interesting and challenging.
B1 B2	S3	We get to learn new things.
B1 B4	S1	We learn something new every day.

Q: What parts of the English course are interesting?

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2d)i	S1	How to write English. Even if we were in English schools we can speak English, but in writing we are not so perfect.
B1 B3	S5	Especially writing letters. It's interesting to see format.
B1 B2	S4	We learn something new every day. I think I know, but I realise I don't.
E3	S2	When you put your own ideas together.
C3b) E1a)	S1	When you think you wrote the best English essay ever and you look at your answer sheet....
B1 B3	S3	Adjectives and to learn how to construct sentences.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A2	S2	English interacts with other subjects.
A2	S4	You can apply it in your future marketing career.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A2	S4	How to do business communication for job purposes.
A2	S5	It is interesting the things we do,
B1		for example presentations.
B1		I enjoy learning about things in general and talking about stuff.
B1		We learn things. It gives us new ideas, how to get ideas,
D3b)		we can get together.
B1	S1	It is interesting. We didn't know we could write poems.

B4: SATISFACTION

Q: Are you satisfied that the course teaches you what you need?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1a)	S1	It's good for the future. Even if it's not useful now.
B4		We'll eventually pick something up and we'll remember it when we need it.

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
B4	S1	Yes, how to speak, use the right words.
B2		
B4	S3	Perfect writing skills, how to flow, writing a poem, using words that are interesting and thought-provoking.
B2		

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A2 B2	S2	Presenting, choosing the correct words.
A2	S3	Jargon for a certain line of work and how to address people.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
B4	S1-5	Yes (chorus)
B2 B4	S2	You learn useful things. We've learnt so much already.
A1a) A2	S5	Things you need for the future.

B3: EXPECTANCY

Q: What would you like to see as part of the English course?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1 A B3	S5	Formal English, not slang – when and how to use it.
A1 A2 B3	S3	Oral practice – people are not confident in pronunciation.
G2d)	S2	It's hard to speak English in front of people.
B3	S5	Writing is also needed. In Xhosa words are in a different order. People do direct translations from Xhosa when speaking English.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2d) ii B3	S1	Some people are more comfortable writing, rather than speaking. It's very nerve-wracking to speak. We need to learn how to do proper presentations, e.g. cue cards, eye contact.
B3 A2	S3	We need presenting to get confidence for the workplace.
B3 A2	S5	We need to learn how to deal with customers of all languages and cultures. Learning how to persuade, approach and captivate people or an audience

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
B3	S2	More presentations, own ideas...
B3	S5	Unprepared orals
B3 A1a)	S2	Role plays to perfect our speaking.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
B3	S4	Presenting more
A2	S2	Business etiquette – telephone, business communication...
B3	S1	People have a problem with speaking in public. We need more public speaking training.
B3 A2	S3	The subject can include debate – general debate – to get used to expressing our own ideas.

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

G: EXPECTANCY-VALUE

G2b: Self-efficacy

G2d: Linguistic self-confidence

Q: How do you feel when you have to speak English in class?GROUP1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2d)ii	S2	I think of what I'm going to say. It confuses me when I have to present. I think of words. I'm shaking. I try my best. The words flush and I can't present
G2d	S3	I feel confident. We had lots of practice in high school. If you didn't do it, you got 0 and I don't want 0. There's nothing scary. It's just talking.
G2d)ii	S4	I feel nervous, but tell myself not to be.
A1b)	S1	I feel more comfortable speaking English than my home language (Xhosa).

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2d)ii A2	S4	I don't like it. It's difficult, but I have to.
G2d)ii	S2	I feel nervous. People are judgemental. In the back of your mind you think people will judge you or they're going to laugh at me.
G2d)1 G2d)ii G2d)iii	S1	Students think it's all about accent instead of what you say. It's not. It's about the content.
G2d)ii A1a) G2d) G2d)	S3	It's a fear 'cause we're not familiar with words and how to pronounce. It's not our home language but it's one step forward in growing. We need to pronounce... a person should hear you clearly the first time. To show you're not ignorant.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2d)ii	S4	Your worst enemy is yourself. What is Mrs X going to think about me? You end up saying the wrong thing.
G2b) G2d) H2a) G1d)	S5	It's not so difficult. English is not my home language, but I'm confident. I mumble sometimes and I know I'm going to make mistakes, but I'll make my point. I'm learning. Everyone will hear what I'm saying.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A1 G2d) G2d)ii	S5	I've done English as first language. In most cases I talk a lot. I did debates, so to me English is something I do fluently. I'm used to it. Other people are shy. They're not used to speaking English.
A1 G2d)ii	S1	My whole life I've been speaking English. My dad is Venda and my mom is Xhosa, so English is like a first language (even though it's my 3 rd language). People are scared to pronounce some words.
G2d)ii	S3	I speak English as my 2 nd language. At school, things were explained in Xhosa. It's difficult to come out and speak English in public, 'cause we're not fluent. People are scared of judgement. They can speak English. Our problem is we laugh at each other.
G2d)ii A1b)	S6	We tend to judge. If you talk English, people will say you're a coconut.
A1b)	S5	All through my life I've been called a coconut.
A1b)	S6	That thing is there.

G2c): CAUSAL ATTRIBUTION

Q: If you failed an English assessment, what would you think the reasons are?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2c)ii	S3	Not understanding the questions.
G2c)ii	S5	Not having the skills to answer questions.
G2c)	S2	Some people undermine English. We think we know, but we don't. We don't read the exam, we just write.
G2c)ii	S1	We're used to doing things in slang and can't write properly.
G2c)i		Or I wasn't concentrating enough.
G2c)i	S3	I didn't study.
G2c)i	S5	I didn't study enough and can't differentiate types of language.

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2c)i	S1	If I fail, I know that I didn't study. Something was wrong. Something happened at home. I was under stress. Your mind's thinking something else.
G2c)i	S2	When people don't attend class, don't study, are not serious.
G2c)i	S3	I'd be disappointed. I'd kick myself. Reason – you are bad. It would be my own fault – something I did – made too many mistakes, didn't read the question properly, didn't answer what was asked, didn't understand.
G2d	S4	I'm never going to fail English.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2c)i	S5	We don't read our questions.
G2c)i	S3	We're lazy. We don't follow instructions.
G2d)ii		We just gave up and get nervous.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
G2c)i B3	S6	Laziness. We don't want to read. We like practical. I'd rather do something. If we did all practical in all subjects, people won't fail.
A2 B4 B1	S5	It gives us experience and we enjoy doing it. It gets us involved.
A2	S6	It can help us get a job one day.
G2d)ii	S1	In theory, when we are writing, we get nervous.
G2c)i	S3	In the questions we lose marks when we don't use quotation marks to quote.
G2c)i	S1	You get everything right but the small stuff.
G2c)i	S5	We focus more on writing rather than the details.
B2 B4 B3	S6	Some of us we don't see the use of it. We started English in school. So even in tertiary we want to do Marketing, not English and LO. We need or want only core subjects. That's why we take English for granted. People don't need to do much to pass. We think that we're stepping backwards. You expect something else in tertiary.
B	S2	We feel some of the stuff we've already done in high school.
B	S3	It feels like a waste of time.
A	S6	When you feel that, that's the moment you fail. You come with an attitude to English.
B	S4	Most students hate English and LO. It's the same thing. No need for me to go to class. We just go for the assessments.

F: ACHIEVEMENT THEORY
H: GOAL SETTING THEORY

Q: Is it important for you to get good marks in English?

GROUP 1

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A2 F	S5	Yes, the way I perform in English determines how I will do in other subjects. I need to understand the language of other subjects.

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A2	S4	Maths and English go hand in hand. I need to understand. If I don't get good marks in Maths, it's because I don't know my English.
A2	S3	I agree.
A2	S2	English is the key for academic performance. If I fail English, it tells me that I don't understand any other subjects.

GROUP 2

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
A2	S2	You have to pass to get to the next level.
G2c)i	S1	If I get low marks in English, I feel down. I know I could have done more.
F H2a)	S4	If you get 80% or 90% you get that feeling in you. You ask yourself 'why didn't I' if you don't.
H2a)	S2	If you do well, you feel that you are growing, that you have learnt.
C1	S4	It shows that students give positive feedback to the lecturer.

GROUP 3

CODE	STUDENT	COMMENT
H2 F	S5	When they want to see your qualifications, they want to see your English marks. English is the main language.
A2	S2	English is used as a communication language.
A	S3	English is equal to marketing in value and status. I try and get good marks in both.

MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions have been designed to determine motivation levels among marketing students **studying English** as part of their NC(V) course. It forms part of an M.Ed study conducted into the perceptions of NC(V) marketing students.

Please complete the questionnaire as truthfully as possible. Your participation in this questionnaire is both VOLUNTARY and ANONYMOUS.

**VERY IMPORTANT: PLEASE COMPLETE ALL THE QUESTIONS.
REMEMBER THE QUESTIONS ARE ABOUT YOUR EXPERIENCES OF STUDYING ENGLISH.**

Thank you for participating in this study.

PART 1

Please tick the box that best describes your current situation:

1	NC(V) Level	2	
		3	
		4	
2	Age	Under 18	
		18-19	
		20-21	
		22-25	
		25+	
3	Gender	Male	
		Female	
4	Home language	English	
		Xhosa	
		Afrikaans	
		Other	

5	Highest grade completed	9	
		10	
		11	
		12	
6	Write down the year in which you left school		
7	% obtained for your last English assessment	0 – 29%	
		30 – 39%	
		40 – 49%	
		50 – 59%	
		60 – 69%	
		70 – 79%	
		80 – 100%	
8	In which grade were you first taught in English (if the exact grade is not indicated, choose the closest one)	Grade 1	
		Grade 4	
		Grade 8	
		Grade 10	
9	Do you live	In the college hostel	
		Alone	
		In a house/flat with other students	
		With your parents	
		With other family members	

10	The total monthly income of your household	Less than R1000	
		R1000 - R2000	
		R2000 - R5000	
		R5000 – R10 000	
		R10 000 +	
11	Type of school previously attended If you are unsure, write the name of your school here _____	Rural	
		Urban township	
		Ex-model C	
		Private	
		Unsure	
12	Have you applied for a bursary?	Yes	
		No	
13	Have you received a bursary?	Yes	
		No	
14	Was marketing your first choice?	Yes	
		No	
15	If it was not, please write down what your first choice was		
16	Was NC(V) your first choice?	Yes	
		No	
17	If it was not, please write down what your first choice was		

PART 2

Complete the following section as **truthfully** as possible. Do not be concerned about what other people’s responses might be. Give your own independent answer to EACH question.

Read the statements below and say whether you **STRONGLY AGREE**; **AGREE**; **DISAGREE**; **STRONGLY DISAGREE**, by **placing a cross** in the block that best describes your view.

VERY IMPORTANT: PLEASE COMPLETE ALL THE QUESTIONS

1	Studying English is important because it will help me grow as a person	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
2	I like English language-speakers	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
3	I like the English language	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
4	I prefer to speak English, rather than my own language	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
5	I want to be good at English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

6	I feel as if I am making progress in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
7	I believe I will do well in English this year	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
8	I would feel bad if I failed an English assessment	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
9	I feel like a failure when I do badly in an English assessment	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
10	I volunteer to answer questions in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
11	I feel my cultural identity is threatened when I communicate in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

12	I want to learn English in order to be valued like members of the English speaking community	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
13	English Home Language speakers have a lot to be proud about because they have given the world much of value	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
14	Learning to speak English well is important to me	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
15	People who are good at English have a better chance of getting a good job	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
16	I enjoy studying English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
17	I take responsibility for my own language learning	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

18	In the English class, I ask the lecturer if I do not understand something	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
19	I put a lot of effort into learning English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
20	I like getting good marks in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
21	I use my test results to see how well I'm doing in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
22	I would like to be the best in my English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
23	I prefer challenging tasks in the English class to easy ones	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

24	I give up easily when the work is difficult in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
25	I feel confident answering questions in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
26	I feel confident making formal speech presentations in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
27	I get very worried if I make mistakes during English lessons	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
28	I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I have to speak English in class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
29	My reading ability in English is good	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

30	My writing ability in English is good	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
31	My speaking ability in English is good	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
32	My ability to understand English is good	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
33	Doing badly in an English assessment makes me want to work harder for the next one	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
34	If I do badly in an English assessment, it's because I'm just not good at English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
35	I feel like I do not have control over how well I do in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

36	I give up easily when the work is difficult in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
37	I think my English class is boring	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
38	I can see how the activities we do in class help me to learn English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
39	What we learn in English is useful to me	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
40	English is a very important part of the college programme	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
41	My English class is really a waste of time	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

42	I look forward to going to class because my English lecturer is so good	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
43	I really like my class group	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
44	I really like my English lecturer	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
45	My English lecturer is too strict	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
46	We don't get a chance to give our opinions in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
47	I think my English lecturer is enthusiastic and committed to their work	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

48	My English lecturer is well-prepared for lessons	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
49	My English lecturer has an exciting and interesting teaching style	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
50	My English lecturer gives me good feedback on tasks and assessments	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
51	Most students in my class agree that it is important to work hard in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
52	My class and I have the same attitude about working in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
53	I try to do well in English because of pressure from my classmates	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

54	My classmates tease me when I do well in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
55	The students in my class do not enjoy being together in a class group	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
56	I really like my class group	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
57	The students in my class enjoy competing with each other for good results in English	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
58	The students in my class prefer to work together in groups to get work done in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
59	I feel less anxious in the English class when working in small groups than working as a whole class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

60	I like it when my English lecturer does most of the talking in class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	
61	I like it when we work mostly in small groups to help each other understand the work in the English class	Strongly agree	
		Agree	
		Disagree	
		Strongly disagree	

Thank you very much for your participation. It is much appreciated.

LETTER REQUESTING CONSENT FROM THE COLLEGE

20 Mackay Street
Richmond Hill
6001
PORT ELIZABETH

8 February 2011

Dear [REDACTED]

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am currently completing my Master's in Education at Rhodes University, specialising in English Language teaching. As a part of my course, I am conducting motivation research to investigate the factors that affect student motivation at FET Colleges.

The aim of the study is to identify ways of motivating students in the language classroom. I will also be compiling a profile of the motivated language student. My hope is that this information will contribute to greater effectiveness in designing language syllabi for NC(V), as well as guiding English lecturers to more successfully motivate language learners.

The study will focus on Marketing students. Participation by students will be strictly voluntary and anonymous. The identity of the college will also not be revealed.

The research process will comprise focus group interviews with both students and staff in the Marketing department, as well as questionnaires which will be piloted in the Utilities Department before distribution to Marketing students.

I would be grateful if you would give consent for this study to be conducted at [REDACTED]. Please complete the consent form attached.

If you have any further queries, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours sincerely

Ericha Cosburn
erichac.pefet@feta.gov.za (e-mail)
084 625 3509 (cell)

CONSENT FORM

I, _____, hereby confirm that I have given Ericha Cosburn permission to conduct motivation research among Marketing students at [REDACTED]. I understand that the data obtained will be used in her Master's thesis, focusing on student motivation. I know thesis will explore the thoughts, beliefs, experiences and practices among staff and students in the Marketing department with regards to English language learning.

I am aware that the name of the college will be altered to protect its identity. I understand that student and staff participation is voluntary.

SIGNATURE

DATE

STUDENT CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPATION

CONSENT FORM

I, _____, hereby confirm that I have given Ericha Cosburn permission to audio- and video-record a group interview in which I have agreed to participate. I understand that this interview will be used in her Master's thesis, focusing on student experiences & views of English in the Marketing course. I know the interview will explore my thoughts, beliefs, experiences and practices with regards to English language learning.

I am aware that my name will be altered to protect my identity. I understand that my participation is voluntary.

SIGNATURE

DATE

STUDENT CONSENT FORM FOR QUESTIONNAIRES

CONSENT FORM

I, _____, hereby confirm that I have consented to participate in the questionnaire. I understand that this questionnaire will be used in the Master's thesis of Ericha Cosburn, focusing on student experiences & views of English in the Marketing course. I know the questionnaire will explore my thoughts, beliefs and practices with regards to English language learning.

I am aware that my name will not appear anywhere on the questionnaire form. I understand that my participation is voluntary.

SIGNATURE

DATE

CALCULATIONS FOR FOCUS GROUP ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Analytical Framework	Utterances	Relative % (Tier 1)	Relative % (Tier 2)	Relative % (Tier 3)	Relative % (Tier 4)	Relative % (Tier 5)
LANGUAGE LEVEL	102*	47.44				
A: Attitude	13		100			
3. Integrative	4			7.55		
b. Identity	36				100	
4. Instrumental	49			92.45		
TOTAL			100	100	100	
PROGRAMME LEVEL	45*	20.93				
B: Course-specific factors	45*		100			
1. Interest	12			26.67		
2. Relevance	11			24.44		
3. Expectancy	14			31.11		
4. Satisfaction	8			17.78		
TOTAL			100	100		
CLASSROOM LEVEL	9*	4.19				
D: Group-specific factors	9*		100			
2. Group cohesion	9			100		
TOTAL			100	100		
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	59*	27.44				
F: Achievement theory	8		13.56			
G: Expectancy-value theory	45*		76.27			
5. Expectancy of task completion	45*			100		
b. Self-efficacy	7				33.33	
c. Attribution	8				38.10	
d. Linguistic self-confidence	6				28.57	
ii. Language-use anxiety	16					66.67
iii. Perceived L2 competence	8					33.33
H: Goal Theory	6*		10.17			
2. Goal orientation	6*			100		
a. Mastery	6				100	
TOTAL			100	200 (G, H)	200 (G2, H2)	100
TOTALS (Tier 1)	215	100				

*These values are totals and not raw utterances

CALCULATIONS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Analytical Framework	Index value	Relative % (Tier 1)	Relative % (Tier 2)	Relative % (Tier 3)	Relative % (Tier 4)	Relative % (Tier 5)
LANGUAGE LEVEL	102	22.13				
A: Attitude	42		100			
6. Integrativeness	134			50.57		
a. Self-concept	138				100	
i. Hypothetical	168					38.62
ii. Actual	108					24.83
iii. L2 possible selves	159					36.55
7. Instrumental	131			49.43		
TOTAL			100	100	100	100
PROGRAMME LEVEL	130	28.20				
B: Course-specific factors	130		100			
4. Interest	111			28.39		
5. Relevance	139			35.55		
4. Satisfaction	141			36.06		
TOTAL			100	100		
CLASSROOM LEVEL	103	22.34				
C: Lecturer-specific factors	134		100			
1. Affiliative drive	147			50.17		
3. Direct socialisation	146			49.83		
a. Modelling	148				33.71	
b. Feedback	148				33.71	
c. Task Presentation	143				32.58	
TOTAL			100	100	100	
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	126	27.33				
E: Self-determination theory	137		26.86			
1. Intrinsic motivation	140			51.28		
3. Autonomy	133			48.72		
F: Achievement Theory	141		27.65			
G: Expectancy-value theory	108		21.18			
2. Expectancy of task completion	108			100		
b. Self-efficacy	69				23.47	
c. Attribution	133				45.24	
i. Effort	171					64.53
ii. Ability	-94					35.47
d. Linguistic self-confidence	92				31.29	
i. Willingness to communicate	103					44.21
ii. Language-use anxiety	13					5.58
iii. Perceived L2 competence	117					50.21

H. Goal Theory	124		24.31			
1. Goal setting theory	130			57.94		
2. Goal orientation (mastery)	113			42.06		
TOTAL			100	300 (E, G, H)	100	200 (G2c&d)
TOTAL (Tier 1)		100				

LANGUAGE LEVEL FULL DATA SET

3 = STRONGLY AGREE, 2 = AGREE, 1 = DISAGREE, 0 = STRONGLY DISAGREE

C.G.: CLASS GROUP

Blank spaces indicate no response from the participant

NO.	C.G.	QUESTION NUMBER														
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	11	12	13	14	15	
1	2A	3	2	2	1	3	3	2	3	1	2	1	2	3	2	
2	2A	3	2	2	1	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	
3	2A	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	0	1	2	3	1	
4	2A	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	3	1	1	2	1	2	2	
7	2A	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	3	
9	2A	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	1	2	2	
10	2A	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	1	3	3	
11	2A	3	2	2	0	3	2	3	3	0	2	3	2	3	3	
12	2A	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	1	1	2	3	3	
13	2A	3	3	3	1	2	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	3	3	
15	2A	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	0	0	0	3	3	
16	2A	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	1	3	3	
21	2A	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	3	3	
1	2B	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	
4	2B	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	2	1	2	3	
5	2B	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	1	1	2	3	2	
6	2B	3	2	2	1	3	2	3	3	3	0	3	2	3	3	
8	2B	3	2	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	0	1	3	2	
9	2B	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	1	3	2	3	3	
2	2C	2	3	3	1	3	2	3	3	3	0	0	0	3	3	
4	2C	3	3	3	0	2	2	3	0	3	2	2	2	3	3	
5	2C	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	1	
6	2C	3	2	2	0	2	2	3	3	3	1	2	3	2	3	
7	2C	3	2	3	0	3	3	3	2	0	0	0	2	3	3	
8	2C	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	
11	2C	3	3	3	1	3	3	2	3	2	2	1	1	2	2	
12	2C	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	
1	2D	3	3	3	1	3	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	3	1	
2	2D	3	3		1	3	3	3	3	3	0	3	3	3	3	
3	2D	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	2	
4	2D	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	
6	2D	3	3	3	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	3	2	3	2	
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11	2D	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	1	3	
12	2D	2	2	2	0	2	3	3	3	1	1	3	0	3	3	
13	2D	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	

16	2D	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	1	3	2	3	2
17	2D	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	0	3	2	3	3
18	2D	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	3	3
19	2D	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3
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21	2D	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	1	2	2	2	2
1	3A	3	2	2	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	2
2	3A	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	1	1	3	2	3	2
4	3A	3	2	2	0	2	3	3	2	3	1	2	2	3	3
5	3A	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	2	2
6	3A	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	0	2	3	3	3
7	3A	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	3	1	2	2	0
8	3A	2	3	2	1	3	2	2	2	0	1	2	2	2	3
9	3A	2	2	2	1	3	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	3	2
12	3A	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	0	2	1	2	2	2	3
13	3A	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	1	0	1	3	3	3
15	3A	3	3	3	1	3	2	2	3	2	1	2	3	3	3
16	3A	3	3	3	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	3	2	3	2
17	3A	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	2	2
18	3A	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	1	2	1	2	0
19	3A	3	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3
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3	3B	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	1	1	2	1	3	3
5	3B	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	3
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11	3B	2	3	2	1	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	2
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13	3B	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	1		2	1	2	1
14	3B	3	2	2		3	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3
15	3B	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	3
18	3B	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	1	1	0	1	1	3	1
1	3C	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	1	3	1
5	3C	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	3
6	3C	3	2	2	0	3	2	3	3	1	3	1	2	3	3
7	3C	2	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	0	3	2	3	2
8	3C	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2
11	3C	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	0	1	3	3	2
12	3C	3	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	3	3
13	3C	3	2	2	1	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3
14	3C	3	3	3	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	3	3	3	2
15	3C	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	3	3
18	3C	2	2	2	0	2	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	3	3

1	4A	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	1	3	1	1	3	3
2	4A	2	2	2	0	2	2	0	3	0	2	1	2	2	3
3	4A	2	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	2	0	0	2	2	3
5	4A	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	3	3	3
6	4A	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	3	3
7	4A	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	0	3	0
8	4A	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	2
9	4A	3	3	1	1	2	2	2	3	2	1	2	2	3	2
11	4A	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
12	4A	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2
13	4A	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2
14	4A	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	1	0		3	3
15	4A	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3
16	4A	3	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	2	1
17	4A	2	2	1	1	2	3	3	3	2	1	1	1	2	0
18	4A	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	1	2	2
19	4A	2	2	2	2	2	2		3	3	3	2	3	3	2
20	4A	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	0	3	3	3	3
21	4A	3	2	2	1	3	2	3	2	3	1	2	2	2	2
1	4B	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	1	0	1		2	1
3	4B	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3
4	4B	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	3
6	4B	2	2	2	1	3	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	0
8	4B	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	1	2	2	2	3	3
9	4B	3	3	2	1	3	3	2	3	2	0	1	2	3	2
10	4B	3	2		1	3	2	2	3	1	2	1	2	2	2
11	4B	2	2	2	0	3	3	2	0	3	2	2	2	3	2
12	4B	2	2	2	0	2	3	3	3	3	0	1	2	3	2
14	4B	3	2	3	1	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	3	3
15	4B	3	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	3
16	4B	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2
18	4B	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2
19	4B	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	3	3
20	4B	2	2	3	1	3	2	3	3	3	0	0	2	3	3
21	4B	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	2
23	4B	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	0	1	1	3	2
25	4B	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	2	1	2	2	3	2
26	4B	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	2	3	3
27	4B	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	0	1		2	1
1	4C	2	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	1	2	2	2	0
2	4C	2	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	2	0	1	2	2
3	4C	2	2	3	1	1	3	3	2	1	0	0	2	3	2
4	4C	3	2	2	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	2
5	4C	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3

6	4C	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	0	1	1	3	1
7	4C	2	2	2	1	3	3	3	2	3	1	1	0	2	1
8	4C	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3
9	4C	2	2	2	1	3	2	3	2	3	1	2	2	2	2
10	4C	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	3	1	1	2	2	3
11	4C	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2
12	4C	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1
13	4C	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	1	3	2	2	2
15	4C	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	0	0	3	2
16	4C	3	3	3	1	3	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	3	1
17	4C	3	3	3	2	3		3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3
18	4C	3	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	0	1	1	3	1
19	4C	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	1	1	2	2	3	1
20	4C	2	2	3	1	3	3	2	3	3	0	1	1	2	1
21	4C	3	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	1	1	2	3	3
24	4C	3	2	2	0	3	3	3	3	2	0	0	1	2	1
25	4C	3	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

		QUESTION NUMBER														
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	11	12	13	14	15	
RAW	S/A	102	51	68	15	108	64	89	110	72	13	34	24	89	63	
	A	40	90	69	34	33	76	49	27	42	36	51	71	50	53	
	D	0	1	3	80	1	1	2	2	24	63	44	38	3	20	
	S/D	0	0	0	12	0	0	1	3	4	29	13	6	0	6	
	TOT	142	142	140	141	142	141	141	142	142	141	142	139	142	142	
PERCENTAGE	S/A	72	36	49	11	76	45	63	77	51	9.2	24	17	63	44	
	A	28	63	49	24	23	54	35	19	30	26	36	51	35	37	
	D	0	0.7	2.1	57	0.7	0.7	1.4	1.4	17	45	31	27	2.1	14	
	S/D	0	0	0	8.5	0	0	0.7	2.1	2.8	21	9.2	4.3	0	4.2	
	TOT	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	

PROGRAMME LEVEL FULL DATA SET

3 = STRONGLY AGREE, 2 = AGREE, 1 = DISAGREE, 0 = STRONGLY DISAGREE

C.G.: CLASS GROUP

Blank spaces indicate no response from the participant

NO.	C.G.	QUESTION NUMBER				
		37	38	39	40	41
1	2A	1	2	2	2	0
2	2A	0	2	2	2	0
3	2A	0	2	2	2	0
4	2A	0	3	3	2	0
7	2A	0	3	1	2	0
9	2A	1	3	3	3	0
10	2A	1	2	3	3	0
11	2A	1	3	1	3	0
12	2A	1	2	2	2	1
13	2A	1	2	1	2	1
15	2A	0	2	3	3	1
16	2A	3	2	3	3	1
21	2A	1	3	3	3	1
1	2B	1	2	2	3	1
4	2B	0	3	3	3	0
5	2B	0	2	3	3	0
6	2B	1	3	3	3	0
8	2B	0	3	3	2	0
9	2B	0	3	3	3	0
2	2C	0	2	3	3	0
4	2C	0	2	3	3	0
5	2C	1	2	3	3	0
6	2C	1	2	2	3	0
7	2C	0	2	3	2	0
8	2C	0	3	3	3	0
11	2C	1	2	3	3	0
12	2C	0	2	2	3	0
1	2D	1		3	3	0
2	2D	0	3	3	3	0
3	2D	1	1	2	3	2
4	2D	1	2	2	2	1
6	2D	0		4	4	0
8	2D	1	2	2	2	1
10	2D	1	2	2	2	1
11	2D	1	2	3	2	1
12	2D	2	2	2	3	0
13	2D	0	3	3	0	2

16	2D	0	3	3	3	0
17	2D	1	3	3	3	0
18	2D	0	2	3	3	0
19	2D	0	3	3	3	0
20	2D	1	1	2	3	0
21	2D	1	2	2	2	1
1	3A	1	3	3	3	0
2	3A	1	2	3	2	1
4	3A	1	2	2	3	1
5	3A	1	3	3	3	1
6	3A	1	2	3	3	0
7	3A	1	2	2	3	0
8	3A	0	3	3	3	0
9	3A	2	2	2	2	1
12	3A	0	2	0	3	0
13	3A	0	3	3	3	0
15	3A	1	2	2	3	1
16	3A	0	3	3	3	0
17	3A	1	2	2	2	1
18	3A	1	2	2	2	0
19	3A	1	3	2	2	0
20	3A	3	3	3	3	0
2	3B	3	1	3	3	3
3	3B	1	3	3	3	1
5	3B	1	2	2	3	1
7	3B	1	2	2	2	1
10	3B	2	1	2	3	1
11	3B	0	2	3	3	0
12	3B	0		2	3	0
13	3B	1	2	2	3	1
14	3B	1	2	1	2	1
15	3B	0	0	3	3	2
18	3B	0	2	3	3	0
1	3C	0	3	3	3	0
5	3C	0	2	3	3	0
6	3C	1	2	2	3	0
7	3C	0	3	0	3	0
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11	3C	0	2	3	3	0
12	3C	0	2	3	3	0
13	3C	1	3	3	3	1
14	3C	1	2	3	3	0
15	3C	1	3	3	3	0
18	3C	1	2	1	3	1

1	4A	2	2	2	3	1
2	4A	2	1	2	2	2
3	4A	2	2	2	2	1
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8	4A	1	3	3	3	1
9	4A	1	2	2	2	1
11	4A	1	2	3	2	1
12	4A	1	2	1	2	1
13	4A	2	2	2	2	1
14	4A	2	3	3	3	1
15	4A	2	3	3	3	1
16	4A	1	2	2	2	1
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19	4A	2	2	2	2	1
20	4A	1	3	3	3	1
21	4A	1	2	2	2	1
1	4B	1	2	3	2	0
3	4B	0	3	3	3	0
4	4B	1	2	0	2	0
6	4B	1	2	2	1	1
8	4B	0	3	3	3	0
9	4B	1	3	3	3	0
10	4B	0	2	2	3	1
11	4B	2	2	2	2	2
12	4B	1	3	3	3	0
14	4B	1	3	3	3	1
15	4B	1	2	3	3	1
16	4B	1	2	2	2	1
18	4B	2	2	2	2	1
19	4B	0	3	3	3	0
20	4B	0	3	3	3	0
21	4B	0	3	3	3	0
23	4B	1	2	2	3	0
25	4B	1	2	2	2	1
26	4B	1	3	0	3	0
27	4B	0	3	3	3	0
1	4C	0	2	2	3	0
2	4C	2	1	2	2	2
3	4C	0	3	2	3	0
4	4C	0	2	2	3	1
5	4C	0	3	3	3	0

6	4C	0	3	3	3	0
7	4C	1	2	2	2	0
8	4C	1	3	3	3	1
9	4C	1	2	2	2	1
10	4C	1	0	2	3	1
11	4C	1	2	2	2	1
12	4C	1	2	2	2	0
13	4C	1	2	2	2	0
15	4C	1	3	3	2	0
16	4C	1	2	2	2	1
17	4C	0	3	3	3	0
18	4C	1	2	3	2	1
19	4C	0	3	3	3	0
20	4C	0	2	2	3	0
21	4C	0	3	3	3	1
24	4C	1	3	3	3	0
25	4C	1	2	3	3	1

		QUESTION NUMBER				
		37	38	39	40	41
RAW	S/A	3	52	73	92	1
	A	14	78	56	47	7
	D	73	7	8	1	59
	S/D	52	2	4	1	75
	TOT	142	139	141	141	142
PERCENTAGE	S/A	2.1	37	52	65	0.7
	A	9.9	56	40	33	4.9
	D	51	5	5.7	0.7	42
	S/D	37	1.4	2.8	0.7	53
	TOT	100	100	100	100	100

CLASSROOM LEVEL FULL DATA SET

3 = STRONGLY AGREE, 2 = AGREE, 1 = DISAGREE, 0 = STRONGLY DISAGREE

C.G.: CLASS GROUP

Blank spaces indicate no response from the participant

No.	C.G.	QUESTION NUMBER																			
		42	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	
1	2A	2	3	1	1	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	
2	2A	3	3	2	0	3	3	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	
3	2A	3	3	0	0	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	0	0	3	2	1	0			
4	2A	2	2	0	0	2	3	3	3	3	2	1	0	0	3	2	3	3	2	3	
7	2A	3	3	1	0	2	3	3	3	3	2	1	0	3	3	3	2	0	2		
9	2A	2	3	1	0	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	0	0	3	2	3	3	2	3	
10	2A	3	1	2	1	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	
11	2A	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	1	2	2	3	3	2	3	3		
12	2A	2	3	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	0	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	
13	2A	2	3	1	1	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	3	
15	2A	3	3	0	0	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	2	1	2	3	1	1	2	3	
16	2A	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	3	
21	2A	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	3	3	1	2	1	3	
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		QUESTION NUMBER																		
		42	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61
RAW	S/A	64	97	12	3	83	95	83	80	37	20	19	6	2	45	48	28	16	29	57
	A	70	39	36	8	53	38	44	56	81	63	47	15	24	85	67	63	70	56	67
	D	6	4	73	59	3	5	12	2	20	46	58	78	79	7	26	39	49	48	13
	S/D	2	1	21	71	3	4	3	3	4	13	18	42	34	4	1	12	7	6	2
	TOT	142	141	142	141	142	142	142	141	142	142	142	141	139	141	142	142	142	139	139
PERCENTAGE	S/A	45	69	8.5	2.1	58	67	58	57	26	14	13	4.3	1.4	32	34	20	11	21	41
	A	49	28	25	5.7	37	27	31	40	57	44	33	11	17	60	47	44	49	40	48
	D	4.2	2.8	51	42	2.1	3.5	8.5	1.4	14	32	41	55	57	5	18	27	35	35	9.4
	S/D	1.4	0.7	15	50	2.1	2.8	2.1	2.1	2.8	9.2	13	30	24	2.8	0.7	8.5	4.9	4.3	1.4
	TOT	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL FULL DATA SET

3 = STRONGLY AGREE, 2 = AGREE, 1 = DISAGREE, 0 = STRONGLY DISAGREE

C.G.: CLASS GROUP

Blank spaces indicate no response from the participant

No.	CG	QUESTION NUMBER																							
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		QUESTION NUMBER																					
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S/A		69	73	53	47	68	48	10 3	83	3	37	36	43	33	17	62	38	34	49	10 3	6	9	3
A		67	67	75	87	67	80	38	56	17	93	71	79	78	25	75	86	92	86	38	15	41	15
D		6	2	14	7	7	12	1	3	81	12	32	18	27	69	5	18	15	6	1	81	69	84
S/D		0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	41	0	3	1	4	31	0	0	0	0	0	40	21	39
TOT		142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	141	142	142	142	142	141	141	142	142	140	141
S/A		49	51	37	33	48	34	73	58	2.1	26	25	30	23	12	44	27	24	35	73	4.2	6.4	2.1
A		47	47	53	61	47	56	27	39	12	65	50	56	55	18	53	61	65	61	27	11	29	11
D		4.2	1.4	9.9	4.9	4.9	8.5	0.7	2.1	57	8.5	23	13	19	49	3.5	13	11	4.3	0.7	57	49	60
S/D		0	0	0	0.7	0	1.4	0	0	29	0	2.1	0.7	2.8	22	0	0	0	0	0	28	15	28
TOT		100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

FET - Further Education and Training
NQF – National Qualifications Framework
NC(V) – National Certificates (Vocational)
ESL – English Second Language
ELT – English Language Teaching
WTC – Willingness to Communicate
L2 – Second Language
SAQA – South African Qualifications Authority
NATED – National Technical Education
ICT – Information and Computer Technology
NIC – National Intermediate Certificate
NCS – National Certificate Senior
CEO – Chief Executive Officer
HOD – Head of Division
FAL – First Additional Language