# CHAPTER – ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 General Background

This study is about the ‘Role of Motivation in the English Language Proficiency’. It focuses on finding out the role of motivation in English language proficiency of bachelor first year students of faculty of education. So it reveals the correlation between motivation status and reading and writing proficiency of the students. This sort of study has not been conducted so far in the Nepalese context.

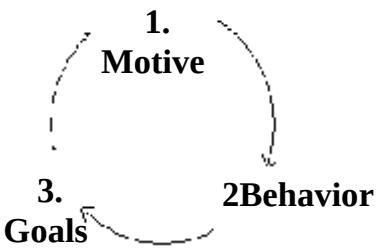
### 1.1.1 Motivation

The term motivation is said to have been derived from the Latin term "mover" which means "to move". Thus, etymologically motivation means to move someone to do something. It is thought to be responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activities and how hard they are doing to pursue it. It is some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do something in order to achieve something. Because of this activating and stimulating force of motivation, students learn language in an amazing way. It keeps on triggering the aura of self-confidence in learners. Morgan (1978) says "several hundred words in our vocabulary refer to motivation 'wants', 'striving', 'desire', 'need', 'motive', 'aspiration', 'drive', 'wish', 'aim', 'ambition', 'hunger', 'thirst', 'revenge', to name few" (p.196). Morgan (1978) further says:

> Motivation is all inclusive term covering just about anything that psychologist wants to say about the subject. It has three distinct aspects: i) some motivating state that impels the person towards some goal,

ii) behavior displayed in striving for the goal and iii) achievement of the goal (p.196).

According to Morgan (1978) these three aspects normally occur in a cycle. The motivating state leads to behavior, and behavior leads to achieving the desired goals. The following diagram presented by Morgan (1978, p.197) makes it far clearer.




'Motive' is a Latin term meaning to move. Although motives are regarded as internal states that are something within the organism causing to strive towards goal, motives are often aroused by external stimuli. A painful shock for example, arouses a motive to get away from the shock.

Though learning all sorts of problems in the environment may come to be motivating, they arouse a motive to solve them. Thus, motives arise not only from within the person but also from stimuli in the environment. This is the first phase of motivational cycle. The second phase of motivational cycle is some kind of behavior evoked by the drive or need. This behavior called operant behavior (Skinner) is usually instrumental in arriving at the goal and thus satisfying the underlying motive. A thirsty person, for example, moves about looking for water. The third phase is said to be the achievement of goal.

However, simple and easy the word 'motivation' might appear; it is in fact very difficult to define. It seems to have been impossible for theorists to reach consensus on a single definition. According to the Webster's, "to motivate means to provide with a motive, a need or desire that causes a person to act" (as cited in Abisamra 2002). According to Gardner (1985, as cited in Abisamra

2002), motivation is concerned with the question, “Why does an organism behave as it does?” Motivation involves four aspects:

1. A goal
2. An effort
3. A desire to attain the goal
4. Favorable attitude toward the activity in question.

Motivation is also defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal-seeking acts (Ames and Ames, 1989, as cited in Abisamra 2002). It is important because it determines the extent of the learner’s active involvement and attitude toward learning. Motivation is a desire to achieve a goal, combined with the energy to work towards that goal. Many researchers consider motivation as one of the main elements that determines success in developing a second or foreign language; it determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning (Oxford and Shearin, 1994, as cited in Abisamra 2002). Sometimes a distinction is made between positive and negative motivation. Positive motivation is a response which includes enjoyment and optimism about the tasks that you are involved in. Negative motivation involves undertaking tasks for fear that there should be undesirable outcomes, e.g. failing a subject, if tasks are not completed. From the above mentioned definitions the chief components of motivation, as cited by Abisamra (ibid.), are given below:

**MOTIVATION**

| | |
|---|---|
| • Goal<br>• Effort<br>• Desire | • Energy<br>• Active involvement<br>• Persistence |

Morgan et al. (1993) define the term motivation as "the driving and pulling forces which result in persistent behavior directed toward particular goals” (p.269). According to them, theories of motivation include i) desire theories, ii)

incentive theories, iii) the opponent process theories, and iv) optimal-level theories. Desire theories say that behavior is pushed towards goal by internal states within the person or animal. Incentive theories stress the ability of goals to pull behavior towards them. The opponent process theory is a hedonistic theory, as such, it says that we are motivated to seek goals which give us good emotional feelings and avoid goals resulting in displeasure. Furthermore, this theory says that many emotional motivating states are followed by opposing, or opposite states. Likewise, optimal-level theories are hedonistic theories which say that behavior is directed towards seeking an optimal level of arousal or a balanced, homeostatic state in internal physiological process.

Most researchers and educators would agree that motivation "is very important, if not the most important factor in language learning"(Van Lier 1996, p.100, as cited in Abisamra 2002), without which even 'gifted' individuals cannot accomplish long-term goals, whatever the curricula and whoever the teacher. Thus, the concept of language learning motivation has become central to a number of theories of L2 acquisition (e.g. Clément 1980; Krashen 1981; Gardner 1985; Spolsky 1985, as cited in Abisamra 2002), and motivation has been widely accepted by teachers and researchers as one of the key factors influencing the rate and success of second/foreign language (L2) learning often compensating for deficiencies in language aptitude and learning (Tremblay and Gardner 1995, p.505, as cited in Abisamra 2002). It could be said that all other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent.

Heckhausen (cited in Tremblay and Gardner 1995, pp. 505-6) offers a broad definition of motivation:

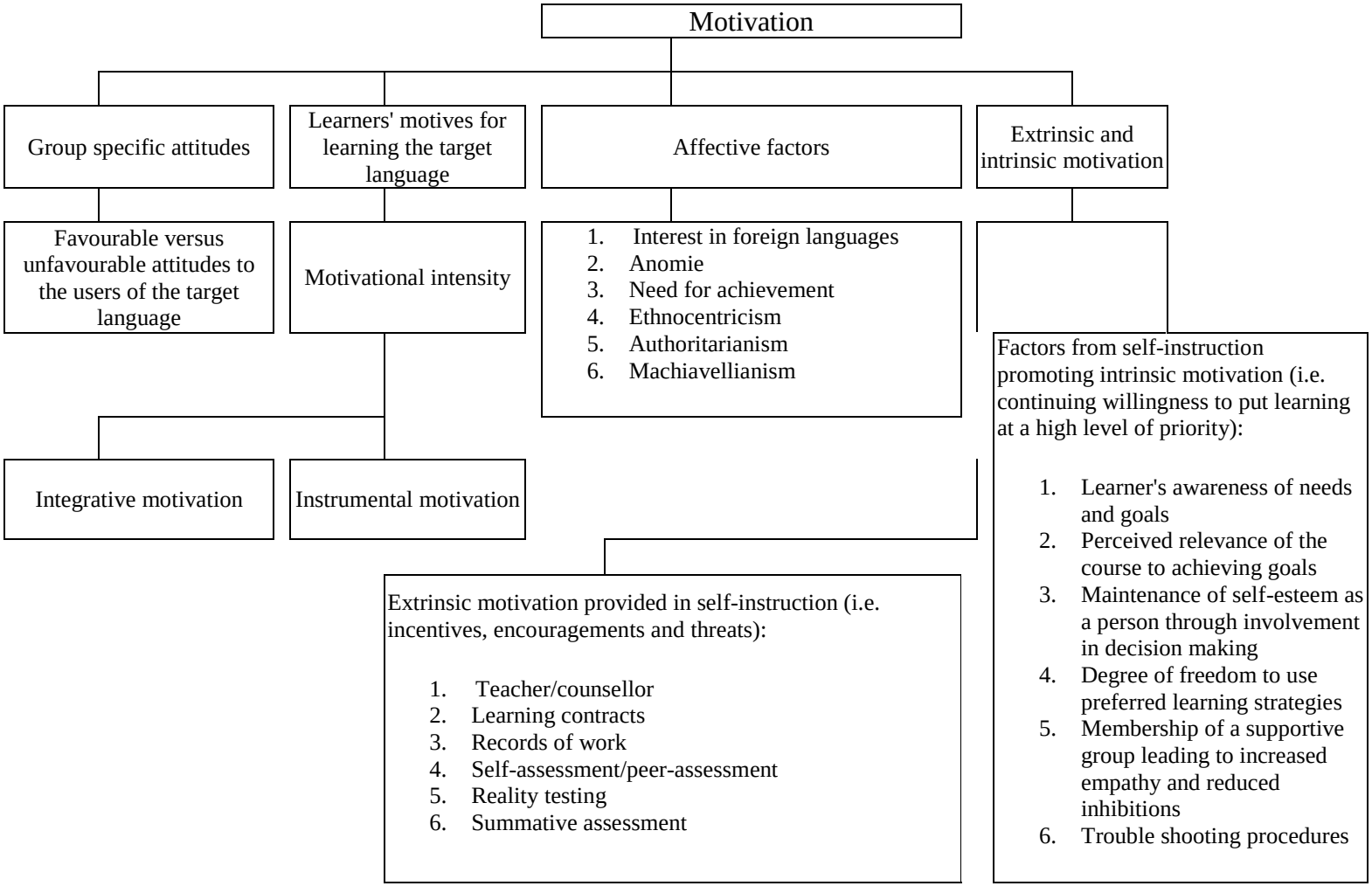
> The observed goal-directedness of the behaviour, the inception and completion of a coherent behavioural unit, its resumption after an interruption, the transition to a new behavioural sequence, the conflict

> between various goals and its resolution, all of these represent issues in motivation (Heckhausen 1991, p.9, as cited in Abisamra 2002).

Van Lier (1996, 100, as cited in Abisamra 2002), however, points out that the meaning of motivation depends on the perception of human nature that is used, in which context Deci and Ryan (1985, as cited in Abisamra) distinguish between mechanistic and organismic theories, the former seeing the human organism as passive (e.g. behaviourism), and the latter seeing it as active (being volitional and initiating behaviours). Recent educational theory has tended toward the second interpretation, with Gardner (1985,as cited in Abisamra 2002) defining motivation to learn an L2 as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (p.10). This definition includes i) effort expanded to achieve a goal; ii) a desire to learn the language; and iii) satisfaction with the task of learning the language.

Gardner and Smythe's (1975, as cited in Abisamra 2002) original model of motivation contains four main components (as figure shows below): i) group-specific attitudes; ii) learners' motives for learning the target language; iii) affective factors; and iv) extrinsic and instrinsic motivation. The various components of motivations are clearly presented in the following table:

**Table no. 1: Components of Motivation**



Similarly, Baron (2005) identifies four theories of motivation viz. i) drive theory, ii) arousal theory, iii) expectancy theory, and iv) goal, setting theory. Drive theory suggests that motivation is a process in which various biological need push (drive) as to actions designed to satisfy them. According to arousal theory, human beings seek an optimal level of arousal, not minimal levels of arousal. Expectancy theory suggests that people exert effort on task because they believe doing so will yield result they want to attain. And goal setting theory suggests that the act of goal setting will increase motivation and performance when the goals are specific and challenging yet attainable and individual that committed to them and receive feedback on their progress (pp.373-74). Johnson (1986, p.55) states that there are three theories of motivation and productivity that teacher motivation is based on:

1. Expectancy theory: It is probable for a person to struggle for work if there is an expected reward such a bonus of a promotion that is worth working.
2. Equity theory: Unfair treatment for their efforts and achievement makes individuals displeased.
3. Job enrichment theory: The more varied and challenging their work is the productive employees become.

To characterize a non-theoretical view of motivation, Skehan (1989) puts forward four hypotheses:

1. The Intrinsic Hypothesis: Motivation derives from an inherent interest in the learning tasks the learner is asked to perform.
2. The Resultative Hypothesis: Learners who do well will preserve and those who do not do well will be discouraged and try less hard.

3. The Internal Cause Hypothesis: The learner brings to the learning situation a certain quantity of motivation as given.

4. The Carrot and Stick Hypothesis: External influences and incentives will affect the strength of the learner's motivation (as cited in Ellis 1994, p. 509).

Ellis (ibid.) says that "these hypotheses have their correlates in the study of motivation in SLA research, but one of them (3) has received the lion's share of researchers' attention."

Motivation is keystone in learning. It is an internal process that activates, guides and maintains behavior. It influences the rate and success of second/foreign language acquisition. The students who are motivated work purposefully and energetically. Because of this, the rate and success of learning dramatically soars up.

It leads the learner toward a particular goal. Brown (1994) says "motivation is commonly thought of an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action."(p.152). He further states that in more technical terms, motivation refers to "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect" (p.152). Motivation, thus, stimulates the learners to attain a particular goal with meaningful practice.

Ausubel (1968) identified six needs undergirding the construct of motivation: i) the need for exploration for seeing "the other side of the mountain" for probing the unknown, ii) the need for manipulation for operating-to use Skinner's term-on the environment and causing change, iii) the need for activity for movement and exercise, both physical and mental, iv) the need for stimulation, the need to be stimulated by the environment, by other people or

ideas thoughts, and feelings, v) the need for knowledge, the need to process and internalize the results of exploration, manipulation, activity and stimulation, to resolve contradictions, to quest for solutions to problems and for self-consistent system of knowledge, vi) finally, the need for ego enhancement, for the self to be known and to be accepted and approved of by others (pp. 368-379, as cited in Brown 1994, pp. 152-153). The above statement claims that motivation contains needs that propel the learners to a certain activity which in turn results in the achievement of that need and exploration of knowledge.

The terms motivation and attitudes are always confusing in SLA. Many people argue that attitude determines the degree of motivation in the learners. To make the distinction clear Schumann (1978) lists 'attitude' as a social factor on a par with variables such as 'size of learning group' and alongside 'culture shock'. Gardner and Lambert (1972) define 'motivation' in terms of the L2 learner's overall goal or orientation, and 'attitude' as the persistence shown by the learner in striving for a goal. Gardner and Lambert (1979) suggest that attitudes are related to motivation by serving as supports of the learner's goal orientation (as cited in Brown 1994, p. 117)

Brown (1981) distinguishes 'motivation' and 'attitudes'. He identifies three types of motivation: i) global motivation, which consists of a general orientation to the goal of learning an L2, ii) situational motivation, which varies according to situation in which learning takes place (the motivation associated with classroom learning is distinct from the motivation involved in naturalistic learning), iii) task motivation, which is the motivation for performing particular learning tasks, he uses the term attitudes to refer to the set of beliefs that the learner holds toward members of the target L2 group (e.g. boring, honest or dishonest, etc.) and also toward his own culture. The distinction between them is still blurry because of the abstractness of the terms.

Brown (2001) defines the theories of motivation in terms of two opposing camps (theories of learning). These two camps are traditional view of motivation, i.e. behaviorist paradigm, and cognitive psychological view, i.e. mentalist paradigm. The traditional camp stresses the importance of rewards and reinforcement and cognitive psychological camp explains motivation through deeper, less observable phenomena (p. 73).

According to behaviorists, motivation refers to the anticipation of reinforcement. They do stress the role of rewards (and perhaps punishments) in motivating behavior which in turn serves to reinforce behavior, to cause it to persist. The reinforcement theory, propounded by the behaviorist psychologists like Skinner, Watson to name a few, is a very powerful concept for the classroom.

Cognitivists, however, naively dismiss the role of rewards and reinforcement and stress the role of drive theory, hierarchy of needs theory and self control theory. They contend that our innate predispositions compel us to execute action to attain the desired goal.

Green (1993, p.2) mentions that three levels of motivation are readily identifiable, and they are in constant parallel interaction. These levels are briefly mentioned below:

1) Holistic

Definition: the individual as organism seeking to realize its fullest potentialities: physical, mental, and spiritual.

Drive: egocentric

2) Cultural Linguistic

Definition: the individual as user of non-native languages in relation to others within and across cultures.

Drive: instrumental and integrative

3) Cognitive Linguistic

Definition: the individual in formal language learning situation

Drives: security and progress involvement in learning programme
cognitive engagement.
incentive to sustain impetus
perception of language unity.

The first level is said to be the holistic student approach which helps the teachers to perceive the students as "becoming whole" and constantly striving individuals for achieving needs ranging from the purely physiological to the highly creative, from survival to self-actualization as stipulated by Maslow (1954).

The second is the cultural linguistic dimension. At the level of the individual within and across cultures, the motivation to learn a foreign or second language has tended to be stated in dichotomous, either or terms, that is, a learner is driven by either instrumental or integrative motivation (Gardner 1968 and 1979). The locus of my study is this level of motivation. Instrumental motivation is engendered and sustained by extrinsic forces such as getting job, promotion, enhancement, or passing examination, which the integrative type is generated intrinsically by positive perception of the target language culture and its people. Gardner (1968 and 1979) himself has stated on equivocally that integrative motivation provides the strongest, deepest, and most lasting drive to

learn the target language. The most important feature to note about learners motivated by instrumental ends is that they may take dangerously short-term view of learning resulting in fossilization of key aspects of the target language system and their communicative use.

The final level is cognitive-academic dimension. Here the term cognitive academic refers to the level of the individual in formal learning situations. This is naturally the level at which teachers are most directly concerned with questions of student motivation. Cognitive engagement in the learning process must be seen inextricably linked to motivation. Ausubel (1968) expressed this concisely: "The most appropriate way of arousing motivation to learn is to focus on the cognitive rather than the motivational aspects of learning and to rely on the motivation that is developed from successful educational achievement to energize further learning" ( as cited in Green 1975,p.58).

Gardner (1975, p.58) has summarized most of the components of motivational characteristics with reference to French or a second language, its categories are not restricted to a particular language, they apply generally to learners of a second language in a school setting. Gardner (ibid. as cited in Stern 1983, p.383) distinguishes four main categories:

i. group specific attitudes

ii. course related characteristics

iii. motivational indices

iv. generalized attitudes

The first component deals with attitudes toward the community and people who speak the target language. The second component comprises attitudes toward the learning situation itself. How the individual feels about learning this

language in particular course and from a particular teacher and how he interprets his parents' feeling about learning the language. It also deals with the assessment of classroom atmosphere. The third category refers to the learner's motives for learning language, the goals pursued by the learner, and the intensity of effort put into language learning. Instrumental and integrative motives are crucial here. The fourth component is generalized attitudes, which includes a general interest in foreign languages and certain personality characteristics: ethnocentrism, authoritarianism, anomie, Machiavellianism, and need for achievement.

To sum up, motivation can be characterized by needs or expectations, behavior, goals, and some forms of feedback. Oxford and Shearin (1994, as cited in Abisamra 2002) analyzed a total L2 motivation theories or models, including those from socio-psychology, cognitive development and socio-cultural psychology, and identified six factors that impact motivation in language learning:

i. Attitudes (i.e. sentiments toward the learning community and the target language.)

ii. Beliefs about self (i.e. expectancies about one's attitude to succeed self- efficiency and anxiety.)

iii. Goals (i.e. perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reasons for learning.)

iv. Involvement (i.e. extent to which the learner actively and consciously participates in the language learning process.)

v. Environmental support (i.e. extent of teachers and peer support, and integration of cultural and outside-of-class support into learning experience.)

vi. Personal attributes (i.e. aptitude, age, sex, and previous learning experience.)

### 1.1.2 Models and Theories of Motivation

There are various models and theories of motivation produced by many linguists, psychologists and educationalists, and some of them are mentioned above to some extent. Most of them have taken the models and theories as the same but I find models have more socio-educational orientation and theories have more psychological orientation. The all models and theories that have come into being so far are tabulated by Abisamra 2002 http://abisamrao3.tripod.com/motivation) are diagrammatically summarized below:

**Table no. 2: Models of Motivation**

| The Theorist/Year | Name of the Models | Components |
|---|---|---|
| A- Gardner/Lambert (1959/1972) | Socio-Educational Model | Integrative and Instrumental motivation +Assimilative and Affilitative |
| B- Schumann (1978/1986) | Acculturation Model (for adults) | Assimilation: total adaptation<br>Rejection of target culture<br>Acculturation: learning to function in the new culture while maintaining one's own identity. |
| C- Vroom(1986) | Expectancy Value Theories | Effort<br>Valence<br>Expectancy<br>Ability<br>Instrumentality |
| D-Gardner(1985) | Four motivational orientations | a) reason for learning<br>b) desire to attain the learning |

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| | | goal,<br>c) positive attitude toward the learning situations, and<br>d) effortful behavior. |
| E-Deci and Ryan (1985) | Self-Determination (autonomy) Theory | Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation |
| F-Dornyei (1990) | Motivational construct | Instrumental Motivational<br>Integrative Motivational<br>Need for Achievement<br>Attribution about past failures |
| G-Crookes and Schmidt(1991) | 1-Four areas of SL motivation<br>2-Structure of motivation | 1- Micro level,<br>Classroom level,<br>Syllabus level, and<br>Outside the classroom level.<br>2-Internal factors ( interest, relevance, expectancy, outcomes) and External factors( decision, persistence, activity level) |
| H-Oxford and Shearin(1994) | Six factors that impact motivation in language learning | Attitudes<br>Beliefs about self<br>Goals<br>Involvement<br>Environmental support<br>Personal attributes |
| I- Dornyei(1994) | Taxonomy of motivation | Language Level,<br>Learner Level ,and |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | | Learning Situation Level |
| J- Wen (1997) | Incorporated expectancy-value theories | Motivation of instrumentality<br>Intrinsic motivation<br>Expected learning strategies and efforts<br>Passivity towards requirements. |
| K- Dornyei( 1998) | Seven main motivational dimensions | 1. affective / integrative<br>2. instrumental / pragmatic<br>3. macro-context-related<br>4. self-concept-related<br>5. goal-related<br>6. educational context-related<br>7. significant others- related |

**Table no. 3: Theories of Motivation**

| | **Theory Name** | **Theorist/Year** | **Components** |
|---|---|---|---|
| **A- Behavioral Theories => extrinsic motivation Behaviorists explain motivation in terms of external stimuli and reinforcement. The physical environment and** | **1- Classical conditioning<br>2- Operant conditioning<br>3- Observational/social learning** | **1- Pavlov<br>2- Skinner<br>3- Bandura** | **1- Stimulus, response, association (involuntary)<br>2- Stimulus, response, reward = reinforcement<br>3- Modeling (imitation) + Vicarious learning** |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **actions of the teacher are of prime importance.** | | | |
| **B- Cognitive Theories => intrinsic motivation**<br>**Cognitivists explain motivation in terms of person's active search for meaning and satisfaction in life. Thus motivation is internal.** | **1- Expectancy-value**<br>**2- Attribution theory**<br>**3- Cognitive dissonance** | **1- Festinger / 1957**<br>**2- Heider, 1958**<br>**3- Vroom / 1964/ Weiner, 1974** | **1- Expectancy of success + Instrumentality (see the connection between activity and reward) + Value the results.**<br>**2- Attribute success/failure to factors that are: internal/external/under control/out of control**<br>**3- Act to resolve conflict or discrepancies.** |
| **C- Cognitive Developmental Theories** | **1- Stages of cognitive development.**<br>**2- Zone of proximal development** | **1- Piaget / 1972, 1990**<br>**2- Vygotsky / 1978** | |
| **D- Achievement Motivation Theories** | **1- Need for achievement**<br>**2- Fear of failure**<br>**3- Fear of success**<br>**4- Goal theory:** | **1- 2- 3- Atkinson and Raynor / 1974**<br>**4- Locke and Latham /** | |

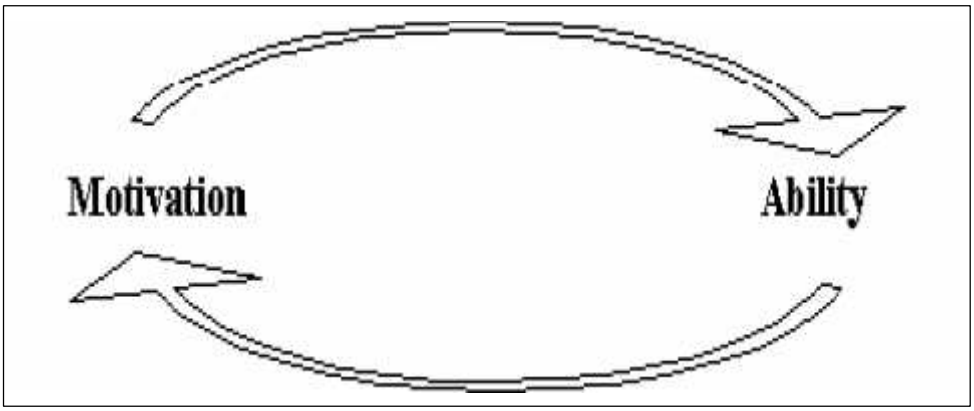
| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | • **Mastery goals**<br>• **Performance goals**<br>• **Social goals** | **1994** | |
| **E- Psychoanalytic** | **1- Life and Death**<br>**2- Social/interpersonal relationships**<br>**3- Power**<br>**4- Search for soul** | **1. Adler /1989**<br>**2. Freud / 1990**<br>**3.Erikson,1993 / Sullivan, 1968**<br>**4- Jung / 1953, 1997** | |
| **F- Humanistic Theories**<br>**Humanists stress the need for personal growth. They place a great deal of emphasis on the total person, along with the related news of personal freedom, choice and self-determination.** | **1- Hierarchy of Needs**<br>**2- Hierarchy of Motivational Needs**<br>**3- Self-determination** | **1- Maslow / 1954**<br>**2- Alderfer, 1972**<br>**3- Deci and Ryan, 1985** | **1- Self-actualization, esteem, belongingness, safety, physiological. We are not motivated by any higher-level needs until our lower-level ones have been satisfied.**<br>**2- Growth, relatedness, existence needs. Alderfer showed how people regress if their higher order needs are not met.**<br>**3- Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic motivation- A person must be able to initiate and regulate, through personal** |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | **choice, the effort expended to complete a task in order for the task to be intrinsically rewarding.** |
| **G- Social Cognition** | **1- Self-efficacy**<br>**2- Self-regulation** | **1- 2- Bandura / 1986, 1997** | **1- Judging one's own ability**<br>**2- Establishing goals and developing a plan to attain those goals.** |

### 1.1. 3 Sources of Motivation

The sources of motivation are of prime importance in language teaching and learning. The importance of this is highlighted by this statement: "Without knowing where the roots of motivation lie, how can teachers water those roots?"(Oxford and Shearin, 1994, p.15, as cited in Abisamra 2002). Knowledge of motivation status of the students to the teacher is of vital importance to successful language teaching and learning. Educational psychologists point to three major sources of motivation in learning (Fisher, 1990, as cited in Abisamra 2002)):

1. The learner's natural interest: intrinsic satisfaction
2. The teacher/institution/employment: extrinsic reward
3. Success in the task: combining satisfaction and reward



Abisamra (2002) expresses his view about the sources of motivation in this way: While teachers and school systems have drawn on both of the first two sources of motivation, the third source is perhaps under-exploited in language teaching. This is the simple fact of success, and the effect that this has on our view of what we do. As human beings, we generally like what we do well, and are therefore more likely to do it again, and put in more effort in action.
In the classroom, this can mean that students who develop an image of themselves as 'no good at English' will simply avoid situations which tell them what they already know – that they aren't any good at English. Feelings of failure, particularly early on in a student's school career, can therefore lead to a downward spiral of a self- perception of low ability – low motivation – low effort–low achievement–low motivation–low achievement, and so on.

Thus, the teacher has the main responsibility to identify the sources of motivation and work on them to make the students effectively participate in fruitful language teaching and learning. The sources of motivation tabulated by Abisamra (2002 http://abisamrao3.tripod.com/motivation) are diagrammatically presented below.

**Table no. 4: The Sources of Motivation**

| Sources of Motivational Needs | |
|---|---|
| A-Behavioral/ external | ) elicited by stimulus associated/ connected to innately connected stimulus<br>) obtain desired, pleasant consequences (rewards) or escape/avoid undesired, unpleasant consequences<br>) imitate positive models |
| B-Biological | ) increase/decrease stimulation (arousal)<br>) activate senses (taste, touch, smell, etc.)<br>) decrease hunger, thirst, discomfort, etc. |

| | |
|---|---|
| | ) maintain homeostasis, balance |
| C-Affective | ) increase/decrease affective dissonance (inconsistency)<br>) increase feeling good<br>) decrease feeling bad<br>) increase security of or decrease threats to self-esteem<br>) maintain levels of optimism and enthusiasm |
| D-Cognitive | ) maintain attention to something interesting or threatening<br>) develop meaning or understanding<br>) increase/decrease cognitive disequilibrium; uncertainty<br>) solve a problem or make a decision<br>) figure something out<br>) eliminate threat or risk |
| E-Conative | ) meet individually developed/selected goal<br>) obtain personal dream<br>) take control of one's life<br>) eliminate threats to meeting goal, obtaining dream<br>) reduce others' control of one's life |
| F-Spiritual | ) understand purpose of one's life<br>) connect self to ultimate unknowns |

### 1.1.4 Classification of Motivation

Motivation in language learning plays a vital role. It is motivation that produces effective second language communicators by planting in them the seeds of self-confidence. It has a great intuitive appeal and makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn a language faster and to a greater

degree. Gardner and Lambert (1959) divided the motivation to learn a language into two types, viz. instrumental motivation and integrative motivation.

**i) Instrumental versus Integrative Motivation**

According to Gardner's socio-educational model, an integrative motivation involves an interest in learning an L2 because of a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group (Lambert 1974, p. 98). It contrasts with an instrumental motivation which concerns the practical value and advantages of learning a new language.

Similarly, Brown (1994) states that:

> Instrumental motivation refers to motivation to acquire a language as means for attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical materials, translation and so forth. An integrative motive is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group to identify themselves with and become a part of that society (p. 153).

Krashen (2000) defines instrumental motivation as:

> The desire to achieve proficiency in a language for utilitarian, or practical reasons. It may also relate to proficiency. Its presence will encourage performer to interact with L2 speakers in order to achieve certain ends. Integrative motivation, in contrast, is defined as the desire to be like valued member of the community that speaks the second language. It is predicted to relate to proficiency in terms of the two functions. The presence of integrative motivation should encourage the acquirer to interact with speakers of the second language out of sheer interest, and thereby obtain intake (p.22).

A low filter for integratively motivated acquirers is also predicted for similar reasons. To quote Stevic (1976), "the integratively motivated performer will not feel a threat from the other group and will, thus, be more prone to engage in receptive learning (acquisition) rather than defensive learning" (as cited in Krashan 2002, p. 22).

Krashan (ibid.) further says "while the presence of integrative motivation predicts a low affective filter, the presence of instrumental motivation predicts a stronger one" (p.22). With instrumental motivation, language acquisition may cease as soon as enough is acquired to get the job done. When the practical value of L2 proficiency is high and frequent use necessary, instrumental motivation may be a powerful predictor of second language acquisition.

Motivation largely determines the level of effort which learners expand at various stages in their L2 development, often a key to ultimate level of proficiency. Saville-Troike (2006) maintains that integrative motivation is based on interest in learning L2 because of a desire to learn about or associate with the people who use it (e.g. for romantic reason), or because of an intention to participate or integrate in the L2-using speech community; in any case, emotional or affective factors are dominant. Instrumental motivation involves perception of purely practical value in learning the L2, such as increasing occupational or business opportunities, enhancing prestige and power accessing scientific and technical information, or just passing a course in school or campus (p.86).

Stern (1983) mentions that Gardner originally thought that, with some exceptions, an integrative motivation was needed for successful language learning(pp.373-374). However, the empirical studies showed that in some setting successful learning was associated with the instrumental orientation.

Because of this apparent inconsistency Saville-Troike (2006) contends that "neither of these orientations has an inherent advantage over the other in terms of L2 achievement" (p.86). Stern (ibid.) further argues that the social status of the second language in relations, economic or political factors are likely to influence motivation to learn a second language. Thus, when the sociolinguistic status of a group is lower than that of the target language group instrumental motivation is likely to be strongly in evidence because acquisition of the target language is likely to be a prerequisite for economic advancement.

Integrative motivation is highly correlated with achievement, so of the two orientations (types of motivation), integrative motivation has usually been held as superior. Au (as cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991, p. 473) notes that the theories related to integrative motivation, most of which imply its five hypotheses:

i) The integrative motive hypothesis: an integrative motive will be positively associated with SL achievement.

ii) The cultural belief hypothesis: cultural belief influences the development of the integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related.

iii) The active learner hypothesis: integratively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners.

iv) The causality hypothesis: integrative motivation is a cause, SL achievement the effect.

v) The two process hypothesis: aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning.

Gardner (1979, as cited in Ellis 1985, p.117) linked an integrative motivation to “additive bilingualism". That is, learners with an integrative motivation are seen as likely to maintain their mother tongue when they learn an L2, the learners add an L2 to their repertoire of skills at no cost to the first language proficiency. On the other hand, instrumental motivation is linked to 'subtractive bilingualism' where minority language groups tend to replace the first language by a more prestigious second language. In subtractive bilingualism the learner lose their mother tongue or fail to develop ability to express certain kinds of functions in it. Fitzerald (1978, as cited in Ellis 1985 p. 118) says that “in Britain the motivational disposition of L2 learners among ethnic minorities is more likely to be instrumental." Gardner and Lambert (1979), however, point out that the integrative/instrumental distinction reflects a continuum, rather than alternatives.

Graham (1984, as cited in Brown 1994, p. 155) has broadly defined integrative motivation. He made a distinction between integrative and assimilative motivation. Integrative motivation is the desire on the part of language learners to learn the second language in order to communicate with, or to find out about members of the second language culture and does not necessarily imply direct contact with the second language group. In contrast, the assimilative motivation is the drive to become an indistinguishable member of a speech community and it usually requires prolonged contact with the second language culture. Assimilative motivation is characteristic of persons who perhaps at a very young age, learn a second language and second language culture to identify also exclusively with that second culture.

What we assume that the learners who have a positive view toward target language and its culture; that is who are integratively motivated, often

outperform in an L2 or foreign language acquisition. Nevertheless, Oller, Baca, and Vigil (as cited in Ellis 1994, p.511) report that Mexican women in California who rated Anglo people negatively were more successful in learning English than those who rated them positively. Oller and Perkins (1978) suggest that some learners may be motivated to excel because of negative attitudes towards the target language community. In this case negative feelings may tend to a desire to manipulate and overcome the people of target language. This phenomenon is referred to a Machiavellian motivation.

Likewise, the common assumption is that motivation is the cause of L2 achievement. However, it is also possible that motivation is the result of learning; that is, learners who experience success in learning may become more, or in some contexts less motivated to learn. This phenomenon is often referred to as resultative motivation. Gardner, Smythe, and Clement (1979) which suggest that "while greater motivation and attitudes lead to better learning, the converse is not true" (as cited in Ellis 1994, p. 515).

**ii) Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Motivation**

Brown (2002) contends that integrative and instrumental orientations are not to be confused with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They are separate concepts. One (integrative/instrumental orientation) is a true dichotomy and refers only to the context of learning. The other (intrinsic/extrinsic motivation) designates a continuum of possibilities of intensity of feeling or drive, ranging from deeply internal, self-generated rewards to strong, externally administered rewards from beyond oneself (p. 75).

In Ur's (1994) term:

> Global intrinsic motivation – the generalized desire to invest effort in the learning for its own sake – is largely rooted in the previous attitudes of

> the learners. Whether they see the learning as worthwhile, whether they like the language and its cultural, political and ethnic associations. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is that which derives from the influence of some kind of external incentive, as distinct from the wish to learn for its own sake or interest in tasks (pp.277-280).

Thus intrinsic motivation is very powerful and is likely to lead to deep learning because an intrinsically motivated learner will take every opportunity to satisfy the internal desires. The exclusively intrinsically motivated learner may not pay sufficient attention to the program or organizational requirements to pass necessary hurdles or to take full advantage of the resources of the teaching program. This contrasts with extrinsic motivation which represents the desire for some kind of external benefits, such as increased pay, job enhancement, getting along a foreign society, meeting organizational or academic requirements (tests).

If quick analysis is done, we can find intrinsic motivation similar to integrative motivation and extrinsic to instrumental. As to relationship between these, Brown (1994) mentions that:

> While many instances of intrinsic motivation may indeed turn out to be integrative, some may not. For example, one could, for highly developed intrinsic purpose, wish to learn a second language in order to advance in a career or to succeed in an academic program. Likewise, one could develop a positive affect toward the speakers of a second language for extrinsic reasons: parental reinforcement, teachers' encouragement, etc. (p. 157).

To quote Bailey (1986) "regardless of cultural beliefs and attitudes of learners and teachers, intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be quite easily identified much

more universally so than the integrative – instrumental continuum that relies exclusively on a social psychological approach." In light of these distinctions mentioned above, Crooker and Schmidt (1991, p.502) contend that by looking at motivation "in terms of choice, engagement, and persistence, as determined by interest, relevance, expectancy, and outcomes . . . the concept of motivation (will have) a more satisfactory connection to language – learning process and language pedagogy" (Brown 1994, p.157).

Regarding which form of motivation is more powerful Brown (2002) mentions that "a convincing stockpile research on motivation strongly favors intrinsic drives, especially for long retention" (p.76). Piaget (1972) and others pointed out that human beings universally view incongruity, uncertainty and "disequilibrium" as motivating. In other words we seek out a reasonable challenge. Then we initiate behaviors intended to conquer the challenging situation. Incongruity is not itself motivating, but optimal incongruity or what Krashen (1985) called “i + 1" – presents enough of a possibility of being resolved that we will go after that resolution.

Maslow (1970) claimed that intrinsic motivation is clearly superior to extrinsic. According to hierarchy of needs, we are ultimately motivated to achieve "self-actualization" once the basic needs and community needs are met. No matter what extrinsic rewards are present or absent, we will still strive for self-esteem and fulfillment.

Likewise, Bruner (1962), praising the "autonomy of self-reward" claimed that one of the most effective ways to help both children and adults to think and learn is to free them from the control of rewards and punishments. One of the principal weaknesses of extrinsically motivated behavior is its addictive nature. Once captivated, as it were, by the lure of an immediate prize or praise,

we become dependent on those tangible rewards, even to the point that their withdrawal can extinguish the desire to learn.

## 1.2 Review of Related Literature

This study seeks to understand the relationship between motivation status and its role in English language proficiency. This part of the study sets the stage for the study by reviewing broad area of literature on the role of instrumental and integrative motivation in English language proficiency. Much literature on the relationship between motivation status and language proficiency has shown that levels of proficiency in L2 learning are affected by motivation for language acquisition (Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Krashen 2002; Masgoret and Gardner 2003).

### 1.2.1 History of Research

Early positivist approaches to motivation in the first half of the 20$^{th}$ century were based on 'push-pull' theories (Kelly 1955), in which motivation is seen as an element essentially outside our control, and usually subject to basic biological needs drive reduction theories and Freud's concept of unconscious motivation. Atkinson's (1964) achievement motivation was also unconscious, being based on the fundamental principle of homeostasis. However, in 1950, Berlyne published results of studies that showed that monkeys (and rats) exhibited curiosity-related behaviours purely for the enjoyment of these behaviours themselves , and this finding led to work on constructs such as locus of control and causality orientations (important aspects in studies of intrinsic motivation). The Freudian concept of 'ego energy' and the influence of Montessori, Piaget, Maslow, and others who put motivation central in their pedagogical writings (e.g. Dewey 1938 ['growth motivation'], White 1959

['competence motivation'], Hunt 1971 ['intrinsic motivation']) also contributed to a renewal of interest in a more organismic account of motivation.

In the field of second language learning, Gardner and Lambert (1959) pioneered work on motivation, proposing an integrative-instrumental duality (Gardner et al. 1976), which became widely accepted and confirmed by a number of studies. Their ten-year-long research program in which they found that success in language attainment was dependent on the learner's affective reactions toward the target linguistic-cultural group (in addition to aptitude) gave validity to the study of motivation in SLA, though some investigations did not support the model, either by not producing a strong integrative factor, or by coming up with insignificant or contradictory results. Dörnyei (1990) also points out that Gardner and others worked in ESL situations and that in EFL "affective predispositions toward the target language community are unlikely to explain a great proportion of the variance in language attainment" (p.49, as cited in Abisamra 2002).

In the 1980s the learning situation itself received more attention (Gardner and Smythe 1980; Clément and Kruidenier 1985; Gardner 1985; Ely 1986a; 1986b; Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft and Evers 1987; Skehan 1989; Dörnyei 1990; Ramage 1990; Crookes et al. 1991; Julkunen 1991; Gardner and MacIntyre 1991; Brown 1994) and three sets of motivational components were identified (Dörnyei 1994,p.276): i) course-specific motivational components (syllabus, teaching materials, teaching method, learning task); ii) teacher-specific motivational components (teacher personality, teaching feedback, relationship with the students); and iii) group-specific motivational components (dynamics of the learning group, goal-oriented ness, norm and reward system, group cohesion, classroom goal structures). Some studies have attempted to extend Gardner's construct by adding new components, such as

intrinsic/extrinsic motivation (Brown 1994), intellectual curiosity (Laine 1981), attribution about past successes/failures (Skehan 1989; Dörnyei 1990), need for achievement (Dörnyei 1990), self-confidence (Clément 1980; Clément and Kruidenier 1985) and classroom goal structures (Julkunen 1991), and other situation-specific variables such as classroom events and tasks, classroom climate and group cohesion, course content and teaching materials, teacher feedback, and grades and rewards  have proposed that researchers consider non-L2 approaches to motivation (e.g. general, industrial, educational, cognitive developmental, and sociocultural psychology), but without empirical evidence that these are important components of L2 learning.

### 1.2.2 Language Learning Motivation and Proficiency

Motivation plays a crucial role in learning. In addition, it has a key role to L2 or foreign language learning. It has a great intuitive appeal to language learning. It is "some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something" (Harmer, 2001, p.51). Many researchers have found positive correlation between motivation and L2 achievement. To quote Gardner and Lambert (1959) "attitudes and motivation as one complex factors related to L2 achievement" (as cited in Van Els et al. 1984, p.115). According to their arguments, language proficiency is primarily driven by concern such as required job skills or integration to a community (Baker1992 and Gardner1985).

Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influences the rate and success of L2/foreign language learning. Moiinvaziri (2008) says that "the original impetus in second/foreign (L2) motivation research comes from the social psychology since learning the language of another community simply cannot be separated from the learner's

social disposition towards the speech community in question." Following Lambert (1963 a), he says that Lambert has proposed a "social psychological model" in which he has emphasized cognitive factors such as language aptitudes and intelligence as well as affective factors such as attitudes and motivation. In his model, he proposes that the extent to which an individual successfully acquires a second language will depend upon ethnocentric tendencies, attitudes toward the other community, orientation toward language learning motivation.

A key framework that has driven much of the research on L2 motivation is Gardner's (1985, 1988, and Gardner and Macintyre 1993) Socio-Educational Model of SLA, in which motivation is conceptualized as a complex variable, especially, "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (Gardner 1985, p.10). Motivation is hypothesized to have a direct effect on L2 achievement and is itself purportedly influenced by a number of other socio-psychological variables.

### 1.2.2. 1. Integrative Perspective

Gardner’s (1979) study classifies psychological foundation into “instrumental motivation” and “integrative motivation”. Instrumental motivation is roughly defined by a desire to obtain a reward by learning an L2 as a means (Hudson 2000, as cited in Han 2003).

According to Gardner's socio-educational model, an integrative orientation involves an interest in learning an L2 because of "a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group" (Lambert 1974, p.98., as cited in Ellis 1994, p. 509). It contrasts with an instrumental orientation, which concerns "the practical value and advantages of

learning a new language". Ellis (1994) distinguishes the terms 'orientation' and ‘motivation’ and says that "orientation refers to the underlying reasons for studying an L2, 'motivation’ refers to the directed effort individual learners make to learn the language". Ellis (ibid.) further clarifies that Gardner has become increasingly critical of research that focuses narrowly on the role of orientation in L2 learning, arguing that the effects of learners' orientations are mediated by their motivation that is, whereas orientation and L2 achievement are only indirectly related, motivation and achievement are directly related (p.509).

Krashan (2002) mentions that "first, integrative motivation has been found to relate to second language proficiency in situations where intake is available, in the Canadian Anglophone situation, and in the ESL situation in the United States" (p.26).

Krashan (2002) further says that:

> In the Canadian situation Gardner and Lambert (1959), using seventy-five eleventh-grade high school students in Montreal, found integrative motivation to be a stronger predictor of French achievement than instrumental motivation. Gardner (1960) expanded these results with eighty-five tenth grade students of French. Moreover, he concluded that the integrative motivation was especially important for the development of communicative skills (p.26).

In a similar setting, Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Gliksman (1976) confirmed the importance of integrative motivation in grades 7 to 11 French classes in Montreal. They found that the measures of integrative motivation tended to correlate more highly with their 'speech' measure than with grades.

Also integrative motivation was a better predictor of French proficiency than was instrumental motivation.

Likewise, Gardner et al. (1976) conducted a study on drop-outs and stay-ins of French (not a compulsory subject in the school they studied) and found that stay-ins showed more integrative motivation, as well as overall motivation to learn French. They concluded that those who dropped French were not simply the less able students but they did tend to get lower grades and show lower aptitude than the stay-ins. Gardner et al.(ibid.) suggest that integrative motivation "provides the students with the necessary motivation to persist in the second language acquisition studies" (as cited in Krashan 2002).

Gardner and Lambert (1972) carried out a research over a period of 12 years on to determine how attitudinal and motivational factors affect language learning success in Canada, United States, and the Philippines. They found that "integrative motivation may indeed be an important requirement for successful language learning" (as cited in Brown 1994, p.154).

As Van Els et al. (1984, p.118) mentioned, Gardner and Smythe (1975b), Gardner et al. (1976b), Clement et al. (1978), Gardner et al. (1979b) conducted researches on Anglophone Canadians studying French using a newly developed and validated attitude motivation indices (AMI), including measures of attitudes towards Francophone communities, the French teacher and the French course, and motivational indices, and they found the integratively motivated students not only to be better achievers than instrumentally motivated students, but also to have greater persistence in studying French and to engage more actively in French class activities.

Spolsky (1969, as cited in Van Els 1984), too, found a positive correlation between an integrative motivation and the English proficiency of foreign students at American Universities.

Strong (1984) studied Spanish American classroom and found that the students' intensity of integrative motivation increased relative to their English language proficiency. He further argues that motivation results from, rather than promotes, acquisition.

### 1.2.2. 2. Instrumental Perspective

Some studies, however, show instrumental motivation to be superior in such a situation where there is a special urgency about second language or foreign language acquisition and where there appears to be little desire to 'integrate.' Lukmani (1972, as cited in Van Els et al. 1984, p.119), showed that among Marathi speaking Indian – students learning English in India an instrumental motivation was positively correlated with English proficiency, suggesting that in a post-colonial society an instrumental motivation is more effective than an integrative one. Similarly, Cooper and Fishman (1997, p. 272, as cited in Van Els et al. ibid.) conducted a study among a group of predominantly Hebrew speaking Israeli high school students. In Israel English is required subject for all students from the fifth grade onwards. Knowledge of English is also indispensable for a university course or a prestigious occupation. In this learning context, a basically instrumental view of English proved to be correlated to English proficiency. The study by Gardner and Lambert (1972, as cited in Krashan 2003, p.28 and Han 2003, p.9) contends that instrumental motivation is better predictor of proficiency in English as a second language. They reached similar conclusions for English as a second language in the Philippines. In the Philippines English is the language of education and

business, but is rarely spoken in the home. Gardner and Lambert (ibid.) found that instrumental motivation was a better predictor of overall proficiency, but also found a clear relationship between the presence of integrative motivation and "aural-oral" skills.

Similarly, Kachru (1977, 1992, as cited in Brown 1994, p.154) has noted that Indian English is but one example of a variety of English, which especially in the Third world countries where English has become an international language, can be acquired very successfully for instrumental reasons alone.

Oller, Hudson, and Lin (1977, as cited in Krashan 2003, p.27-28) studied educated Chinese speaking ESL students and found instrumental reasons as primary for studying English.

The above studies clearly suggest that the two types of motivation, viz. integrative and instrumental are not necessarily mutually exclusive. In some contexts learners are integratively motivated and in some contexts they are instrumentally. This phenomenon is supported by the study conducted by Moiinroziri (2008) On "Iranian Undergraduate students". He selected 255 university students (both male and female) from three Iranian Universities to study their motivational orientation, and found the students both integratively and instrumentally motivated. Brown (1994) mentions that:

> Most situations involve a mixture of each type of motivation. For example, Chinese speakers learning English in the United States for academic purposes may be relatively balanced in their desire to learn English both for academic (instrumental) purposes and to understand and become somewhat integrated with the culture and people of the United States (p.154).

Likewise, Liu (2005) conducted a research on "Chinese students' motivation to learn English at the Tertiary level" and found the strongly instrumentally motivated students better than integratively motivated students in English as a foreign language.

To summarize, the prior studies along Gardner's argument find out while instrumental motivation has a greater effect on English as an L2 or foreign language, integrative motivation influences more on other second or foreign language acquisition. Nonetheless, much of the literature suggests that integrative motivation is more important in any circumstances, and more in the long term (Meynard and Rheault 1997, as cited in Han 2003)

In Department of English Education, there are a few studies conducted on motivational techniques of the teachers, but no study on role of motivation and language learning proficiency is carried out so far. Bashyal (2002) conducted a research on "the strategies prevalent in creating motivation in teaching higher secondary school in Palpa." Gyawali (2007) on "English teachers' motivational techniques" and Chand (2007) on "motivation towards learning English by the teenagers in Nepal." The two studies carried out by Bashyal (2002) and Gyawali (2007) focused on teachers' motivational techniques only. Chand's (2007) study seems a little related to mine, but he only studied the general motive for learning the English language, attitudes of the teenagers toward English and factors that affect the lack of motivation. Thus none of these studies touched on the role of motivation in English language proficiency. Hence, the present study was carried out.

## 1.3 Hypotheses of the Study

I had set the following hypotheses of this study:

i. The instrumentally motivated students do better than the integratively motivated students. It is the main hypothesis of the study.

ii. Motivation has a direct and positive role in learning the English language. It is the ancillary hypothesis.

## 1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were as follows:

i. to identify integratively and instrumentally motivated students,

ii. to explore their English language proficiency,

iii. to analyze the role of motivation in English language learning,

iv. to list some pedagogical implications.

## 1.5 Significance of the Study

All language teachers undeniably accept that motivation provides the main impetus to language learning and it makes learning go smoothly and successfully too. So the role of motivation is indisputable to successful second language learning. This study aims at revealing the proficiency of the learners basically triggered by integrative and instrumental motivation. It will, thus, be useful to language teachers to understand motivation status of the learners and plan their teaching accordingly. If students are motivated instrumentally to learn language, the teachers can focus on sharpening the academic achievement of the learners. Likewise, if they are motivated integratively the teachers may help the students get exposed to the culture, life styles, norms and values of the target language community. As to the significance of this study to the language teacher, I undoubtedly support Niederhauser (1997) who believes that:

> Helping students to connect language learning to their personal goals is a great way for teachers to begin addressing the motivation issue in their classroom. Similarly, creating activities that foster real communication also will enhance motivation. Teachers of college level classes, for instance, can help their students write articles for the campus columns in the English language daily or even correspond with students in other countries (pp.8-9).

Similarly, this study will help to design foreign language curricula by focusing on the short and long term goals of the students. These goals are accurately pinpointed by analyzing the motivation status of the students. I also do hope that the Nepalese teachers and other stakeholders of curriculum engineering will seriously take this study into consideration and design the English language curricula in micro-level with close liaison with the students.

# CHAPTER – TWO

# METHODOLOGY

I used the following study design:

## 2.1 Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary sources were used to gather information to meet the objective specified of this study.

### 2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

Bachelor first year students of faculty of education were the primary sources of data.

### 2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

Various books, especially Baron (2005), Brown (1994 & 2001), Ellis (1985, 1994, 1997), Krashan (2002), Morgan (1978), Morgan at el. (1993), Stern (1983), Ur (1996), Van ELS et al. (1984), Skehan (1989); journals: Teaching English Forum (1993, Vol.31 and 1997, Vol. 35), reports, articles, research studies, internet related to the topic were used as secondary sources of data.

## 2.2 Sampling Procedure

It is impossible to include all the population in the study because of time and expense constraints. Given this fact, I purposively selected Kathmandu valley as a research spot of study. Likewise, I purposively selected two T.U. constituent campuses and two private campuses through fishbowl draw, the two private campuses were Manamohan Memorial College, Shorhakhutte, Kathmandu and Rainbow International College, Dallu, Kathmandu. I selected one hundred students using random sampling procedure from four colleges of the valley. Twenty five students from each campus were selected through fishbowl draw.

## 2.3 Tools of Data Collection

Tools are the major weapons of research to go the depth of the research. They help us bring out the matter that seems rather unknown to people. I mainly used two tools in gathering required information, viz. motivation survey questionnaires and the test items.

To track down the instrumentally and integratively motivated students six – point Likert Scale of format of Gradner's Attitude / motivation Test Battery (GAMTB, Gradner 2004) were adopted to a 5 point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "Strong disagree" and ten questionnaire were set accordingly. AMTB is reported to have good reliability and validity (Gardner 1980, 1985, Gradner and Smythe 1981, as cited in Moiinvaziri 2008).

I conducted fifteen minutes test to see whether the students were integratively and instrumentally motivated and about an hour test to explore English Language proficiency of instrumentally and integratively motivated students. (See Appendices I, II & III)

## 2.4 Data Collection Process

I went through the following procedure to collect the primary data.

- First, I went to field and built rapport with concerned people.
- I explained to the respondents about the purpose and terms of the questionnaires and test items. Then I randomly selected 25 students from two T.U. constituent campuses because the number of students was larger but in two private campuses I did not do so because the number of students was as required; and I gave them motivation survey questionnaires first. It took about 15 minutes to the students to complete the questionnaires.

- After the students finished the questionnaires, I gave them test items to collect information about their reading and writing proficiency level. It took about fifty minutes to the students to the complete the tests.

## 2.5 Limitations of the Study

a) The study was limited to two T.U. constituent campuses and the same number of private campuses of Kathmandu valley.

b) The study was limited to B.Ed. first year students.

c) It was limited to AMTB motivation survey questionnaires only.

d) It was restricted to classroom situation only but not natural situation.

e) Test items were limited to PCL compulsory English syllabus.

f) The test items were limited to reading and writing skills only.

# CHAPTER – THREE

# ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

## 3.1 Motivation Status

I gave the respondents the motivation survey questionnaires and asked them to indicate on a five point scale how important each reason was for their learning English as a foreign language. The chief focus of the questionnaires was to find out motivational status; that is instrumental and integrative motivation following Gardener and Lambert's (1959) definition. I designed ten statements to find out dominant reasons for studying the English language among the bachelor first year students of education faculty in particular. In fact I used motivation survey questionnaires and test items to find out the information required.

To find out motivational status five options given to each statement were numbered as 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively and then mean score of each statement was calculated. To calculate the mean of all statements I grouped the scores of students in ascending order and the scores of students were marked by the constant *x*. The total full mark of both reading and writing tests was twenty. Then I recorded the frequency ( $f$ ) of the students who scored one out of twenty, two out of twenty and in the same way I recorded the frequency of all students who scored twenty out of twenty. After that the sum total frequency (the number of students) and $fx$ was calculated. Then the total sum of $fx$ was divided by the total number of students (see appendix vi). The main purpose of calculating mean score is to pinpoint the average motivational status and to find out which statement has the highest level of motivation and which one has the lowest. Similarly, to calculate the coefficient of correlation the scores of

reading test were referred to as X variable and the scores of writing tests as Y variable. Then the sum total of X variable and Y variable was calculated. Likewise, the scores of X variable and scores of Y variable were squared and the sum total of squared X variable and Y variable was calculated separately. Then the scores of X variable were multiplied by the scores of Y variable and their sum total was calculated separately. After doing this, I applied the formula of Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation (see appendix v). I have used all the possible descriptive statistics to make the study precise and scientific. The motivation status and mean score rating of each question are diagrammatically presented below;

**Table no. 5: Motivational Status of the Students.**

| **Motivational Status I have studied English** | **Options** | **R. C.** | **M.M.M** | **S.T.C.** | **M.R.C.** | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. To get a good job | Strongly Agree | 5 | 9 | 8 | 1 | 23 |
| | Agree | 14 | 14 | 12 | 13 | 53 |
| | Neutral | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 7 |
| | Disagree | 1 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 11 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 6 |
| 2. To participate in the activities of other cultural groups | Strongly Agree | 5 | 2 | 6 | 9 | 22 |
| | Agree | 10 | 1 | 9 | 12 | 32 |
| | Neutral | 2 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 9 |
| | Disagree | 1 | 12 | 4 | 3 | 20 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 6 | 6 | 4 | 0 | 16 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3. To improve social status | Strongly Agree | 5 | 2 | 8 | 3 | 18 |
| | Agree | 10 | 2 | 2 | 12 | 32 |
| | Neutral | 8 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 15 |
| | Disagree | 0 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 19 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 2 | 7 | 4 | 1 | 14 |
| 4. To stay with English speaking community | Strongly Agree | 2 | 9 | 7 | 4 | 22 |
| | Agree | 13 | 12 | 10 | 9 | 40 |
| | Neutral | 4 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 14 |
| | Disagree | 5 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 7 |
| 5. To further career | Strongly Agree | 10 | 15 | 17 | 9 | 51 |
| | Agree | 11 | 9 | 6 | 12 | 38 |
| | Neutral | 3 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 5 |
| | Disagree | 1 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 5 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 6. To get along with native speakers | Strongly Agree | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 9 |
| | Agree | 5 | 4 | 12 | 15 | 36 |
| | Neutral | 7 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 29 |
| | Disagree | 7 | 8 | 5 | 0 | 20 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| 7. To get respect in the society | Strongly Agree | 1 | 4 | 7 | 4 | 16 |
| | Agree | 12 | 3 | 6 | 9 | 30 |
| | Neutral | 7 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 14 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Disagree | 1 | 7 | 6 | 9 | 23 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 4 | 7 | 5 | 1 | 17 |
| 8. To understand and appreciate British art and literature | Strongly Agree | 10 | 9 | 9 | 4 | 32 |
| | Agree | 7 | 7 | 9 | 15 | 38 |
| | Neutral | 6 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 18 |
| | Disagree | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 6 | 1 | 3 | 11 |
| 9. To emulate native speakers | Strongly Agree | 1 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| | Agree | 3 | 8 | 7 | 10 | 28 |
| | Neutral | 12 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 27 |
| | Disagree | 4 | 10 | 9 | 4 | 27 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 4 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 11 |
| 10. To improve economic condition | Strongly Agree | 3 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 12 |
| | Agree | 11 | 4 | 7 | 11 | 33 |
| | Neutral | 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 15 |
| | Disagree | 5 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 23 |
| | Strongly Disagree | 4 | 7 | 5 | 1 | 17 |

| **Questions** | **mean (X)** |
|---|---|
| 1. To get a good job | 2.29 |
| 2. To participate in the activities of other cultural groups | 2. 75 |
| 3. To improve social status | 2.78 |
| 4. To stay with English speaking community | 2. 75 |
| 5. To further career | 1.67 |

| | |
|---|---|
| 6. To get along with native speakers | 2.78 |
| 7. To get respect in the society | 2.95 |
| 8. To understand and appreciate British art and literature | 2.21 |
| 9. To emulate native speakers | 3.09 |
| 10. To improve economic condition | 3.00 |

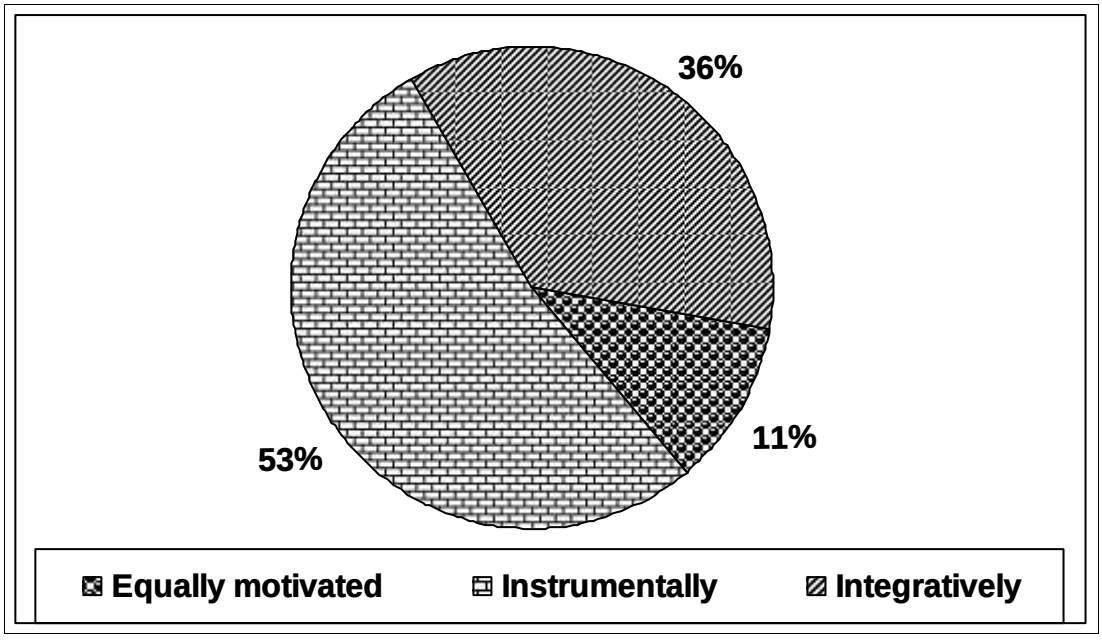
To show which statement has the highest level of motivation status and which one has the lowest level motivation status I have given the five options 'strongly agree,' 'agree,' 'neutral,' 'disagree,' and 'strongly disagree' the numerical values 1,2,3,4,and 5 respectively of ten motivational survey questionnaires. Then the statement which has one mean score rating (strongly agree) shows the highest level of motivation status and the one which has five (strongly disagree) shows the lowest level of motivation. Likewise, the statements which have the mean score ratings of between two and three have been taken as having the average motivation status. The mean scores of all statements in series show that the students are motivated to learn a foreign language, i.e. the English language. The number five statement shows the highest level of motivation status of the students. The students learn English basically for instrumental purpose, i.e. to further their career. It can be concluded that the English language seems inevitable in higher education. The chief medium of instruction is the English language and without the knowledge of this language progress in higher education seems too hard. Likewise, the number nine statement shows the lowest level of motivation status of the students. The students do not like to emulate the native speakers. It can be concluded that the students' language ego and cultural factors might have prevented them from showing a higher level of motivation. After the statement nine, the statement ten shows lower level of motivation status. It is because the students don't believe that knowing a foreign language does not necessarily

bring economic success in life. Thus, it refutes the often said statement that people learn the English language because it helps bring economic success easily in life. The rest of the statements show the average level of motivation. They revolve around the 'agree' option of the statements.

### 3.1.1 Instrumental Motivations and Integrative Motivation

There are altogether one hundred students, fifty three students (i.e. 53%) were found to have been instrumentally motivated, i.e. they desired to learn second language for pragmatic gains such as getting a better job, further a career etc. thirty six (i.e. 36%) students were integratively motivated, i.e. they desired to be the members of other language speaking community and become similar to them; and eleven students (11%)were equally motivated. Here I cannot exactly say that for what purpose the eleven students are learning the English language. They were perhaps learning English to grab both instrumental and integrative opportunities. It can be schematically presented below;

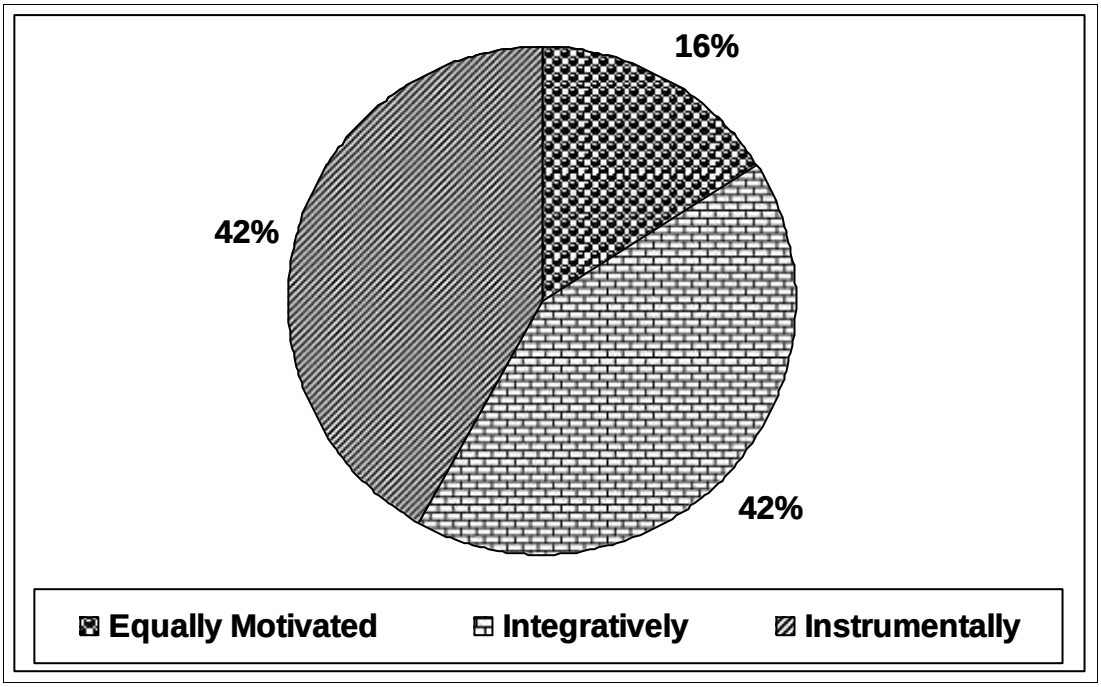
**Diagram no. 1: Instrumentally, Integratively and Equally motivated students**



### 3.1. 2 Motivation Status of the Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses and Private Campuses

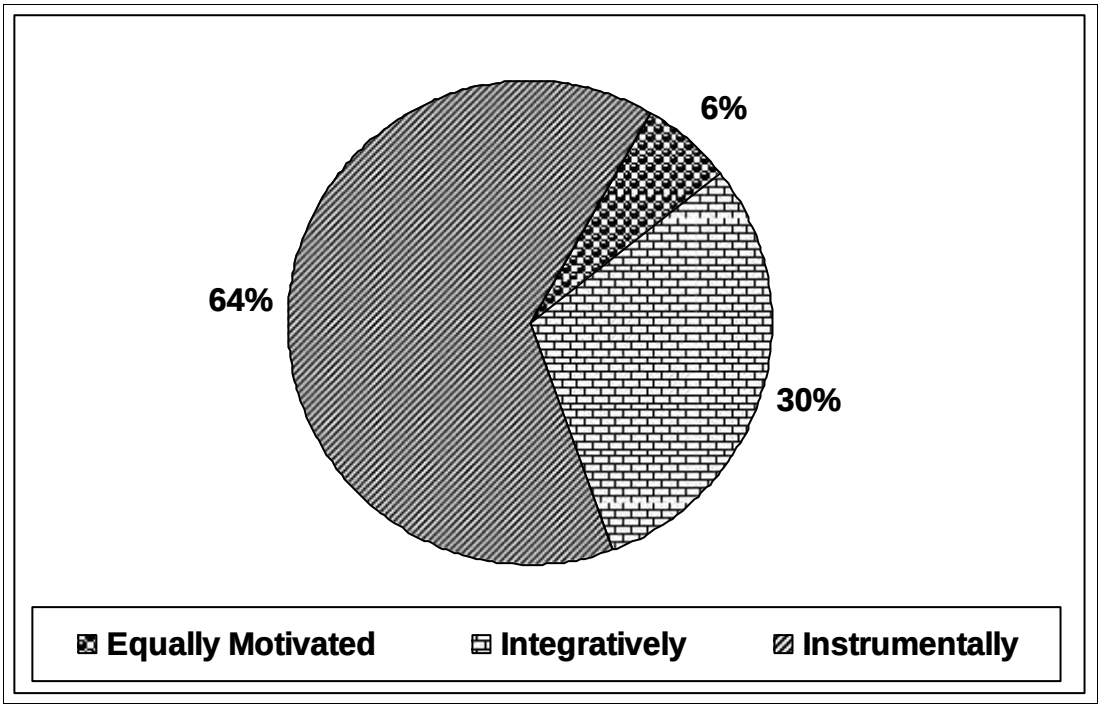
Out of fifty students of two T.U. constituent campuses, the number of instrumentally and integratively motivated students was the same 21(42%). But eight students (16%)were both equally motivated. I cannot say whether they were either instrumentally motivated or integratively motivated but what I can assert is that they were in a position to grab both instrumental and integrative opportunities. This fact shows the students of government campuses were using the two forms of motivation together to learn a foreign language. In this regard, Brown (2001, as cited in Norris–Holt 2001) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivations are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners may rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientations. He cites the example of international students residing in the United States learning English for academic purpose while at the same time wishing to become integrated with the people and culture of the country. Thus, the reason behind having the equal motivation status of the students of two T.U. constituent campuses may be as mentioned by Brown (ibid.). Furthermore, to go abroad and settle there has been a mass hysteria in our country. Most of the students desire to excel academically and go abroad too. The above fact may be the consequence of this phenomenon. Motivation status of two T.U. constituent campuses can be diagrammatically presented below.

**Diagram no. 2 Motivation Status of Students of the T.U. Constituent Campuses**




However, in the private campuses, out of fifty students thirty two (64%) were instrumentally motivated, fifteen (30%) were integratively motivated and three (6%) were equally motivated. The number of instrumentally motivated students was larger than the ones who were integratively motivated. This can be all due to the exam oriented teaching strategies of private campuses, though the fact is that our education system is downright exam centered. Moreover, the students of private campuses are said to be focusing on instrumental gains such gaining a better job or higher salary. High mark in documents results in getting a good job and higher salary. The motivation status of the students of private campuses is schematically presented below.

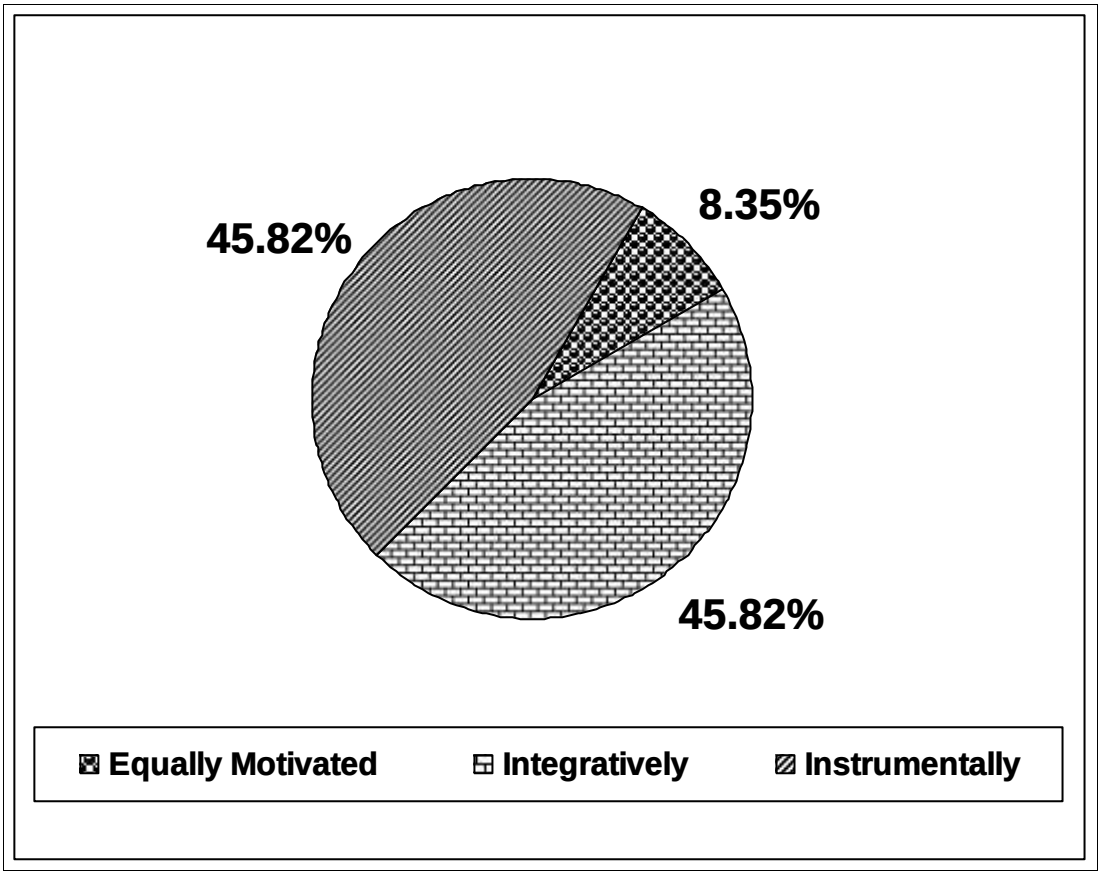
**Diagram no. 3: Motivation Status of the Students of Private Campuses**




### 3.1.3 Motivation Status of Male and Female Students

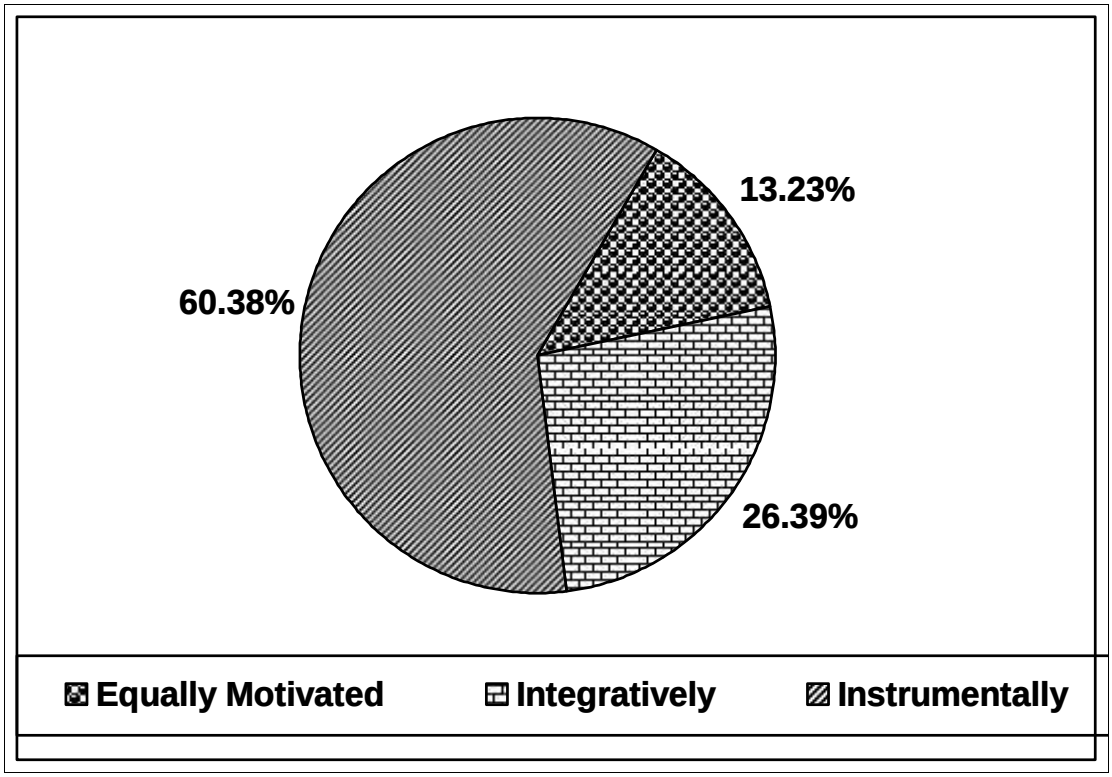
Among one hundred students, forty eight were male and fifty two were female. Out of forty eight male students, twenty two (45.82%) were instrumentally motivated and interestingly the same number (45.82%) was integratively motivated as well, and four students (8.36%) were equally motivated. So as to male students we are not in a position to say whether they were either instrumentally or integratively motivated. It is very difficult to claim that they were learning English for instrumental purpose or integrative purposes. It may be that they are in a position to grab both instrumental and integrative opportunities. The motivation status of male students can be schematically presented below.

**Diagram no. 4: Motivation Status of Male Students**




Out of fifty two female students, in contrast, thirty one (61.54%) were instrumentally motivated, fourteen (26.96)were integratively and seven (13.48%) were equally motivated. It is crystal clear that the majority of female students were studying English for instrumental purposes. The chief reason behind it may be that the female students seem to be motivated to get good mark and hold a handsome money making job. The motivation status of female students can be schematically present below.

**Diagram no. 5: Motivation Status of Female Students**




## 3.2 Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of the Students

To find reading and writing proficiency I conducted testing for an hour in the class. The average reading proficiency of all students was 9.70; the average writing proficiency being 11.13. The average writing proficiency of the students obviously seems higher than the average reading proficiency. So, it can be concluded that students have strong writing proficiency rather than reading proficiency.

**Table no. 6: Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Students**

| **Average proficiency** | **Mean score ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|
| Reading | 9.70 |
| Writing | 11.33 |

### 3.2.1 Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated and Integratively Motivated Students

Average reading proficiency of instrumentally motivated students was 9.32. The difference between average reading proficiency of all students and average reading proficiency of instrumentally motivated students was 0.38. So it is not significant, it is negligible. On the other hand, the average reading proficiency of integratively motivated students was 9.93. The difference between average reading proficiency of all students and average reading proficiency of integratively motivated students was 0.23. It is also not significant, it is negligible too. Thus, it can be concluded that the average reading proficiency of integratively motivated students is higher than that of the instrumentally motivated ones. This does not support my hypothesis "the instrumentally motivated students do better than the integratively motivated students." Similarly, all researches geared up to finding out motivational status of students and their proficiency in the past show that the integratively motivated students outperform the instrumentally motivated students. With regard to this, Gardner and Lambert (1972), Falk (1978), Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Clement, Smythe and Gardner (1978) claim that the integratively motivated students excel the instrumentally motivated students since affecting factors play the dominant role on acquisition of language. The following table makes it clear.

**Table no. 7: Average Reading Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated and Integratively Motivated Students.**

| **Students** | **Average proficiency** | **Mean score( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|
| Instrumentally motivated | Reading | 9.32 |
| Integratively motivated | Reading | 9.93 |

Likewise, the average writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students was11.28; and average writing proficiency of integratively students was 11.61. The difference between average writing proficiency of all students and average writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students was 0.5. The difference is significant. Likewise, the difference between average writing proficiency of all students and average writing proficiency of integratively motivated students was 0.28. It is not significant, it is also negligible. Here too, again the first hypothesis gets refuted. The integratively motivated students have achieved higher writing proficiency than the instrumentally motivated students. This can be presented in the following table.

**Table no. 8: Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated and Integratively Motivated Students.**

| | **Student** | **Mean score( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|
| Average writing proficiency | Instrumentally motivated | 11.28 |
| | Integratively motivated | 11.61 |

### 3.2.2 Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of the Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses

The average reading proficiency of the students of T.U. constituent campuses was 9.72, and their average writing proficiency was 11.74. Both reading and writing proficiency of the students of T.U. constituent campuses is higher than those of the average reading and writing proficiency of all students as a whole. The difference between the average reading proficiency of all students as a whole and the difference between the average reading proficiency of all students of T.U. constituent campuses is just 0.2. It is the significant difference. Likewise, the difference between the average writing proficiency of all students as a whole and the average writing proficiency of all students of T.U. constituent campuses is 0.41. It is also not significant. Similarly, the average reading proficiency of integratively motivated students of T.U. constituent campuses was 8.66. The difference between the average reading proficiency of all students of T.U. constituent campuses and the average reading proficiency of integratively motivated students of the same campuses is. 05. The difference is the most significant. The average reading proficiency of instrumentally motivated students of T.U. constituent campuses was 10.66. This is higher than the average reading proficiency of the students. Here the first hypothesis gets strongly proved.

**Table no. 9: Average Reading Proficiency of I instrumentally and Integratively Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| | **Mean( $\overline{X}$ )** | **Students** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Average reading proficiency | 9.72 | Instrumentally motivated | 10.66 |
| | | Integratively motivated | 8.66 |

Average writing proficiency of the students of T.U. constituent campuses was 11.74. This is higher than the average writing proficiency of all students as a whole. The writing proficiency of integratively motivated students was 12.00 and the writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students was 11.09. Here the writing proficiency of integratively motivated students is higher than the average writing proficiency but it is lower than the average in case of instrumentally motivated students. Here too the chief hypothesis gets refuted.

**Table no. 10: Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally and Integratively Motivated the Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| | **Mean( $\overline{X}$ )** | **Students** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Average writing proficiency | 11.74 | Instrumentally motivated | 11.09 |
| | | Integratively motivated | 12.00 |

### 2.2.3 Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of the Students of Private Campuses

The average reading proficiency of the students of private campuses was 9.48 and the average writing proficiency was 11.16. Compared with the

average reading and writing proficiency of all the students as a whole, it becomes lower. Thus, we can conclude that the reading and writing proficiency of the students of private campuses is weaker than those of T.U. campuses campuses. The following table makes it more explicit.

**Table no. 11: Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of the Students of Private Campuses**

| **Colleges** | **Reading Proficiency** | **Writing Proficiency** |
|---|---|---|
| Government | 9.72 | 11.74 |
| Private | 9.48 | 11.16 |

Similarly, the reading proficiency of instrumentally motivated students of private campuses was 8.59 and of integratively motivated students was 10.64. It is clear that the reading proficiency of integratively motivated students remains higher than the instrumentally motivated ones. In this case the chief hypothesis was not supported.

**Table no. 12: Average Reading Proficiency of Instrumentally and Integratively Motivated Students of Private Campuses**

| | **Mean( $\overline{X}$ )** | **Student** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Average reading proficiency | 9.48 | Instrumentally motivated | 8.59 |
| | | Integratively motivated | 10.64 |

Likewise, the average writing proficiency of integratively motivated students was 11.06. This is lower than the average mean score of all students of private campuses. In contrast, the mean score of writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students was 10.87. This also became lower than the average writing

proficiency of all students of private campuses. However, the writing proficiency of integratively motivated students remains higher than instrumentally motivated students. In this case the chief hypothesis was not supported.

**Table no. 13: Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally and Integratively Motivated Students of Private Campuses**

| | **Mean( $\overline{X}$ )** | **Student** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Average writing proficiency | 11.16 | Integratively motivated | 11.06 |
| | | Instrumentally motivated | 10.87 |

### 2.2.4 Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of Male and Female Students.

There are altogether 48 male students. Their average mean score rating of reading proficiency was 9.59. It is lower than the average mean score rating of all students as a whole. Similarly, the average mean score rating of writing proficiency was 11.72. Compared with the average mean score rating of writing proficiency of all students, it is becomes quite higher.

Similarly, there are altogether 52 female students. Their average mean score rating of reading proficiency was 9.42 and their average mean score rating of writing proficiency was 11.34. Compared with the average mean score rating of all standers as a whole the average reading proficiency is lower and average writing proficiency becomes a bit higher.

**Table no. 14: Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of Male and Female Students**

| | **Mean score of male ( $\overline{X}$ )** | **Mean score of female ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|
| Reading proficiency | 9.59 | 9.42 |
| Writing proficiency | 11.72 | 11.34 |

Similarly, the average reading proficiency of integratively motivated male students amounted to 10.76 and average writing proficiency was 12.31. Both mean score rating of reading and writing proficiency of integratively motivated male students is quite higher than the average mean score rating of reading and writing proficiency of all male students. This can be clearly presented diagrammatically as below.

**Table no. 15: Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Male Students**

| | **Average proficiency** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|
| Integratively motivated male students | Reading | 10.76 |
| | Writing | 12.31 |

On the other hand, the average reading and writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated male students became 9.63 and 11.5 respectively. Both reading and writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students is quite lower than the average reading and writing proficiency of all male students. This is also lower than the reading and writing proficiency of integratively motivated male

students. Here too the chief hypothesis of the research was refuted. This can be clearly presented diagrammatically as below.

**Table no. 16: Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Male Students**

| | **Average proficiency** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|
| Instrumentally motivated male students | Reading | 9.63 |
| | Writing | 11.5 |

Similarly, the average reading proficiency of integratively motivated female students was 9.06, and the writing proficiency was 11.93. The mean score rating of reading and writing proficiency of integratively motivated female students is lower than the reading and writing proficiency of intregratively motivated male students. However, the mean score of reading proficiency is lower than the average reading proficiency of all female students and writing proficiency is quite higher. It can be shown diagrammatically as below.

**Table no. 17: Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Female Students**

| | **Average proficiency** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|
| Integratively motivated female students | Reading | 9.06 |
| | Writing | 11.93 |

On the other hand, the average mean score rating of reading and writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated female students was 9.19 and 11.06 respectively. Compared to the reading and writing

proficiency of integratively motivated female students, the reading proficiency of instrumentally motivated female students is a bit higher but the writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated female students is lower than the writing proficiency of integratively motivated female students. Thus, in case of reading proficiency of instrumentally motivated female students the chief hypothesis was proved, however in case of writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated female students the hypothesis was not supported.

**Table no. 18: Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Female Students**

| | **Average proficiency** | **Mean ( $\overline{X}$ )** |
|---|---|---|
| Instrumentally motivated female students | Reading | 9.19 |
| | Writing | 11.06 |

## 3.3 Correlation between Motivation Status and Language Proficiency

Motivation as a cause or effect of language proficiency still remains debatable and controversial. Resultive hypothesis formulated by Skehan (1989) mentions that motivation might be influenced by the success experienced by the learners. Those learners who do well experience reward and are encouraged to try harder, learners who are not well are discouraged by their lack of success, and as a result, lack persistence. Another hypothesis, on the other hand, the internal cause hypothesis stipulates that the learner brings to the learning situation a certain quantity of motivation which leads to perform well in language (p.49). Nonetheless, this study does not claim that the learners perform better because of motivation as a cause or an effect. It just shows correlation between motivation status and language proficiency. Here motivation status can have duel functions, either as a cause or an effect. Above all, I do place emphasis on

the degree of relationship between motivation status and language proficiency and its significance. For this, I have used here the Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation which is the most often used and the most precise means of statistical analysis and interpretation.

To interpret and evaluate the magnitude of a correlation I have adopted the following table produced by Best and Kahn (2005, p. 374).

**Table no. 19: Coefficient of Correlation**

| **Coefficient (r)** | **Relationship** |
|---|---|
| J .00 to .20 | Negligible |
| J .20 to .40 | Low |
| J .40 to .60 | Moderate |
| J .60 to .80 | Substantive |
| J .80 to 1.00 | High to very high |

### 3.3.1 Correlation between Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Students.

The coefficient of correlation between average reading and writing proficiency tests amounts to 0.43. To interpret and evaluate this correlation with the above criteria produced by Best and Kahn (2005) the relationship seems moderate. It means there is some sort of positive correlation between reading and writing scores which is moderate in dregee. To have perfect correlation, the coefficient must be +1. But here, we have only +0.43. This is the positive correlation, but not the perfect positive correlation. The high scores on the reading proficiency test may be associated with high scores on the writing proficiency test and vice versa, but only moderately.

### 3.3.2 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of the Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses

Compared to the correlation table 19 produced by Best and Kahn (2005), the co-efficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of the students of T.U. constituent campuses becomes low. It is only 0.27. There is weaker relationship between reading and writing proficiency tests of the students of two T.U. constituent campuses. Thus, what can be concluded that the high scores on reading proficiency test are associated with high scores on writing proficiency test and vice versa , but weakly not strongly.

### 3.3.3 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of the Students of Private Campuses

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of private campuses amounts to 0.56. Compared to the correlation table provided by Best and Kahn (2005), this degree of correlation becomes moderate too. Thus, what can be concluded that the high scores on reading proficiency test are associated with high scores on writing proficiency test and vice versa, but only moderately.

### 3.3.4 Correlation between Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of the Students of all Male Students

The coefficient of correlation between average reading and writing proficiency tests of the male students amounts to -0.21. This is the perfect negative correlation. It means the high scores on the reading proficiency test are not associated with high or low scores on the writing proficiency test and vice versa. The average mean score rating of reading proficiency of male students is 9.59 and writing proficiency is 11.72. Thus, it can be concluded that the higher scores on writing proficiency test are not associated with the scores on reading proficiency test and vice versa.

### 3.3.5 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Male Motivated Students

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated male students amounts to + almost 0.039. It means the relationship between reading and writing proficiency tests is nil. There is zero relationship between two variables, i.e. reading and writing proficiency tests. Here the chief hypothesis was refuted. Thus, it can be concluded that the higher scores on writing proficiency test are not associated with the higher scores on reading proficiency test and vice versa.

### 3.3.6 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Male Students

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of integratively motivated male students amounts to 0.38. Compared to the correlation table 19, the relationship is low. It means the relationship between reading and writing proficiency is positive. There is positive correlation between the two variables, i.e. reading and writing proficiency tests, but not the perfect positive correction.

On the other hand, what is interesting is that the coefficient of correlation between equally motivated male students counts much higher than both integratively and instrumentally motivated students. It is 0.69 which is substantially positive correlation. Thus, it can be concluded that the more equally the students were motivated to learn English the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests and vice versa.

### 3.3.7 Correlation between Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Female Students.

The average coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of female students amounts to 0.54. There is also moderate degree of relationship between two variables. It is positive correlation but not the perfect correlation. To be perfect it must be+1 but it is less than +1. Thus, there is association between reading and writing proficiency tests, but only moderately.

### 3.3.8 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Female Students

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated female students is 0.56. This is moderately positive correlation but not the perfect positive correlation since we need coefficient +1 to be the perfect correlation. Thus, it can be concluded that the more instrumentally motivated students were to learn English the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests.

### 3.3.9 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Female Students

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of integratively motivated female students amounts to 0.21. This is low positive relationship between two variables but not the perfect positive correlation. Compared to the instrumentally motivated female students this correlationship also became lower. Thus, it can be concluded that the coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of the instrumentally motivated female students is stronger than those of integretively motivated female students, and in this case the chief hypothesis of this research was proved.

But what is surprising is that there is a strong positive relationship between reading and writing proficiency tests of equally motivated female students. The coefficient of correlation between their reading and writing proficiency becomes 0.94. It is higher and stronger than the reading and writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students. Thus, in case of female students it can be concluded that the more equally motivated students were to learn English, the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests.

### 3.3.10 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses.

To compare the correlation table 19 produced by Best and Kahn (2005) the coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency of integratively motivated students of government campuses amounts to 0.89 which shows high relationship between reading and writing proficiency tests. This is the ever strongest degree of relationship between two variables. Thus, it can be concluded that the higher scores on reading proficiency test are associated with higher scores on writing proficiency test and vice versa. Similarly, compared to the coefficient of coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency of integratively motivated students of private campuses (0.55), it is also higher. Therefore, it can be said that there is the strongest degree of relationship between reading and writing proficiency tests of integratively motivated students of T.U. constituent campuses. Thus, it can be concluded that the more integratively motivated students were to learn English the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests. Here the first hypothesis of this study was refuted.

### 3.3.11 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses

The coefficient of correlation ship between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students of T.U. constituent campuses is 0.69. This relationship is substantial i.e. there is strong positive relationship between the two variables. However, this correlation is weaker than the reading and writing proficiency of integratively motivated students. Thus, the major hypothesis of this study "The instrumentally motivated students do better tan the integratively motivated student" is refuted. Hence, the more integratively motivated students were to learn English the higher scores they achieved in reading and writing proficiency tests.

On the other hand, the coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of equally motivated students amounts to 0.76, This is substantially positive correlation. This correlationship is quite higher than that of reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students. Thus, it can be concluded that the more equally motivated the students were to learn English the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests than the integratively motivated students.

### 3.3.12 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of Private Campuses

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of integratively motivated student of private campuses amounts to 0.55. This is the moderate positive relationship but not the perfect positive relationship. Compared to reading and writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students of private campuses, this correlation is stronger. Thus, what can be concluded that the more integratively motivated students were to learn English,

the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests. In this case too the major hypothesis is also refuted since the coefficient of instrumentally motivated students of private campuses is only o.37.

### 3.3.13 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of Private Campuses

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students of private campuses amounts to 0.37. This is the low positive correlation. Compared to reading and writing proficiency of instrumentally motivated students, it is still lower. Here the major hypothesis of this study is also refuted.

### 3.3.14 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Equally Motivated Students of Private Campuses

What is interesting is that the equally motivated students of private campuses have the perfect positive correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests. It amounts to 0.99. Thus, it is concluded that the more equally motivated the students were to learn English the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests.

### 3.3.15 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students amounts to 0.80. This is the high positive correlation, compared to the correlation table produced by Best and Kahn (2005). Similarly, in comparison with the reading and writing proficiency of integratively motivated students this is still stronger correlation. Thus, it can be concluded that the strongly instrumentally motivated the students were to learn

English, the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests. In this regard the major hypothesis is proved.

### 3.3.16 Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students

The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of integratively motivated students amounts to 0.51. This is a moderately positive correlation. Compared to the reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students, this is still weaker correlation. Thus, again the chief hypothesis is proved.

On the other hand, there is the perfect negative correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of equally motivated students. It amounts to -2.34. Thus, it can be concluded that the more equally motivated the students were to learn English, the higher scores they achieved one variable and the lower they achieved on another variable.

# CHAPTER – FOUR

# FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

## 4.1 Findings

After the rigorous analysis of the information obtained, I have drawn the following findings of this research.

1. Out of one hundred students, I found 53 per cent instrumentally motivated, 36 per cent integratively motivated and 11 percent equally motivated. The number of instrumentally motivated students is larger than integratively motivated students.
    a. Out of fifty students of two T.U. constituent campuses, the number of instrumentally and integratively motivated students is the same, i.e. 21 (42%) and the number of equally motivated students is 8 (16%).
    b. Similarly, out of fifty students of private campuses 32 (64%) students are instrumentally motivated, 15 (30%) students are integratively motivated and 3(6%) students are equally motivated. The number of instrumentally motivated students is larger than integratively motivated students.
    c. There are 48 male students out of 100. Interestingly, the same number 22 (45.82%) of students is both instrumentally and integratively motivated and three students only (8.36%) are equally motivated.
    d. Out of 52 female students, the number of instrumentally motivated is 31(61.54%), integratively motivated is 14 (26.90%) and equally

motivated is 7 (13.46%). Here, too, the students are more instrumentally motivated rather than integratively.

2 The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students was found higher than integratively motivated students. The coefficient amounts to 80 of instrumentally motivated students and 0.51 of integrativelly motivated students. Thus, the reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students shows higher correlation than the reading and writing proficiency tests of integretively motivated students. In contrast, the coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of equally motivated students shows the perfect negative correlation. It is -2.31. Thus, the more instrumentally motivated the students were to learn English the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests than integratively motivated students. Thus, the major hypothesis of this research was proved.

a. Out of fifty students of government campuses the coefficient of correlations between reading and writing proficiency tests of integratively motivated students was found 0.89, instrumentally motivated students was 0.69 and of equally motivated was found 0.76. It is crystal clear that the more integratively motivated the students were to learn English the higher scores they achieved on reading and writing proficiency tests than instrumentally motivated students. In this case the major hypothesis of this study was refuted

b. Similarly, the coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students of private colleges was found lower than integratively motivated students. The coefficient of correlation of the former was found 0.37 and of the latter was 0.55. Surprisingly, the coefficient of

correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of equally motivated students was found perfectly positive. It was 0.99. In this case too the major hypothesis of this study was refuted, however the equally motivated students excel all others in reading and writing proficiency tests

c. The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of integratively motivated male students was found 0.38, but of instrumentally motivated students it was found zero (0.039). There was no correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated students. The coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency of equally motivated male students was found much higher than integratively and instrumentally motivated students. It was 0.69. In this case too the major hypothesis of this study was not proved.

d. Likewise, the coefficient of correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of instrumentally motivated female students was found higher than integratively motivated students. The coefficient correlation of the former was 0.56 and the latter was 0.21. But there was found perfect positive correlation between reading and writing proficiency tests of equally motivated female students. It was 0.94. Here the major hypothesis was proved.

3. It can be claimed that the motivation status has some sort of positive and direct role in language proficiency. The strongly instrumentally motivated students have higher proficiency in reading and writing proficiency

## 4.2 Recommendations for Pedagogical Implications

It is said that “Motivation is often extolled as the key to learning”(Finochhiaro, 1989, p. 42). Everyone, therefore, would agree that motivation should be

fostered and sustained since it leads to nurture high language proficiency. To increase the level of proficiency of students it is needed to maintain the drive, the interest and desire to persevere in the students. Teacher has to play a chief role in the increment of motivation of students.

With regard to this, Finochhiaro (1989) states that:

> Motivation is the feeling nurtured primarily by the classroom teacher in the learning situation as he or she engages in carefully planned as well as empirical and intuitive practices which will satisfy on or more of the basis, universal, cognitive and affective human needs identified by psychologist; such as, Maslow, the need for survival, belonging, identity, self-esteem and self–actualization (p. 42).

Thus, the teacher has the vital role to raise the motivation of the students to learn language better and more effectively.

To raise the students' motivation, the teacher should help the students to connect language learning to their personal goals. (Niederhauser 1997, p.9). He further mentions that the teacher should have the student fill out of plans for success. In the words of Skehan (1989), the four main sources for motivation are “the materials / teaching used; the constraints and rewards involved; the amount of success achieved and the goals of the students” (p.70). So, to raise the motivation in students to learn English language better, the teacher should pay due attention to these four sources for motivation. Many theories and researchers have found that it is important to recognize the construct of motivation not as a single entity but as a multi-factorial one. Oxford and Shearin (1994, as cited in Ebata 2003) analyzed a total of L2 motivational theories or models including those from socio-psychology, cognitive development and socio-cultural-psychology and identified six factors that impact motivation in language learning:

a) Attitudes (i.e., sentiments towards the learning community and the target language)

b) Belief about self (i.e., experiences about one's attitudes to succeed self efficiency and anxiety)

c) Goals (perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reasons for learning)

d) Involvement (i.e., extent to which the learner actively and consciously participates in the language learning process).

e) Environmental support (i.e., extent of teacher and peer support, and the integration of cultural and out-of-clear support into learning experiences).

f) Personal attributes (i.e., aptitudes, age, sex and previous language learning experiences).

Thus, the teacher should take these factors into consideration and act accordingly to raise motivation in students to learn the English language.

The motivation status and proficiency level of students is asymmetrical i.e., some instrumentally motivated students have high reading and writing proficiency and some instrumentally motivated students have low reading and writing proficiency, and so is the case with integratively motivated students too. So, the integratively motivated students have "low affective filler" and instrumentally motivated students have "high affective filter" (Krashen 2002, p. 22). The students of private campuses were found to have high affective filter since thirty four per cent were instrumentally motivated out of the total fifty students and they also achieved lower in reading and writing proficiency tests than the students of T.U. constituent campuses. However, the students of T.U. constituent campuses were found to have low affective factor since the same per cent of them were found to have been motivated both instrumentally

and integratively. The chief role of the teachers is to ease the learning environment and make it non-threatening. He should help remove all psychological barriers being faced by the students.

Some students are learning English for getting acculturated with other language speaking communities, some are learning for getting good job and higher payments and some are just for traveling. So, considering these goals the teachers should deal with them accordingly. As Harmer (1991) mentioned, the main role of teacher is to pinpoint the long term and short term goals of students in learning a language. Strongly instrumentally motivated students may be highly motivated by realistic short term goals within the learning process and strongly integratively motivated students may be highly motivated by long term goals (p.9).

Similarly, language input, the “comprehensive input” (Krashen 2002) is the crucial and necessary ingredient of motivating students in language learning process. The strongly motivated students need quite challenging input. So, the teacher should take this factor into account to maintain some short of drive in student to learn language better.

Substantial practice and feedback is not only essential to sustain motivation, but also to prevent fossilization of erroneous target–language forms (Green 1993, p. 2). So, the teacher needs to involve the students in enough meaningful language practice and provides them with constructive feedback to let the motivation strongly flowing in the students.

The really important part of motivation lays in the act of communication itself rather than in any general orientation or implied by the integrative/ instrumental distinction. It is the need to get meanings across and the pleasure experienced when this is achieved that motivates SLA. (MacNamara 1973, as cited in Ellis 1985,p.119). Thus, creating activities that foster real

communication enhance motivation. The teacher should place emphasis on this aspect too.

Motivation is clearly a highly complex phenomenon. The types of motivation should not be taken as mutually exclusive and entirely oppositional. They should be seen rather complementary to each other. Learners may be both instrumentally and integreatively motivated at one and the same time. Motivation can result from learning as well as be a cause to it. Furthermore, motivation is dynamic in nature; it is not something that a learner has or does not have but rather something that varies from one moment to the next depending on learning context or task. The language teacher should, therefore, keep this fact in mind.

Similarly, teaching language without sufficient knowledge of the motivational status will be meaningless. The foreign language curricula should not be formulated by others rather than the language teachers themselves. Moreover, they should be formulated after rigorous analysis of the understanding of the reasons and goals of students for learning a foreign language. These can crystal clearly help the teachers demarcate the motivation status of the students to learn a foreign language. Then the language teacher should formulate a language curriculum and select such materials that best serve the students' goals for learning a foreign language. Above all, the students easily and effectively learn the language and achieve better proficiency in language skills. However, unfortunately, in context to our country, this has not even been thought a little so far. Consequently, the teachers teach a foreign language to the students without even the slightest knowledge of their motivation status and majority of the students from school level to campus level fail in the exam. Thus, this pivotal matter should be brought into effect from today if we want our students better learn the foreign languages.

## 4.3 Direction for Further Research

This study selected only the bachelor first year students of education faculty as the study subjects. The same research can be conducted including the students of other faculties and other levels too. Similarly, this study only centered on finding out integratively and instrumentally motivated students to learn English. The students may have other purposes of learning English as a foreign language such as learning English for traveling, business transaction, joining in the UN as security personnel etc. The further research may be focused on finding out the students motivated to meet the above targets. I only ventured to explore the proficiency level of integratively and instrumentally motivated students. So the further research can be done to explore the proficiency level of students who are motivated to learn English for other purposes.

This study was restricted to explore only the reading and writing proficiency of the students, not listening and speaking skills. So the further research can be done on finding out the listening and speaking proficiency of integratively and instrumentally motivated students. The most vital things the motivation as a cause or effect of language proficiency is still debated and research on this topic in context to Nepal has not been touched so far. Thus, I propose that it would be worth investigating the status of motivation as cause or effect in language proficiency.

The role of parental motivation in the increment of students' learning proficiency is another potential area of investigation. Thus, the further study embracing and expanding the implications of this study should continue so that the relationship between varieties of forms of motivation and language proficiency may be better explored and developed.

# APPENDIX – I

## MOTIVATION SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

The following are a number of statements with which some people agree and other disagree. Please tick ( ) one alternative next to each statement according to the amount of your agreement or disagreement with that item. Information you have provided will be kept highly confidential and used only for research purpose.

Name:…….

Campus:…….…….. Level:…..…..... Gender: …….

***Example:***

| **Q. No.** | **Motivational Status** | **Strongly agree** | **Agree** | **Uncertain** | **Disagree** | **Strongly disagree** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | American English is much better than British English. | | | | | |

| **Q. No.** | **Motivational Status** | **Strongly agree** | **Agree** | **Uncertain** | **Disagree** | **Strongly disagree** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Studying English can be important to me because it will be useful in getting a good job. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2. | Studying English can be important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural group. | | | | | |
| 3. | Studying English can be important to me because it will improve my social status. | | | | | |
| 4. | Studying English can be important to me because I want to stay with the English language speaking community. | | | | | |
| 5. | Studying English can be important to me because I will need it for my further career. | | | | | |
| 6. | Most native English speakers are so friendly and easy to get along with. I am fortunate to have them as friends. | | | | | |
| 7. | Studying English can be important to me because other people will respect me if I have knowledge of the English language. | | | | | |
| 8. | Studying English can be important to me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | British art and literature. | | | | | |
| 9. | Native speakers are very social and kind | | | | | |
| 10. | Studying English can be important to me because it will improve my economic condition. | | | | | |

# APPENDIX– II

## READING COMPREHENSION TEST

**Name**:…….

**Campus**:…… **Level**:…… **Gender** : Male / Female

## 1. Read the following passage and answer the questions given below:

It's kind of silly to talk about the moment when pizza was 'invented'. It gradually evolved over the years, but one thing's for certain – it's been around for a very long time. The idea of using pieces of flat, round bread as plates came from the Greeks. They called them 'plakuntos' and ate them with various simple toppings such as oil, garlic, onions, and herbs. The Romans enjoyed eating something similar and called it 'picea'. By about 1000 A.D. in the city of Naples, 'picea' had become 'pizza' and people were experimenting with more toppings: cheese, ham, anchovies, and finally the tomato, brought to Italy from

Mexico and Peru in the sixteenth century. Naples became the pizza capital of the world. In 1889, King Umberto I and Queen Margherita heard about pizza and asked to try it. They invited pizza maker, Raffaele Esposito, to make it for them. He decided to make the pizza like the Italian flag, so he used red tomatoes, white mozzarella cheese, and green basil leaves. The Queen loved it and the new pizza was named 'Pizza Margherita' in her honour.

i) Which came first, picea or plakuntos? How are they different from pizza?

……..……..

ii) What do the Italian flag and a pizza Margherita have in common?

……..……..

iii) Who invited Raffaele Esposito? And Why?

……..……..

iv) Why pizza was named 'Pizza Margherita?

……..……..

v) What can be the title of the passage?

……..……..

**B. Write 'T' for true and 'F' for false at the end of each statement.**

i. Pizza was invented in 1000 A.D.

ii. Romans called plakuntos like things picea.

iii. The tomato was brought to Italy from Mexico and Peru.

iv. Mexico became the pizza capital of the world.

v. The Italian flag is green colour.

## 2. Underline the correct verb forms

1. A : Why are you putting on your coat?

   B : Because *I'll take/I'm going to take* the dog for a walk.

2. A : What's the score?

   B : '6 – 0. *They're going to lose/They'll lose*

3. A : It's Tony's birthday next week.

   B : Is it? I didn't know. *I'll send/I'm going to send* him a card.

4. A : Would you like to go out for a rink tonight?

   B : How about tomorrow night? *I'll call/I'm calling* you.

5. A : Are you and Alan still going out together?

   B : Oh yes, *we'll get/we're getting* married in June.

6. A : Where are you going on holiday this year?

   B We haven't decided. *We might go/we're going* to Italy.

# APPENDIX – III

## WRITING TEST

### A. Write the correct word in the gaps.

i. His death had a terrible …… on her. (effect/affect)

ii. I am going to buy some pencils from the …….. store (stationary/stationery)

iii. Please …….. your hand if you want something. (raise/rise)

iv. Do you know the ……. of acceleration? (principle/principal)

v. Cheese, butter and milk are all …….. products. (dairy/diary)

### B. Make sentences using *'I think . . . will'* using the following prompts

Example: *I think Jerry will win the match.*

i. I/ have a bath tonight.

……

ii. the teacher/give us a lot of homework.

……

iii. it/ rain tomorrow.

……

iv. we/ have in exam this week.

……

v. my partner/ be a millionaire one day.

……

**C. Construct meaningful sentences using *'Have you ever . . . ?* using the following prompts.**

**Example**: *Have you ever been to California?*

i. sleep/ in the open air?

……...

ii. be/ on TV?

……...

iii. have/an operation?

……...

iv. win/an award?

……...

v. Drive/ a lorry?

……...

## D. Write a short note on

"Marriage and Family"

……

……

……

……

……

……

……

……

# APPENDIX - IV

## 1. Average Reading Proficiency of the Whole Students

| **Score** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 9 | 38 |
| 6-10 | 59 | 522 |
| 11-15 | 28 | 351 |
| 16-20 | 3 | 50 |
| Total | N = 99 | 961 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{1961}{99}$$

$$= 9.70$$

## 2. Average Writing Proficiency of the Whole Students

| **Score** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 8 | 35 |
| 6-10 | 34 | 290 |
| 11-15 | 49 | 643 |
| 16-20 | 9 | 156 |
| Total | N= 100 | 1124 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{1124}{100}$$

$$= 11.24$$

**3. Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 3 | 12 |
| 6-10 | 21 | 184 |
| 11-15 | 24 | 315 |
| 16-20 | 5 | 87 |
| Total | N = 53 | 598 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{598}{53}$$

$$= 11.28$$

**4. Average Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 3 | 13 |
| 6-10 | 9 | 74 |
| 11-15 | 20 | 262 |
| 16-20 | 4 | 69 |
| Total | N = 36 | 418 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{418}{36}$$

$$= 11.61$$

**5. Average Reading Proficiency of all students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| **Score** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 4 | 6 |
| 6-10 | 28 | 244 |
| 11-15 | 17 | 209 |
| 16-20 | 1 | 17 |
| Total | N= 50 | 476 |

$\phi fx$ X476

$\overline{X}$ X$\frac{\phi fx}{N}$

X$\frac{476}{50}$

X9.52

**6. Average Writing proficiency of all students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| **Scores (X)** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 4 | 20 |
| 6-10 | 12 | 98 |
| 11-15 | 28 | 363 |
| 16-20 | 6 | 106 |
| Total | N= 50 | 587 |

$\overline{X}$ X$\frac{\phi fx}{N}$

= $\frac{587}{50}$

= 11.74

**7. Average Reading Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 3 | 12 |
| 6-10 | 14 | 122 |
| 11-15 | 4 | 48 |
| 16-20 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | N = 21 | 182 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{182}{21}$$

$$= 8.66$$

**8. Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 2 | 10 |
| 6-10 | 4 | 32 |
| 11-15 | 11 | 141 |
| 16-20 | 4 | 69 |
| Total | N = 21 | 252 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{252}{21}$$

$$= 12.00$$

**9. Average Reading Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 1 | 2 |
| 6-10 | 12 | 114 |
| 11-15 | 7 | 91 |
| 16-20 | 1 | 17 |
| Total | N= 21 | 224 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{224}{21}$$

10.66

**10. Average Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 1 | 5 |
| 6-10 | 8 | 64 |
| 11-15 | 11 | 145 |
| 16-20 | 1 | 19 |
| Total | N= 21 | 233 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{233}{21}$$

= 11.09

**11. Average Reading Proficiency of all Students of Private Campuses**.

| **Score** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 4 | 19 |
| 6-10 | 31 | 258 |
| 11-15 | 12 | 155 |
| 16-20 | 2 | 33 |
| Total | N= 49 | 465 |

$$\overline{X}\ \mathrm{X}\frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$\mathrm{X}\frac{465}{49}$$

X9.48

**12. Average writing Proficiency of all Students Private Campuses**

| **Scores (X)** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 3 | 10 |
| 6-10 | 21 | 183 |
| 11-15 | 21 | 279 |
| 16-20 | 5 | 86 |
| Total | N= 50 | 558 |

$$\overline{X}\ \mathrm{X}\frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{558}{50}$$

= 11.16

**13. Average Reading Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of Private Campuses.**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 4 | 19 |
| 6-10 | 23 | 189 |
| 11-15 | 4 | 51 |
| 16-20 | 1 | 16 |
| **Total** | N= 32 | 275 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{275}{32}$$

$$= 8.59$$

**14. Average Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of Private Colleges.**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 2 | 7 |
| 6-10 | 15 | 133 |
| 11-15 | 12 | 158 |
| 16-20 | 3 | 50 |
| **Total** | N= 32 | 348 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{348}{32}$$

$$= 10.87$$

**15. Average Reading Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of Private Colleges**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 0 | 0 |
| 6-10 | 7 | 60 |
| 11-15 | 7 | 89 |
| 16-20 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | N = 14 | 149 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{149}{14}$$

$$= 10.64$$

**16. Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of Private Campuses**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 1 | 3 |
| 6-10 | 5 | 42 |
| 11-15 | 9 | 121 |
| 16-20 | 0 | 0 |
| **Total** | N = 15 | 166 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{166}{15}$$

$$= 11.06$$

**17. Average Writing Proficiency of all Male Students**

| **Scores (X)** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 4 | 17 |
| 6-10 | 18 | 149 |
| 11-15 | 23 | 299 |
| 16-20 | 7 | 125 |
| Total | N = 52 | 590 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{590}{52}$$

$$= 11.34$$

**18. Average Reading proficiency of all Male Students**

| **Scores (X)** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 2 | 8 |
| 6-10 | 32 | 282 |
| 11-15 | 12 | 145 |
| 16-20 | 1 | 16 |
| Total | N = 47 | 451 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{451}{47}$$

$$= 9.59$$

**19. Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Male Students.**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 0 | 0 |
| 6-10 | 9 | 80 |
| 11-15 | 11 | 139 |
| 16-20 | 2 | 34 |
| Total | N= 22 | 253 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{253}{22}$$

$$= 11.5$$

**20. Average Reading Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Male Students.**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 1 | 5 |
| 6-10 | 15 | 126 |
| 11-15 | 4 | 48 |
| 16-20 | 2 | 33 |
| Total | N = 22 | 212 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{212}{22}$$

$$= 9.63$$

**21. Average Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Male Students.**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 2 | 8 |
| 6-10 | 6 | 52 |
| 11-15 | 11 | 178 |
| 16-20 | 2 | 33 |
| Total | N= 22 | 271 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{271}{22}$$

$$= 12.31$$

**22. Average Reading Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 6 | 25 |
| 6-10 | 35 | 304 |
| 11-15 | 10 | 131 |
| 16-20 | 2 | 33 |
| Total | N = 53 | 493 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{493}{53}$$

$$= 9.30$$

**23. Average Reading Proficiency of all Female Students**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 7 | 30 |
| 6-10 | 27 | 220 |
| 11-15 | 16 | 206 |
| 16-20 | 2 | 34 |
| Total | N= 52 | 490 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{490}{52}$$

$$= 9.06$$

**24. Average Writing Proficiency of all Female Students**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 4 | 16 |
| 6-10 | 18 | 149 |
| 11-15 | 23 | 299 |
| 16-20 | 7 | 125 |
| Total | N = 52 | 589 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{589}{52}$$

$$= 11.34$$

**25. Average Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Female Students.**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 3 | 12 |
| 6-10 | 12 | 99 |
| 11-15 | 13 | 179 |
| 16-20 | 3 | 53 |
| Total | N= 31 | 343 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{343}{31}$$

$$= 11.06$$

**26. Average Reading Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Female Students.**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 4 | 16 |
| 6-10 | 19 | 158 |
| 11-15 | 7 | 94 |
| 16-20 | 1 | 17 |
| Total | N = 31 | 285 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{285}{31}$$

$$= 9.19$$

**27. Average Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Female Students.**

| Score | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 0 | 0 |
| 6-10 | 4 | 32 |
| 11-15 | 8 | 94 |
| 16-20 | 3 | 53 |
| Total | N= 15 | 179 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{179}{15}$$

$$= 11.93$$

**28. Average Reading Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Female Students.**

| Scores (X) | Frequency | *fx* |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 2 | 9 |
| 6-10 | 8 | 63 |
| 11-15 | 5 | 64 |
| 16-20 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | N = 15 | 136 |

$$\overline{X} \text{ X} \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{136}{15}$$

$$= 9.06$$

**29. Average Reading Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Male Students.**

| **Scores (X)** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 1 | 3 |
| 6-10 | 12 | 111 |
| 11-15 | 8 | 112 |
| 16-20 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | N = 21 | 226 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{226}{21}$$

$$= 10.76$$

**30. Average Reading Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students**

| **Scores (X)** | **Frequency** | ***fx*** |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 2 | 9 |
| 6-10 | 22 | 192 |
| 11-15 | 11 | 148 |
| 16-20 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | N = 35 | 349 |

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\phi fx}{N}$$

$$= \frac{349}{35}$$

$$= 9.97$$

# APPENDIX - V

I have used the most often used most precise coefficient correlation formula of Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlations (r)

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY) - (\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2 - (\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2 - \phi Y^2]}}$$

Where,

$\phi X$ X Sum of the X scores

$\phi Y$ X Sum of the Y scores

$\phi X^2$ X Sum of the squared X scores

$\phi Y^2$ X Sum of the squared Y scores

$\phi XY$ X Sum of the product of paired X and Y scores

$N$ X Number of paired scores

**1. Coefficient of Correlation between Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY) - (\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2 - (\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2 - \phi Y^2]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X100

$\phi X$ X 941

$\phi Y$ X1136

$\phi X^2$ X 9723

$\phi Y^2$ X 14341

$\phi XY$ X 11175

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.43

**2. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÅ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 53

$\phi X$ X 490

$\phi Y$ X 666

$\phi X^2$ X 5008

$\phi Y^2$ X 6686

$\phi XY$ X 5432

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.80

**3. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÅ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 36

$\phi X$ X 335

$\phi Y$ X 420

$\phi X^2$ X 3493

$\phi Y^2$ X 5428

$\phi XY$ X 4136

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.51

**4. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Equally Motivated Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Z\int\phi Y\AA]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 11

$\phi X$ X 120

$\phi Y$ X 138

$\phi X^2$ X 1388

$\phi Y^2$ X 1900

$\phi XY$ X 1235

Coefficient ($r$) = -2.34

**5. Coefficient of Correlation between Average Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Z\int\phi Y\AA]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X50

$\phi X$ X 476

$\phi Y$ X589

$\phi X^2$ X 4835

$\phi Y^2$ X 7631

$\phi XY$ X 5733

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.27

**6. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÃ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 21

$\phi X$ X 182

$\phi Y$ X 252

$\phi X^2$ X 1714

$\phi Y^2$ X 3304

$\phi XY$ X 2359

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 89

**7. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÃ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 21

$\phi X$ X 215

$\phi Y$ X 233

$\phi X^2$ X 2415

$\phi Y^2$ X 2851

$\phi XY$ X 2519

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 56

**8. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Equally Motivated Students of T.U. Constituent Campuses**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\,Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÅ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 8

$\phi X$ X 79

$\phi Y$ X 94

$\phi X^2$ X 826

$\phi Y^2$ X 1186

$\phi XY$ X 975

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 76

**9. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Students of Private Campuses**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\,Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÅ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X50

$\phi X$ X 465

$\phi Y$ X547

$\phi X^2$ X 4888

$\phi Y^2$ X 6710

$\phi XY$ X 5442

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.56

**10. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Students of Private Campuses**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÅ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 15

$\phi X$ X 149

$\phi Y$ X 166

$\phi X^2$ X 1783

$\phi Y^2$ X 2022

$\phi XY$ X 1781

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.55

**11. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Students of Private Campuses**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÅ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 32

$\phi X$ X 275

$\phi Y$ X 348

$\phi X^2$ X 2611

$\phi Y^2$ X 4172

$\phi XY$ X 3107

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.37

**12. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Equally Motivated Students of Private Campuses**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÃ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 3

$\phi X$ X 41

$\phi Y$ X 44

$\phi X^2$ X 595

$\phi Y^2$ X 714

$\phi XY$ X 650

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.99

**13. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Male Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÃ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 48

$\phi X$ X 451

$\phi Y$ X 557

$\phi X^2$ X 4591

$\phi Y^2$ X 6788

$\phi XY$ X 5387

Coefficient ($r$) = -0.21

**14. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Male Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Z f\phi Y \AA]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 22

$\phi X$ X 225

$\phi Y$ X 263

$\phi X^2$ X 2334

$\phi Y^2$ X 3187

$\phi XY$ X 2579

Coefficient ($r$) = 0.039

**15. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Male Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Z f\phi Y \AA]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 21

$\phi X$ X 205

$\phi Y$ X 253

$\phi X^2$ X 2107

$\phi Y^2$ X 3327

$\phi XY$ X 2549

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 38

**16. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Equally Motivated Male Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÃ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 4

$\phi X$ X 41

$\phi Y$ X 53

$\phi X^2$ X 439

$\phi Y^2$ X 715

$\phi XY$ X 554

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 69

**17. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of all Female Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Zf\phi YÃ]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 52

$\phi X$ X 490

$\phi Y$ X 590

$\phi X^2$ X 5284

$\phi Y^2$ X 7546

$\phi XY$ X 5972

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 54

**18. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Instrumentally Motivated Female Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Z f\phi Y \AA^2]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 31

$\phi X$ X 285

$\phi Y$ X 346

$\phi X^2$ X 2981

$\phi Y^2$ X 4321

$\phi XY$ X 3410

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 56

**19. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Integratively Motivated Female Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Z f\phi Y \AA^2]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 14

$\phi X$ X 126

$\phi Y$ X 162

$\phi X^2$ X 1290

$\phi Y^2$ X 2020

$\phi XY$ X 1491

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 21

**20. Coefficient of Correlation between Reading and Writing Proficiency of Equally Motivated Female Students.**

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N(\phi XY)\ Z(\phi X)(\phi Y)}{\sqrt{[N\phi X^2\ Z(\phi X)^2][N\phi Y^2\ Z\phi Y^2]}}$$

Where,

$N$ X 7

$\phi X$ X 79

$\phi Y$ X 85

$\phi X^2$ X 983

$\phi Y^2$ X 1185

$\phi XY$ X 1071

Coefficient ($r$) = 0. 94

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