



**University of
Sunderland**

**The differences of attitudinal and motivational factors amongst
students in Qatar and the relationship between these factors and
their achievement in English language**

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the University of Sunderland for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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DECLARATION

I confirm that I am the sole author of this thesis, and all quotations in the thesis have been properly acknowledged according to appropriate academic conventions.

DEDICATION

To my beloved father who is the one who started me on this project by implanting the seed of motivation inside my mind and soul ever since I knew life, through his invaluable support, advice, guidance and friendship which have helped me to cross the finishing line with flying colours.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between attitudes and motivation, and English language achievement. It also illustrated the influence of sex (males & females) on the attitudes and motivation of students in Qatar.

Two main null-hypotheses and sub null-hypotheses were formulated to answer the main research questions of the study. A quantitative approach was implemented in a questionnaire survey, followed by a qualitative study using focus group interviews in order to explore the students' answers in more depth and to cover various issues missed in the questionnaire. The eleven scales of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) were adopted with slight adjustments to suit the present study. This instrument was chosen due to its established reliability and validity.

In order to estimate population parameters, an independent *t*-test was used to test for differences between males and females. On the other hand, the Spearman correlation was used to determine the relationship between students' achievement in English and their motivation and attitudes. The study confirms previous findings and contributes additional evidence to suggest that the socio-educational model is appropriate for a monolingual context like Qatar where English is officially regarded as a foreign language. Moreover, this study contributes to knowledge concerning language learning and confirms Gardner's (2005, 2010, 2012) argument that if a researcher adapts the full AMTB and selects appropriate items, the findings will corroborate the predictions of the socio-educational model.

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1 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 OVERVIEW

After the discovery of oil and gas in Qatar, and given the pace of advances in communication technologies, communicating with the outside world in regard to business, politics and other aspects of life has become crucial. Therefore, the importance of the English language is evident. However, officials, teachers, and researchers believe that, although Qatari students study English for 12 years prior to university, their level of English language proficiency is not up to the required level. Extensive research has been carried out on motivation and language teaching; however, no single study exists in the Arab world and in Qatar in particular which investigates the attitudinal and motivational factors in relation to students' proficiency in the English language. For this reason, the present researcher was interested in finding the causes behind this low level of proficiency. This thesis consists of six chapters: introduction, literature review, methodology, data analyses, conclusion, and implications and recommendation of the study. The first chapter gives a general introduction to the research. In the first section of this chapter, a brief overview is given of the aims of the study. The second section presents the main research questions, and subsequent sections describe the weather, geography, population, and history of the State of Qatar. The second chapter starts with an overview of motivation and its definitions. In the sections which follow, motivation, attitudes and anxiety are discussed. Then, in section 2.5 the five levels of Maslow's theory of motivation and hierarchy of needs are explained. Next, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are discussed. In the following sections, Gardner's, Dörnyei's, and William and Burden's motivational models are presented. Chapter three begins with an overview of the two research paradigms

positivism and interpretivism. Then, differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches in regard to their ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical, and methodological assumptions are discussed. After that, details of the research tools used in this study, a questionnaire and interviews are discussed. In section 3.7 detailed information is given concerning the research questions and hypotheses. In the following sections, the dependent and independent variables and predictor factors (attitudes toward British people, attitudes toward learning English, interest in foreign languages, integrative orientation, instrumental orientation, English class anxiety, parental encouragement, motivational intensity, desire to learn English, students' impressions of their English teacher, and students' impressions of their English course) are discussed. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were utilized to collect, analyse and interpret the data in this study. Doing so helped the researcher to gain a comprehensive understanding of the issue under investigation from different perspectives. Chapter four consists of two main parts. The first part gives detailed information concerning the quantitative data using descriptive and inferential statistics. In the second part of this chapter, the results of focus group interviews are displayed. Chapter five discusses the research results. In addition, it considers previous studies and whether or not they are supported by the present findings. Finally, chapter six gives teachers, policy-makers, and parents recommendations concerning how to make learners more motivated, and hold more positive attitudes toward the English language and the people who speak it.

1.2 RESEARCH AIMS

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between attitudes and motivation, and English language achievement. The study also considered the influence of sex on the attitudes and motivation of students in Qatar and focused on

the relationship between motivational and attitudinal factors and student achievement in the English language, (i. e., the level of English language proficiency students have accomplished). However, the status of the English language in Qatar is considered to be midway between English as a foreign language and English as a second language. Officially, it is a foreign language, and great efforts have been devoted to English as a language of instruction in primary, preparatory, and secondary schools. However, these endeavours have not been completely successful and Arabic has therefore been reinstated as the language of instruction. The reason for this was simply that teachers could not give what they did not have. It is hoped that the findings of this study will contribute to language learning and teaching all over the world, and particularly in Qatar. The hypotheses tested in the present research may provide answers to many questions asked by teachers and administrators in Qatari schools, given that there has been no similar study which has investigated in depth the attitudes and motivation of students in Qatar.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Frist Main Question:

Q 1: Is there a significant difference between male and female students in regard to the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors (see table 3.6 for details)?

Second Main Question:

Q 2: Is there a significant relationship between the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors, and the students' English language achievement (see table 3.7 for details)?

In order to give multidimensional, comprehensive, detailed, and accurate answers to each of the main research questions, null hypotheses were formulated and tested (see

section 3.10 for details). This is in line with Walonick's (2013) view that "if the research question is testable, state the null hypothesis" (p.206).

1.4 THE STATE OF QATAR

Qatar is a small middle-eastern country situated on the north-eastern coast of the Arabian Peninsula, between latitudes 24° and 27° north and longitudes 50° and 52° east. It is part of the continent of Asia. The Qatar Peninsula extends into the Persian Gulf which separates it from the United Arab Emirates. Its only land neighbour is Saudi Arabia. The overall land area covered is 11, 586 km^2 (Abo Galalah, 1992; Qatar, 2016).

It has been estimated that the population of the country in November 2014 was 2,269,672. People of more than 63 other nationalities are present in Qatar, including Indians (23.58%), Nepalese (17.3%), Phillipinos (8.65%), Bangladeshis (6.49%), Sri Lankans (4.33%), and Egyptians (7.78 %) (Snoj, 2014). Qatar stretches for about 160 km in length, whereas its width is up to 80 km. Its coastline measures 550 km. The official language is Arabic, but English is widely spoken in government and public places.

The Qatari Peninsula appears as a flat and barren plain, with the exception of the south-east region that is covered in massive high sand dunes. The highest peak is Qurayn Abu Al-Bawl, in Jabel Dukhan, which is up to 103 metres above sea level. Although the landscape is sandy, some vegetation in the form of trees and bushes can be found in certain areas (Qatar Geography, 2015). The climate is characterized by a very hot and humid summer whereas winter is mild. Hot weather starts from June till the middle of September whereas the winter months are from December till the end of February.

Pleasant weather occurs during March, April, May, October and November. Sandstorms are a rare occurrence (The Statistics Authority, 2009).

Qatar consists of seven administratively arranged municipalities: Doha, Al-Rayyan, Al-Wakra, Um Slal, Al-Khor, Al-Shamal, and Al-Daayen. The capital of Qatar is Al-Dawha, where all of the most important events and activities take place. It is the location of all ministries and governmental offices. Apart from Al-Dawha, there are other important cities such as Dukhan, which is an oil centre of the country. Also, Mesaieed is famous for its refineries from where oil is exported to other parts of the world. It has two ports, a commercial one and the other one for oil exportation. Al-Ruwais is another important city whose ports and ruins indicate its ancient history. Al-Khor is in the north of the country and is one of the Qatari cities whose importance lies in preserving traditions. Opposite Al-Khor is Al-Shamal, a modern city populated by many tribes. These major cities are each accompanied by several suburbs (Qotbah, 1990; The Statistics Authority, 2009).

Qatari history dates from the Stone Age, according to archaeological findings. In its history, Qatar was influenced by the Ottomans and the British. In the seventh century AD, Qatar was part of the Islamic Caliphate (Al-Suwaidi, 2001). The migration of the population, especially merchants and traders, resulted in developing coastal settlements that depended on pearling and trade. The Ottoman Empire came to rule in 1872 and stayed until 1913, when the British Empire signed with Qatar a treaty where they would protect the country in exchange for control over Qatari foreign policy (Qatar Description, 2015; Qatar History, 2016). So, until 1971 when it gained independence, Qatar assumed the role of a British protectorate (Al-Obaidli, 2009). Since that time, the Al-Thani family has ruled Qatar. The country is constituted as a monarchy (Al-Suwaidi,

2001). The present Emir is Sheikh Tamim bin Hamad Al-Thani. His father, Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani, handed power to Sheikh Tamim in 2013, but remains very popular and loved among Qataris who refer to him as the “Father Emir”. Qatar is a member of the GCC (Gulf Cooperation Council), an economic and political organization that was formed in 1981 among six Gulf countries: Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates and Oman. Apart from this, Qatar plays an active role as a member of the United Nations, and has a significant role on the world stage in many matters, especially humanitarian, educational and sporting issues. The official religion in Qatar is Islam and its legislation is based on the principles of Islamic law called Shari’ah (Qassim, 2008).

1.5 EDUCATION IN QATAR

The economy of Qatar is based on the oil and gas industry. Qatar was a poor country that solely lived on fishing and pearling income, and subsequently developed into a rich state upon the discovery of oil in the 1940s. This had a major impact on the future development of the country and the lifestyle of its people (Al-Obaidli, 2009). It is estimated that Qatari gas constitutes a reservoir representing 14% of the entire natural gas in the world. These resources have also led to the development of steel, chemical, petroleum, cement and other industries. Its reserves have made Qatar one of the most important oil suppliers in the world (Al-Suwaidi, 2001).

With the discovery of oil, the world opened to Qatar, and therefore the need to communicate with the outside world became much more important than before. Therefore, the English language started occupying a more important role, and also recognition of the importance of education in general increased. Several authors have discussed the educational systems that existed in Qatar in the 19th century. For

example, Al-Alusi (1928, cited in Maarafi, 2004), mentions the existence of places that served as schools for boys in 1878. These schools were of a religious character and were called Katateeb. They served the purpose of teaching the Holy Qur'an and Sunnah. Apart from that, the students were taught reading, writing and arithmetic (Maarafi, 2004).

There were two kinds of Kuttab: ordinary and advanced. The ordinary ones existed in some areas. They were not organized as classrooms but were rather held in the houses of Kuttab or in shops. Advanced ones were organized in towns, inside buildings and were for children from wealthy families (Al-Misnad, 1984). In 1913, a new school for males was opened under the name Al-Madrasah Al-Atheeriyah Al-Hadithah. However, it was closed in 1938 because its founder moved to Saudi Arabia (Maarafi, 2004). According to Obaidi (2009), a new educational institution was opened in 1947 under the name Al-Madrasat Alislah Alhamdiah. It was the first semi-regular school that resembled a contemporary primary school. The students were taught the Holy Qur'an, Islamic studies, Arabic grammar, Arabic language, English language, geography, arithmetic, and handicrafts. This was the first time that the English language was taught as part of a curriculum. Moreover, the curriculum that followed was taken from the Egyptian educational system. In 1951, the government took over responsibility and supported Madrasat Alislah Alhamdiah financially. Three years later, in 1954, four more primary schools were opened and teachers from Iraq, Egypt and Palestine were recruited (Al-Obaidli, 2009). Naji (1985, cited in Maarafi, 2004) states that in 1952, a committee of four consultants was appointed by the government of Qatar to supervise education. This resulted in the establishment of the first formal school for boys in Qatar in 1956 (Maarafi, 2004). As for girls, in the nineteenth century they studied the Holy

Qur'an at home, in addition to learning some basic Arabic that was taught by a religious lady known as Almutawa'a. The first primary school for girls was established in 1938 by Mrs. Amna Mahmood Al-Jaida. It was called a Kuttab. However, the first formal schools for girls run by the government were opened in 1957 and 1958 (Al-Misnad, 1984; Al-Emadi, 2002).

According to Al-Obaidli (2009), the Ministry of Education (MoE) was formed in 1956 and was known under the name Wizarat Al-Maarif. Three main stages of schooling were provided in Qatar and in the Arab world in general, following advice from the Arab League.

In 1958 and as a result of a decision taken by the cultural department of the Arab League which was initiated in the same year, elementary, preparatory, and secondary stages were considered to be the main formal stages in public schools in Arab countries. The state of Qatar as a member of this league abided by this decision (Ministry of Education Report, 1985, cited in Abu Jalalah, 1993, p.57).

These stages, with the addition of a kindergarten stage, were arranged as follows (Al-Suwaidi, 2001):

1. Kindergarten: children aged 4-6 attended kindergartens as part of the pre-school programme which aimed at preparing them for the beginning of elementary education. The kindergartens, whether private or governmental, were controlled by the Ministry of Education, including their curricula and licensing.
2. Primary level: children entered this stage from 6 until 12 years of age, attending grades 1-6. Upon successful completion of primary level, children moved to the preparatory level.

3. Preparatory level: children attended this level at the ages of 12 until 14, in grades 7-9. The curricula at primary and preparatory levels were related to real-life experience in both theory and practice. Upon successful completion of the preparatory level, the children moved to the secondary level.
4. Secondary level: children at this level were aged 15-18, attending grades from 10-12. At grade 11, the students chose either science or arts specialisations.

After the Ministry of Education took charge of education in Qatar, it provided all the text books and curricula, and all staffing decisions were completely in the hands of the Ministry. The system was completely centralized (Abu Jalalah, 1993). Furthermore, education up to university level, as well as student transport and textbooks were free of charge (Maarafi, 2004).

1.6 STATUS OF ENGLISH IN QATAR

The use of the English language in Qatar dates from as early as 1916, when a treaty was signed between Britain and Qatar. Later on, the English language became the language of communication between Qataris who were working in oil companies in Saudi Arabia and British or Indian colleagues. So, when those Qataris returned to Qatar, English phrases were introduced into society and some were adapted and adopted as part of daily communication. In the 1940s, when the oil industry started flourishing in Qatar, those Qataris returned to their country and brought with them words in the English language which they had learnt. Then, after Qatar gained its independence in 1971, English became even more important because of diplomatic relationships with other countries, especially in Europe. Furthermore, the development of the oil industry led to the development of international trade which also required knowledge of the English language. Recognizing the importance of the English

language, the Qatari government started sending its people to the UK to study different courses in order to learn the language as well to gain knowledge and experience in different fields, but mostly in those related to the oil industry. The British Council was also providing different language courses which helped many individuals to learn English. As the country was developing and opening up more to the world, many foreigners came to work in different sectors, such as banking, hotels, restaurants, and hospitals. Therefore, English was needed as a tool of communication. All of these events slowly led to the establishment of newspapers in English, for example the Gulf Times, and television channels and radio programmes in English. Although these media were intended for the English-speaking population who came to work in Qatar, they also helped Qataris to develop and improve their knowledge of English (Qotbah, 1990). In addition, the Ministry of Education offered scholarships to Qatari students to study abroad, mainly in the UK and USA (Maarafi, 2004; The Statistics Authority, 2009). However, the lion's share of the scholarships for Qatari students who study abroad went to Great Britain. According to the government's Annual Statistical Abstract (2009), out of 355 students who received scholarships to study in Anglophone countries between 2005-2008, 269 (75.77%) went to the UK (see Table 1.1). It should be noted here that this only included Ministry of Education students and does not include private individuals or those from the military or big companies such as oil or gas firms.

With regard to the school system, the importance of English was recognized in the early 1950s when it was set as part of the syllabus in one of the first informal schools, Al-Islah Al-Hamidiyya. Later on, English was included in the curriculum when the formal educational system was established (Qotbah, 1990). Until the year 2000, English as a subject was taught from the fifth grade at primary level until the end of secondary

education; however, from 2000, a decision was made to start English from grade one at primary level (Maarafi, 2004). Additionally, the establishment of Qatar University in 1973 paved the way for the English Unit and the Department of English and Modern European Languages to be opened, which helped English language teaching and learning to spread more in Qatar (Qotbah, 1990).

Table 1.1: Qatari students taking scholarships abroad by country, 2005-2008.

	Year & Gender	2008/2007		2007/2006		2006/2005	
Country		F	M	F	M	F	M
Gulf Countries		1	0	0	0	6	7
Saudi Arabia		1	0	0	0	0	3
Bahrain		0	0	0	0	4	1
United Arab Emirates		0	0	0	0	1	3
Oman		0	0	0	0	0	0
Kuwait		0	0	0	0	1	0
Arab Countries		0	2	1	3	7	31
Jordan		0	2	1	2	1	5
Egypt		0	0	0	1	5	20
Algeria		0	0	0	0	0	1
Syria		0	0	0	0	1	2
Lebanon		0	0	0	0	0	2
Morocco		0	0	0	0	0	1
European Countries		50	57	43	56	49	50
United Kingdom		49	46	41	48	41	44
France		1	9	0	3	3	1
Ireland		0	1	0	0	0	2
British Virgin Island		0	0	0	0	1	0
Sweden		0	1			1	0
Switzerland		0	0	0	0	1	0
Germany		0	0	2	4	3	3
Other		12	27	5	18	6	22
United States		10	26	3	15	3	20
Canada		0	0	0	1	0	0
Australia		1	1	1	2	1	2
Other		1	0	1	0	2	0
G.Total		63	86	49	77	68	110

(The Statistics Authority, 2009, p.149).

2 CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 MOTIVATION

This thesis addresses the issue of motivation in language learning, which Elliot and Dweck (2005) consider fundamental to student success. Moreover, Karlak and Velki (2015) state that motivation is a powerful factor in predicting foreign language learning success. This chapter begins by examining the concept of motivation, its definition and classification as well as various theories developed by Maslow, Gardner, Dörnyei, and others. It must be noted that motivation was not first studied in relation to language learning but was rather considered an important component of the overall learning process.

2.2 DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION

The etymology of the word ‘motivation’ derives from the Latin word ‘movere’ (Schunk et al., 2014, p.4), which means ‘to move’. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010, p.3) describe it as “what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expand effort and persist in action – such basic questions lie at the heart of motivation theory and research”. Dörnyei (1998) acknowledges that many teachers and researchers see motivation as one of the dominant factors behind students’ success when learning English as a foreign or second language.

As mentioned above, motivation has been an object of study by many scholars from different fields. Therefore, there are different definitions of motivation. Brown (2007, p.168) states that “undoubtedly the most frequently used catch-all term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task, motivation is a star player in the cast of characters assigned to second language learning scenarios around the world”. Dresd and Hall (2013) hold the view that motivation involves psychological mechanisms

which occur at the point when a person feels that s/he needs to fulfil his/her needs and as such, s/he starts working toward goal achievement.

Gardner (2010) defines motivation as a multi-faceted construct which encompasses behavioural, cognitive, and affective components. As Brown (2007, p.193) put it “they [Gardner and Lambert] defined motivation as a construct made up of certain attitudes”. Almost the same idea was expressed by Nolen-Hoeksema et al. (2009, p.359) who describe motivation as “a condition that energizes behavior and gives it direction”. Baker and MacIntyre (2003, p.72) believe that it “is the driving force that initiates learning in the first place and sustains learning when the situation becomes difficult”.

Gardner (1985a) expanded his initial definition by stating that motivation consists of effort (the effort that the learner would put into the task of learning a language), want (the learner’s desire and willingness to accomplish his or her goal), and in addition to these a positive affect which should be associated with learning a second language. Gardner (2010) maintains that these three features, effort, desire (want), and positive affect, are regarded as essential for educators in measuring learners’ motivation in order to distinguish those who are motivated from those who are less motivated. Nevertheless, Gardner (1985a) emphasizes that these factors on their own do not represent motivation unless integrated, where “the desire to achieve the goal and favourable attitudes toward the goal are linked with the effort or the drive” (p.11). A similar view is held by Wu and Lin (2014, p.785) who define motivation as “a desire to achieve a goal, combined with energy to work toward that goal”.

For Williams and Burden (1997), the description of motivation needs more elaboration. They find it to be a cognitive and emotional stimulation that triggers efforts and actions which lead to goal achievement. Another psycholinguist researcher, Dörnyei (1998), supports the idea that motivation is one of the main elements that determines success in foreign language learning because it represents a primary and driving force behind the learning process.

Moreover, Dörnyei (1998) emphasizes that having ability is not enough to achieve something unless it is accompanied by adequate motivation. He further illustrates that:

Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. (Dörnyei, 1998, p.117)

However, Dörnyei (2001a) and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) find motivation difficult to define when it comes to learning a target language, for several reasons. First of all, it is an abstract concept, which cannot be observed directly. Secondly, it is a multidimensional construct. Furthermore, they find it dynamic and subject to change, and therefore difficult to depict or to measure.

For Vallerand et al. (1987), motivation represents an aspect where individual differences must be taken into account that directly impact on levels of achievement. AlZayid (2012) states that motivation is the source of energy which enables learners to achieve their goals. This is in line with the view of Ormrod (2012) who notes that motivation represents a source of energy that fuels the behaviour of the student in a

certain direction. Guay et al. (2010, p.712) point out that “motivation is defined under SDT [Self-determination Theory] (Ryan & Deci, 2002) as the reasons that underlie behaviour”. Motivation is that will which emanates from inside an individual and pushes him or her towards their goal. A person who is intrinsically motivated in his or her field will work harder, and his/her comprehension and stamina for physical and mental effort will be much stronger. There is no doubt that motivation is a secret weapon for those high achievers in different fields of life, whether learning a language, doing business or even achieving the Nobel Prize. Of course, other factors for success are important, such as language aptitude, but in the long run these factors, whether material or biological, are inadequate without motivation. To sum up, from my own experience, a person who is intrinsically motivated in a certain subject or issue, even if it is not his or her specialty at university, would be difficult to compete with. Many theories of motivation in relation to foreign language acquisition in particular have been proposed, and these are discussed in detail in the following sections.

2.3 ATTITUDES

Gardner (1985a, p.8) points out that “the concept of attitude is complex, and many definitions have been proposed to describe its essence”. Lambert and Lambert (1973) describe an attitude as a cognitive and emotional approach to social events. Similarly, Bouhmama and Bouhmama (2015) comment that linguists believe that learning a language is greatly related to attitudes which concern the learners’ cognitions and behaviour toward the target language. Allport (1935) approached the concept of attitude in terms of cognitive aspects. For him, an attitude encompasses one’s psychological condition and previous experience that together create one’s responses to events and situations. This is in line with the view of Gardner (2010) who comments that social attitudes “are influenced by background characteristics, and experience in

the language learning situation can influence attitudes toward that situation” (p.46). Similarly, Rjosk et al. (2015) found that the instructional climate, which is influenced by the students-teacher relationship, affects students’ level of motivation in their lessons during the whole academic year.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) found that there is a positive correlation between students’ achievement and attitudes. Furthermore, Gardner went a step further by stating that attitudes are not directly related to achievement, but rather influence motivation itself; that is, attitudes function as motivational supports (Gardner, 1979). Additionally, as presented in his model in 1979 (see Figure 2.1), he claims “that the attitude serves to maintain the desire and effort in the long and tedious process of acquiring the language” (Gardner, 1979, p.206). In other words, an attitude is a cognitive variable (Gardner et al., 1985). Brown (2007) elaborates further in his explanation, saying that attitudes develop over time, starting in early childhood. He also points out that they are being shaped from different directions, first by the family, and then friends and society in general.

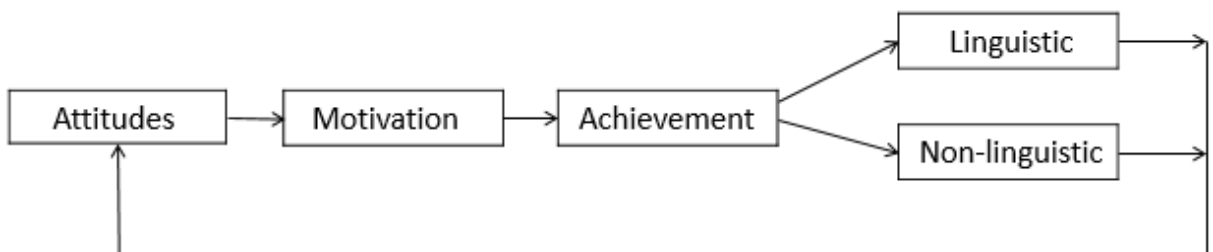


Figure 2-1: Schematic representation of the relationship of attitudes to motivation and achievement (Gardner, 1979, p.207).

The classification of the psychological functions of attitudes that may help individuals to gain psychological benefits can be summarised as follows (Herek, 1986, p.102):

- 1) Knowledge function: their function is to help categorize the world in a meaningful and consistent fashion, providing order, clarity, and stability in one's frame of reference.
- 2) Utilitarian or instrumental: their function is to help maximize rewards and minimize punishment from the environment.
- 3) Ego defense function or externalization: attitudes can be strategies for coping with anxiety generated by intrapsychic conflict.
- 4) Social adjustment function or mediation of self-other relationship: when attitudes mediate one's interpersonal relations.
- 5) Value-expressive function: attitudes that express values are important to one's self-concept.

To sum up, students' attitudes play a crucial role in improving learning and teaching outcomes, as suggested by Ahmed (2015). He further defines learners' attitudes "as a collection of feelings regarding language use and its status in the society" (Ahmed, 2015, p.6). Further discussion of the importance of attitudes, especially in second language learning (SLL) and foreign language learning (FLL), is provided in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

2.4 ANXIETY

Although there are many definitions and descriptions of anxiety, they are fundamentally the same. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, p.177) explain that "anxiety is a complex construct with several different facets". According to Spielberger (1966, p.17), anxiety represents a state where a person's "nervous system" is activated by certain disturbing events, and as a result, the person feels disturbed or worried. Other researchers describe anxiety as "a felt, affective, unpleasant state accompanied by a physical sensation that warns the person against impending danger" (Feist & Feist, 1997, p. 32).

However, Ormrod (2013) states that a small amount of anxiety is sometimes needed for some students to accomplish their tasks successfully. Not only does anxiety help them to complete their study requirements, but it also stimulates them to finish their tasks carefully. Similarly, Evans (1975, p.75) argues that subjects with high anxiety perform better than subjects with low anxiety “at simple verbal learning tasks”, but when it comes to more complicated tasks, the opposite is the case. By the same token, anxious learners do make more errors and overestimate the number of errors which they make, but at the same time they do correct themselves and codeswitch more frequently than non-anxious learners (Gregersen, 2003; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). However, the results of Gregersen, (2003) indicated that students who were highly anxious focused more on form rather than content.

Moreover, a study of 107 Taiwanese university students conducted by Wu and Lin (2014) showed that there was a negative relationship between anxiety about speaking a foreign language and the students’ willingness to communicate. As noted by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), psychologists divide anxiety into three kinds. Firstly, trait anxiety can be defined as an individual’s high possibility of becoming nervous and anxious in different events and situations. It has been confirmed by a great deal of research that trait anxiety can disrupt an individual’s cognitive functioning and memory span and leads them to avoid various different situations in life (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Brown (2007) adds that there are people who are by nature anxious and always worried about many things. Thus, he argues that “at the deepest, global, level, trait anxiety is a more permanent predisposition to be anxious” (p.161). Secondly, state anxiety is unlike trait anxiety in that it lasts for a markedly brief time. It is not a permanent trait of an individual’s personality, but involves fearful expectation or anticipation of

something at a specific moment in time; for example, as in the feelings experienced before examinations. Therefore, individuals who have a tendency to be anxious in general and whose level of trait anxiety tends to be high, would suffer high levels of state anxiety in stressful situations too. As a consequence of this, it is important for teachers, as Brown (2007, p.161) emphasizes, to “try to determine whether a student’s anxiety stems from a more global trait or whether it comes from a particular situation at the moment”. Thirdly, situation-specific anxiety is aroused by specific events or by specific situations; for example, speaking in front of the class, public speaking, or examinations (Ellis, 2008). The advantage of this approach to anxiety is that it delineates the situation of interest for participants. By doing so, the source of anxiety can be avoided (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

Trait anxiety appears to be an unclear and ambiguous term which is difficult to define. Therefore, it is not considered helpful in predicting foreign or second language achievement. To better understand foreign language anxiety in the academic and social context, Horwitz et al. (1986, p.127) classify the construct of anxiety into three issues:

1. Communication apprehension.
2. Test anxiety (fear of failure).
3. Fear of negative evaluation.

In the last twenty-five years, various studies have proven that foreign language anxiety is different from other types of anxiety and can have a negative or positive effect on the language learning process (Brown, 2007).

Spielberger (1966), Spielberger et al. (1967) and Spielberger et al. (1970) made a distinction between trait and state anxiety. According to them, trait anxiety can be viewed as a natural tendency to respond to different situations in the same manner

which can be seen as a relatively permanent characteristic of an individual's personality. Scovel (1978, p.137) defines it as "a more permanent predisposition to be anxious". State anxiety is instead felt at a specific moment in time under specific circumstances or events. Finally, situation-specific anxiety is associated with trait anxiety that reappears consistently in certain situations (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

To understand anxiety better, debilitating and facilitating anxiety can be differentiated. These are additional categories of anxiety that have been used by many researchers. Debilitating anxiety represents anxiety that has a negative effect on learners' performance (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). It stimulates learners to create avoidance behaviour and give up on new tasks more easily (Scovel, 1978). It is believed that the negative effects of the person's worries and feelings of unease are related to performance. Facilitating anxiety, on the other hand, has a positive effect on an individual. It pushes a learner to confront tasks without being afraid (Scovel, 1978). In the same way, Ellis (2008, p.694) explains that "facilitative anxiety leads to increased motivation with concomitant benefits for learning". It is a crucial aid for a learner to succeed in the learning task (Bailey, 1983). It "motivates the learner to 'fight' the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behaviour" (Scovel, 1978, p. 139).

Likewise, Oxford (1999, pp. 61-62) labels anxiety under two names: harmful and helpful anxiety. She lists five things that many studies have proved correlate negatively with anxiety. These are as follows: (1) grades in language courses; (2) proficiency test performance; (3) performance in speaking and writing tasks; (4) self-confidence in language learning; and (5) self-esteem. However, language anxiety is not always harmful. In fact, it can, sometimes, be 'helpful' and facilitating in learning tasks. Oxford

(1999, p.61) points out that a few studies found helpful anxiety to be related to three things: (1) high language proficiency and self-confidence among a hand-picked group of excellent language learners; (2) oral production of difficult English structures among native Arabic-speakers and Spanish-speakers; and (3) good grades in language classes but not for students in audiolingual classes.

Nevertheless, Young (1991, p.434) describes anxiety as “a complex, multidimensional phenomenon”. Additionally, Ganschow et al. (1994, p.44) argue that high anxiety may be “the result of native language problems” and not as proposed by some educators a cause of foreign language learning problems. According to Evans (1975), helpful anxiety only helps when it comes to simple learning tasks, but when it comes to a complicated task, such as in language learning, this is not the case.

In conclusion, anxiety, along with motivation and attitude, plays a significant role in language achievement in foreign and second language learning (Gardner, 1985a; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989). Gardner (2005) concludes that high levels of anxiety when learning a language can negatively influence the outcome and lead to poor achievement.

2.5 MASLOW’S THEORY OF MOTIVATION AND THE HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) was a well-known American psychologist who was one of the founders of the school of thought known as humanistic psychology. One of his contributions lies in the identification and classification of human needs in a five-level hierarchy (see Table 2.1), starting from basic so-called lower or deficiency needs and gradually moving toward the more complex needs that he called growth or higher needs (Schunk et al., 2014).

Table 2.1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (Schunk et al., 2014, p173).

Higher needs (growth)	5. Self-actualization needs—realization of one’s potential and capacities; comprehension and insight
Lower needs (deficiency)	4. Esteem needs—achievement; gain approval; recognition 3. Belongingness and love needs—love; affection; security; social acceptance; identity 2. Safety needs—security; protection from pain, fear, anxiety, and disorganization; shelter; dependency; order; lawfulness; rules of behavior 1. physiological needs—food; water; air; rest; etc.

Nevertheless, Maslow did not claim that each need must be completely fulfilled for the next need to become important. He was of the opinion that each need occurs as the previous ones have been fulfilled to a satisfactory extent (Chambers, 1999). Schunk et al. (2014) state that in the case of conflict between two needs, the lower need is always the dominant one. However, this hierarchy cannot be applied to all humans equally, since people differ in perceptions and levels of mental development. Maslow (1954, p.99) also points out that “when a need has been satisfied for a long time, this need may be underevaluated”. Another observation he made was that new needs generate new motivations. Furthermore, he believes that intrinsic motivation is superior to extrinsic motivation. This is logical in terms of the hierarchy of needs, where motivation depends on the satisfaction of the basic physiological needs (Brown, 2007). Interestingly, hunger and fear came in the same order in Maslow’s hierarchy as they had come in the Holy Quran around 1437 years ago. That is, the word fear comes after the word hunger on two occasions in the Holy Quran. It can be seen below from two verses of the Holy Quran that hunger (in the first level of Maslow’s hierarchy of

physiological needs) precedes fear (which is in the second level of Maslow's hierarchy of safety needs).

1. (الَّذِي أَطْعَمَهُمْ مِنْ جُوعٍ وَآمَنَهُمْ مِنْ خَوْفٍ) .

This verse was translated by Saheeh International (2011, p. 652) as “Who has fed them, [saving them] from hunger and has made them safe, [saving them] from fear” (The Qur'an, Surah Quraysh, Verse No: 4).

2. (وَضَرَبَ اللَّهُ مَثَلًا قَرْيَةً كَانَتْ آمِنَةً مُطْمَئِنَّةً يَأْتِيهَا رِزْقُهَا رَغَدًا مِنْ كُلِّ مَكَانٍ فَكَفَرَتْ بِأَنْعُمِ اللَّهِ فَأَذَاقَهَا اللَّهُ لِبَاسَ الْجُوعِ وَالْخَوْفِ بِمَا كَانُوا يَصْنَعُونَ).

This verse was translated by Saheeh International (2011, p. 260) as “And Allah presents an example: a city [i. e., Makkah] which was safe and secure, its provision coming to it in abundance from every location, but it denied the favors of Allah. So Allah made it taste the envelopment of hunger and fear for what they had been doing” (The Qur'an, Surah An-Nahl, Verse No: 112).

Oxford and Shearin (1994) claim that according to Maslow's hierarchy, learners of English as a foreign language and as a second language might have different motivations accompanying with their varying needs. In a foreign language setting, emotional and psychological security needs are more urgent than physiological or physical safety needs. Oxford and Shearin (1994) further point out that, in the foreign language classroom, non-physical safety and security needs may become salient. Therefore, students will not participate and take risks if they do not feel that they are psychologically secure. The psychological aspects of the second level in the hierarchy of needs are central for foreign language learners. Once those needs are satisfied then

they can move the higher levels in the hierarchy, to safety needs, then belongingness and love needs, and finally self-actualization needs. On the other hand, in the second language setting, learners' needs associated with learning the target language might start from the lowest levels of the hierarchy, where "even physiological, physical safety, and physical security needs might not be assured without the use of the target language" (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p.17).

2.6 INTRINSIC MOTIVATION/EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Vansteenkiste et al. (2006) believe that the concept of intrinsic motivation first emerged in the studies of Harlow (1953) and White (1959) in response to the behavioural theories which were dominant in the fifties. From that time, many definitions have been proposed. Theo et al. (1984) define intrinsic motivation as motivation that occurs when a person finds a task interesting and enjoyable, and because of that, gets involved in it. According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996), intrinsic motivation comes as a result of pure interest in a task. It might be because it is interesting, amusing, and rewarding in the sense of internal satisfaction. It is never related to external rewards or benefits. Moreover, according to Lemos and Veríssimo (2014), several studies have shown that there is a positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and students' academic achievement.

Intrinsic motivation is often defined as something that occurs because of the task itself and not for external prizes (Noels et al., 1999; Pintrich, 2000; Theo et al., 1984). Intrinsically motivated people have strong self-determination. This is congruent with a famous Arabic verse from a poem said to be composed by Prince Abdullah Al-Rasheed around 200 years ago. He said:

لا عاد ما مريز غتر بالاكباد (بالاولاد)... ترى الموصى يسفه (يذهل) اللي موصيه.

The simplest translation of this verse is that if the determination, desire or the will does not come from inside the individual himself or herself, then to encourage or advise or remind such a person would be useless. Similarly, Saleh (2015) conducted a study in Saudi Arabia and the United Kingdom to investigate the impact of different cultures on motivation. His interview results showed that students believed that intrinsic motivation is more powerful than extrinsic motivation. They commented that intrinsic motivation “motivates people to do something or to learn something” Saleh (2015. p.62).

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010), Dörnyei (2001a), Noels et al. (2000), Vallerand (1997), and Vallerand et al. (1992, 1993) have suggested three components which are influenced by the theory of intrinsic motivation. The first is intrinsic-knowledge which occurs when a person feels satisfaction when gaining new information or knowledge in a field of interest. Then, intrinsic-accomplishment takes place when a person is in the process of carrying out a task while facing different obstacles. Because he is managing to do it while facing obstacles, he feels self-satisfaction. The third component is intrinsic-stimulation, which refers to motivation that takes place during task execution when a person feels stimulated by performing the task.

Once a person starts a task s/he likes and feels capable of performing, then his or her performance becomes spontaneous to the extent that s/he becomes unaware of space and time elapsing. When a person’s mind or body (or both) is totally involved in a task and there are no worries about failing, with deep concentration, time passes quickly; thus, he or she is not aware of time. Such a state of mind was described by Csikszentmihalyi (1997) using the term ‘*flow*’. He defined this as “the holistic sensation that people feel when they act with total involvement” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, p.36). Csikszentmihalyi (1988, p.15) further concludes that these peaks of involvement

“produce intense feelings of enjoyment” and create “feelings of competence and efficacy” which lead to personal development (Csikszentmihalyi et al., 2005, p.603). Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi (2011, pp.195-196) identify the following six factors as encompassing an experience of flow.

1. Intense and focused concentration on the present moment.
2. Merging of action and awareness.
3. Loss of reflective self-consciousness (i. e., loss of awareness of oneself as a social actor).
4. A sense of personal control one’s actions; that is, a sense that one can in principle deal with the situation because one knows how to respond to whatever happens next.
5. Distortion of temporal experience (typically, a sense that time has passed faster than normal).
6. Experience of the activity as intrinsically rewarding, such that often the end goal is just an excuse for the process.

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is triggered by external stimuli; for example, a reward for the task performed. Although, at first thought, one might conclude that this kind of motivation lacks self-determination; however, the perception is different if approached from Deci and Ryan’s (1985b) point of view. They claim that “extrinsic motivation (EM) can be classified along a continuum according to the extent to which it is internalized into the self-concept (that is, the extent to which the motivation is “self-determined”)” (Noels et al., 2000, p.61).

Many studies (Deci & Ryan 1985b; Deci et al., 1991; Deci & Ryan 2000; Noels et al., 2000; Noels et al., 2003; Ryan & Deci 2000; Vallerand, 1997, 2004; Vallerand et al., 1992) recognize four types of extrinsic motivation (see figure 2.2) which result from the internalization process, starting from the least to the most autonomous. To begin with, external regulation is the least autonomous and self-determined type of extrinsic

motivation. That is, a person's behaviour is directed toward fulfilling a task because of an external reason such as for reward or to avoid punishment. Control is external; therefore, there is no self-determination. Then, in external regulation followed by introjected regulation, a person's behaviour is directed by imposed rules which he follows in order to avoid certain emotional states. This type is "more internalized into the self-concept"; however, "although the source of pressure is internal, it is not self-determined because the people are reacting to a pressure, not acting on the basis of personal choice" (Noels et al., 2000, p.62). This when a learner performs a task to heighten his or her self-esteem and feelings of worth such as to avoid guilt or anxiety or to gain ego-enhancements or pride. Next, identified regulation is a more autonomous and self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. At this level, a person recognizes the important behaviours of others and acknowledges them. This regulation through identification means that learning here is more autonomous or more self-determined. For example, when learners are involved in activities, they value their usefulness, such as when a student learns grammar because he or she knows it is relevant to oral proficiency, which he or she believes to be like a life goal. The value of this and similar learning activities has been perceived and the person has identified with the regulatory process. Fourthly, integrated regulation is the most autonomous and self-determined type of extrinsic motivation, where after acknowledging identified behaviours the person incorporates them into his/her own behaviour. Therefore, it has been argued that integrated regulation has some of the characteristics of intrinsic motivation in terms of being autonomous and also unconflicted.

Lemos and Veríssimo (2014) state that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can coexist and do not contradict each other. Furthermore, they point out that extrinsic motivation

in the long run may play a more debilitating role in learners' intrinsic motivation and achievement. Ryan and Deci (2000) emphasize the importance of understanding the different types of motivation (Figure 2.2) to help educators to enhance language learning.

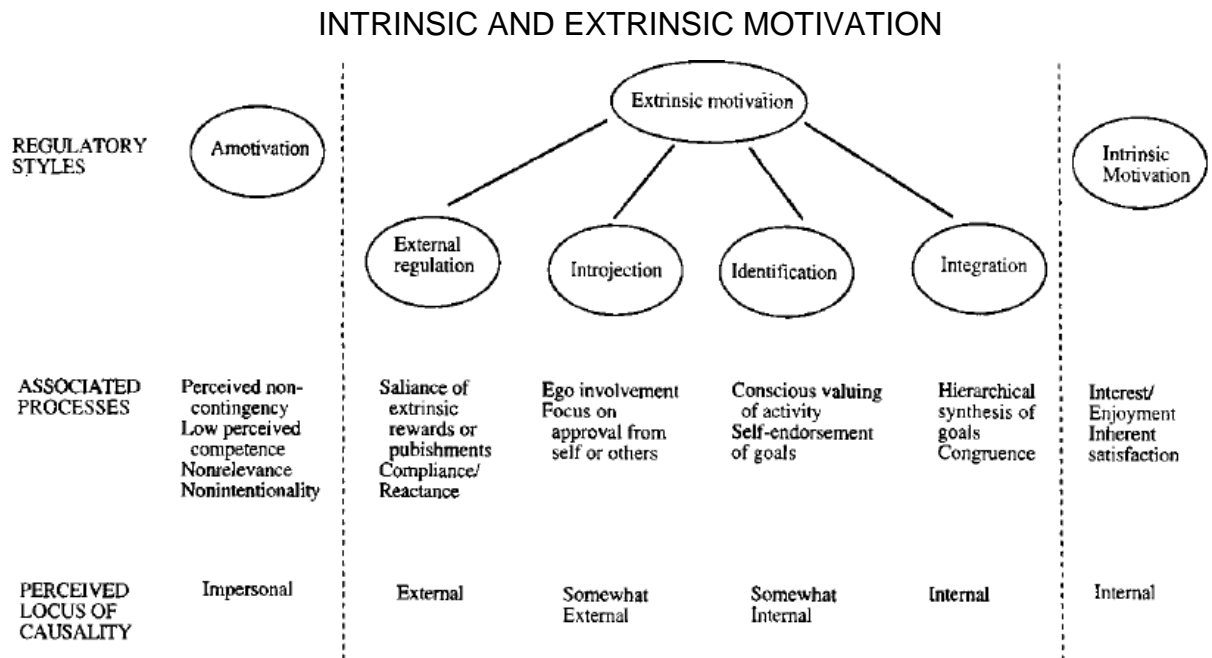


Figure 2-2: A taxonomy of human motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.61).

These levels range from the lowest to the highest levels of self-determination, starting from external regulation because it is directed purely by external stimuli (Noels, 2001). Some researchers such as Dörnyei (1990) argue that internal motivation is more important when it comes to language acquisition and proficiency. Although most of the literature about motivation revolves around intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, there is a third category called 'amotivation'. This term suggested by Deci and Ryan (1985b, 2000) refers to the lack of any motivation, whether intrinsic or extrinsic. Amotivation is a concept referring to a situation in which individuals see their behaviour as outside of their control and because of that, the outcomes have no relation to its consequences (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 1985a, 1985b; Noels et al., 2000). Moreover, individuals become

amotivated because they do not value an activity and they do not feel competent to perform that activity. They do not see any reason that might push them to perform the task either intrinsically or extrinsically. Such people feel they are incompetent to carry out a task successfully and would be expected to give up on a task quickly (Noels et al., 2001).

Pintrich and Schunk (2002, p. 245) are of the opinion that “intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are time and context dependent. They characterize people at a given point in time in relation to a particular activity”. Perhaps a first thought about intrinsic and extrinsic theories of motivation could be that they are different sides of the same coin. However, in fact quite the opposite is true and they are not mutually exclusive, as has been proved by various different studies. Brewer et al. (1988) support this claim, saying that both types of motivation play a role in a person’s performance. Furthermore, they state that “there are varying ratios of internal to external motivation which simultaneously influence an individual in a given motivational context” (p.152).

Also, a change might happen where a person who was initially extrinsically motivated becomes intrinsically motivated due to the arousal of interest in a task (Deci & Ryan, 2000). An important point to bear in mind is that an extrinsic reward, which leads toward extrinsic motivation, should be only a means to the transition towards intrinsic motivation. Lamb (2001) emphasizes that rewarding a student for his accomplishment should be done carefully, keeping in mind that the particular award should serve as a trigger for intrinsic motivation to take place. MacIntyre (2002, p.59) agrees with this view, calling it the “overjustification effect” or “the hidden cost of reward”. His paradox is that external rewards may damage pre-existing intrinsic motivation. Along the same

lines, Brophy (2010, p.131) notes that rewards can decrease the quality of performance and intrinsic motivation when rewards have the following three features:

1. High salience, which means that the rewards are very attractive or are presented in ways that call attention to themselves.
2. Noncontingency, which means that rewards are given only for participation in the activity, rather than being contingent on achieving the desired goal.
3. Unnatural/unusual, which means that the rewards are artificially tied to behaviour as control devices, rather than being natural outcomes of the behaviours.

There have been many debates on the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on learning outcomes. According to the findings of Deci and Ryan (2000), performance and outcomes tend to be better for those students who are intrinsically motivated because they tend to have more willingness, persistence, interest and self-determination since they work for long-term goals, unlike those whose extrinsic motivation leads them only toward the achievement of short-term goals. Intrinsically motivated students show better understanding and are open to challenges. Ur (1996) believes that global intrinsic motivation is part of the learners' attitudes. So, if a learner has a negative attitude toward learning, for example, the English language, his intrinsic motivation will be most likely to be low or non-existent. For that reason, a teacher should find a way to reach out to this student in order to help him develop motivation and confidence about it. If a student is self-confident and believes s/he can succeed, then it is expected that s/he would be more motivated, and therefore would invest more effort (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Ur, 1996). Brown (2014) concludes that intrinsically motivated students are more successful than extrinsically motivated ones.

It has been noticed that extrinsically motivated students prefer less difficult tasks that can be achieved easily (Nolen, 1988). An important point about rewards that trigger

extrinsic motivation is that teachers should try to make them effective and timely administer them in a timely manner. Apart from intrinsic and extrinsic sources of motivation, Fisher (1990) proposed an additional third source which is 'success in the task'. This is a combination of satisfaction and reward which comes after the successful completion of the task.

2.7 MOTIVATION AND ATTITUDES IN RELATION TO THE L2

Gardner's research concentrated on variables which are associated with second language learning. He was also more interested in the reasons why after enrolling in a course to learn a second language, some students are able to adopt it as a means of communication while others do not succeed in this (Gardner, 2010).

A positive attitude toward the target language community is seen as the cornerstone of the integrative motive. Therefore, individuals with positive attitudes in a multiethnic context will always try to keep in contact with members of the second language community (Clément et al., 1994). In a study of motivational variables in the second language acquisition of 75 English-speaking students, Gardner and Lambert's (1959) data analysis yielded two orthogonal variables which were related to the students' ratings of achievement in French language. As Gardner (1960) states these play a significant role in second language achievement. The first is aptitude and the second is a motivational factor which includes the individual's attitudes toward the language group, and a strong desire to learn the target language and to learn more about its members. Furthermore, Gardner (1985a) argues that students' attitudes toward the second language group are bound to affect their success in learning that language.

However, one variable stands out when it comes to performance and L2 acquisition, and that is motivation. Many studies have found that motivation is a major factor

affecting language acquisition (Gardner, 1985a, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003a; MacIntyre, 2002). Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p.65) describe motivation in relation to L2 as “the *dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out*” (italics in original). According to Norris-Holt (2001), motivation plays an important part in L2 achievement. Its significance is evident from Dörnyei’s (1998) statement that talent or ability is worthless if not accompanied by motivation. Similarly, Al Sowaidi (2015, p.103) states that “motivation and a sense of responsibility could have a major influence on the receptive ability of students”. Dörnyei (2005) additionally states that high level of motivation can help a person succeed even if faced with learning difficulties or lack of language aptitude. Another perspective was expressed by Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005, p. 23) who drew attention to motivational change and noted that:

Even during a single L2 course one can notice that language-learning motivation shows a certain amount of changeability, and in a context of learning a language for several years, or over a lifetime, motivation is expected to go through very diverse phases.

Research has shown that motivation and attitudes play a direct role in learning in general and second/foreign language learning in particular (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). A very interesting point mentioned by Gardner (1985a) relates to language acquisition and language learning contexts. He states that in an informal learning context, motivation is more important than language aptitude. However, motivation does not stand alone, but it is anchored by other components, such as attitudes. This is in line with Gardner’s (2010, p.159) view that:

The major affective factor in predicting achievement is motivation and that the relations between achievement and each of the other two major components, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation, is mediated by motivation.

Moreover, Gardner and Lambert (1972) conclude that students with positive attitudes and motivation towards second/foreign language are more successful in learning the language than students whose attitudes are less positive and whose motivation is lower. Their results from a Louisiana sample showed that “achievement was largely associated with favourable attitudes toward the French community” there (Gardner, 2010, p.38). In addition, Gardner (1985a) argues that instructional approaches and teachers have the ability to stimulate and increase students’ positive attitudes toward learning the target language. Moreover, it must be mentioned that some research studies suggest that attitudes toward L2 learning are “independent of intelligence ... and language aptitude” (Gardner, 1985a, p.45).

As for motivation, Dörnyei’s (1994) study based on Clément et al’s (1994) research showed that motivation related to language learning can be classified into three categories or ‘levels’. The language level is related to the pragmatic value of knowing that language and various aspects associated with being proficient in that language such as its culture and the community in which this L2 is spoken. Then, the learner level is related to the personal characteristics of the learner that brings him or her to the learning situation. Thirdly, the learning situation level is related to the motivational conditions which are derived from the learning environment, such as the teacher’s way of teaching, the syllabus, and the classroom structure (Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010).

Oxford and Shearin (1994) investigated motivational theories well-known in industrial psychology, educational psychology, and cognitive developmental psychology. They claim that need theory, reinforcement theory, equity theory, instrumentality theory, and the cognitive developmental theories of Piaget (1979, 1955) and Vygotsky (1978), “have not yet been directly applied to the L2 field” (Oxford and Shearin, 1994, p.13). Oxford and Shearin (1994) then suggested some practical implications which they hoped teachers could apply in their teaching environments to heighten the students’ motivation so that the teaching methods used would achieve their goals. They clarify that these would complement Gardner’s model. Moreover, concerning encouragement and promoting student motivation in the learning environment, they stress the importance of knowing “the source of the motivation” because “without knowing where the roots of motivation lie, how can teachers water those roots?” (Oxford and Shearin, 1994, p.15). Their suggestion can be summarised in the following points:

1. Teachers should identify if their students are studying the new language due to integrative or instrumental motivation.
2. Teachers can distinguish between foreign and second language and their different clusters of motivation.
3. Teacher should be aware that students’ motivation can change over time; therefore, they should create activities for their students to sustain the highest possible motivation.
4. Teachers can shape their students confidence and belief about success or failure.
5. Teachers can help their students to meet realistic and challenging goals through learner training in goal-setting and self-assessment.
6. Teachers can learn to accept students with different abilities, levels, and goals, where some students are more ambitious than others, some want to develop their reading skills and others want to develop their speaking skills.
7. Teachers can make the L2 closer to students by promoting its importance in different ways. For example, they can inform them of the importance of English

in their career enhancement and also as a language which can be regarded as a key to communication with other cultures and different groups.

8. Teachers can make their classrooms welcoming environments where psychological needs are met and the students' anxiety is kept to a minimum.
9. Teachers can invite native speakers to the classroom to participate and have conversations and debates with the L2 learners so that such activities would have a positive impact on the learners.
10. Teachers can use extrinsic rewards as part of the L2 teaching strategy, but they can also urge their students to build their own intrinsic reward system.

A vast amount of research has been conducted on attitudes and motivation and their relationship to language achievement. Various factors are believed to influence the relationship between language achievement, attitudes and motivation, either positively or negatively. These include sex, language aptitude, target language community, upbringing/parental influence, and anxiety.

In many studies of motivation and language learning, it has been concluded that girls have more positive attitudes toward language achievement than boys (Burstall, 1975; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Ghazvini & Khajehpour's, 2011; Solak, 2012). Gardner (1985a) points out that when it comes to attitudes toward learning a second language, sex differences research has shown that girls tend to show more positive attitudes than boys and the differences between the sexes is usually found to be significant. Similarly, Ellis (2008, p.313) claims that females "nearly always outstrip males in the standardness of their speech and use of prestige forms, and yet they also tend to be in the forefront of linguistic change". As for language aptitude, Gardner and Lalonde's (1985) study shows that it positively correlates with language achievement. Gardner (1979) further points out that intelligence concerns a general level of abilities which help learners to understand a given task and to learn, whereas on the other hand language

aptitude refers to a natural ability to learn a second language. A major assumption of the socio-educational model is that “achievement in the second language is mediated by two relatively independent variables, ability (language aptitude) and motivation” (Gardner, 2010, p.26). Furthermore, Gardner (2010) adds that whether or not an individual with language aptitude and intelligence decides to take advantage of these potential characteristics is determined mostly by motivation and situational anxiety. In other words, Gardner maintains that motivation plays a significant role in both formal contexts such as the classroom and informal contexts, but aptitude has an influence only on formal contexts. Similarly, Brown et al. (2001) remark that, regardless of language aptitude, research shows that integratively motivated individuals are more likely to succeed in learning another language. Furthermore, Carroll (1962) believes that intelligence and language aptitude are different concepts, and Gardner and MacIntyre (1992, p.213) agree that “language aptitude and intelligence are two different but related concepts”. Moreover, Skehan (1991, p.276) points out that to talk about language aptitude implies that “there is a talent for learning languages that is independent of intelligence”. In the same vein, Sparks and Ganschow (1991, p.4) state that studies of “relationships between intelligence and FL ability show that IQ is not a critical variable in determining FL learning potential”. However, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) point out that intelligence and language aptitude can be expected to correlate strongly but not perfectly. They conclude that “the complex of general intelligence and the complex of language aptitude share definite commonalities but do not coincide completely” (p.41). In regard to their relationship, they advise researchers to use the term *interaction* instead of *independent*. Nevertheless, some studies such as that by Ushioda (2001) suggests that cognitive factors such as ability or aptitude do not provide

a sufficient explanation for how some learners can learn a foreign or second language faster or more easily than others.

As for Gardner:

Language aptitude, though correlated with intelligence, is defined as a series of verbal and cognitive abilities ... that would play a role in language learning in that individuals with high levels of ability would be able to generalize these abilities to the new language (Gardner, 1985a, p.147).

Similarly, Carroll (1962, 1964) states that since aptitude is a complex of variables, it can be tested in terms of four components which are phonetic coding, grammatical sensitivity, rote memory for foreign language materials, and inductive language learning ability. Gardner (1985a, p.24) points out that the “measures of language aptitude are dependent upon acquired knowledge ... but this does not rule out an innate component”. In other words, Carroll (1974) presents language aptitude as a factor that involves both nature as innate abilities and nurture or acquired knowledge (Gardner, 1985a). Gardner further argues that accepting that learning a second language is mediated by specific abilities leads to two questions. The first question is if it is possible to develop a teaching course to capitalize on learners’ abilities. The second question is if it is possible to tailor a course to compensate for learners’ specific inabilities (Gardner, 1985a). Gardner (2001) then points out that motivation and language aptitude are the dominant factors in language achievement (see figure 2.3). He also illustrates how integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation could affect language achievement either positively or negatively. He mentions that there is evidence that achievement in second language learning is always associated with the two variables of language aptitude and motivation. Gardner argues in his 2000 model that integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation function as supporters of

motivation, while motivation and language aptitude are regarded as direct reasons for achievement in the second language (Gardner, 2000). Dörnyei (2005, p 65), however, adds that “motivational factors can override the aptitude effect”. According to Dörnyei and Skehan (2003), foreign language aptitude (FLA) refers to a person’s ability to learn/acquire a second/foreign language without many difficulties or faster than others who do not have FLA. Yet one would presume that not all of those who have FLA are equally talented.

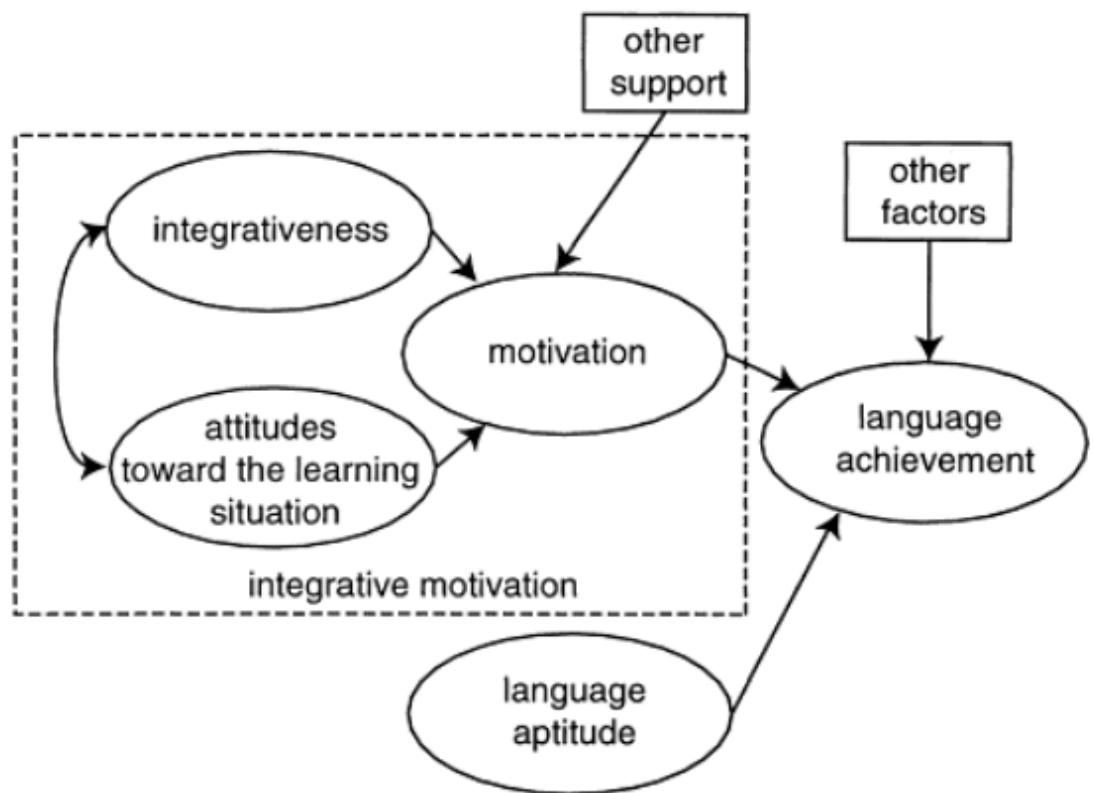


Figure 2-3: Basic model of the role of aptitude and motivation in second language learning (Gardner, 2001, p.5).

In certain contexts, attitudes toward the target language community have been found to be influential, whereas in some other contexts these attitudes do not seem to play a role (Clément et al., 1977; Dörnyei, 1990; Lambert et al., 1963). As for parental influence/upbringing, research has shown that attitudes toward a target language

depend on whether or not the parents of the children are positive about it. Parents represent a very influential factor in attitude formation, in general, and toward the target language learning in particular (Schunk et al., 2014; William & Burden, 1997). Parental influence is considered to be crucial to children's positive attitudes toward second/foreign language achievement. According to Gardner and Lambert (1968) and Gardner (1985a), some parents have an active role and others are passive. The former consciously support and encourage their children to progress in language learning. This support and encouragement comes in different forms, for example following up closely the child's progress, emphasizing how important it is to speak a foreign language, and so on. Gardner (2010, p.128) comments that "because the learning of a second language is a school subject, parents might encourage their children to do well (the active role)". On the other hand, some parents do not find language learning to be as useful as other subjects. Therefore, they do not encourage their children to learn the target language, whereas, for example, science subjects are more appreciated and they do encourage their children to excel at them. Gardner (2010, p.128) explains that "because of various social factors, they might openly question why their children are learning a language (that they might never use) rather than spending more time on other important school subjects such as mathematics, history, science, etc. (the passive role)". Regarding the passive role, parents are sometimes not aware of it, but their attitude toward a target language community may create a picture in the children's mind about that community's language. Parents who have a positive attitude toward a target language community indirectly influence their children to develop positive attitudes toward the language. In addition, this contributes to developing an integrative motive in the children. Gardner (1985a, p.118) comments that students "who were instrumentally orientated and who had parents who expressed a similar orientation

were more proficient in some oral language skills than integratively orientated students". Furthermore, research by Oskamp (1991) suggests that parental attitudes have an impact on children's informational input, and therefore children's attitudes are greatly shaped by parents. This reflects the suggestion of Maarafi (2004, p.69) that "when children are raised in a home that nurtures a sense of self-worth, competence, autonomy, and self-efficacy, they will be more able to cope with the challenges involved in learning". Finally, anxiety (see section 2.4) is another factor which plays an important role in the learning process. Along with motivation and other variables, it influences target language acquisition (Gardner, 1985a, 1988; Skehan, 1991). As Gardner (2005) argues there is a strong tendency that a high level of anxiety would probably lead to poor language achievement. Language anxiety and situational anxiety, in particular, have been defined by MacIntyre et al. (1998) as feelings of being uncomfortable or scared when learning a foreign language. As previously mentioned, anxiety can be classified into three categories: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). Ehrman (1996, p.148) suggests that "for the purposes of working with students having learning difficulties", all forms of learning anxiety should be seen as state anxiety, since this can help teachers and students to take a different and more relaxed approach toward solving and overcoming anxiety. Furthermore, Ehrman (1996) distinguishes between debilitating and facilitating anxiety. He sees trait anxiety and state anxiety as debilitating conditions, which impede learning the target language, whereas facilitating anxiety encourages learners and "mobilizes resources" to finish the task and thus has a positive effect on learners (Ehrman, 1996, p.148).

2.8 GARDNER'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Gardner's interest in second language acquisition started in the 1950s when he was undertaking his Master's degree. According to him, it began at McGill University in 1956

when he was discussing issues regarding his dissertation with Wally Lambert. During their discussion, Gardner exclaimed with surprise 'how can someone learn other people's language if he or she does not like them?'. From this, he found with the help of Lambert a topic for his Master's dissertation (Gardner, 2000). As his interest started, it kept developing and continues to be researched until the present day.

Dörnyei (2005, pp.66-67) and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010, pp.39-40) maintain that there have been three distinct phases in the history of L2 motivation research:

1. The social psychological period (1959–1990): marked by the work of Robert Gardner and his associates in Canada.
2. The cognitive-situated period (the 1990s): marked by the onset of cognitive theories in educational psychology.
3. The process-oriented period (from the 1990s till the present day): marked by an interest in motivational change.

The beginnings of motivation research studies were in 1959 when Gardner and Lambert undertook an investigation into attitudes and motivation in L2 learning. However, it was in 1972, after research conducted in Canada, that Gardner's socio-psychological model finally saw the light of day. Dörnyei (2003a, pp.4-5) notes that "Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972) viewed L2s as mediating factors between different ethnolinguistic communities in multicultural settings". Learning a new language is a deeply social event which involves a range of social and cultural elements of the target language community (Dörnyei, 2001b). What is unique in Gardner and Wallace's (1972) work is the emphasis that learning an L2 is unlike learning any other subject since it involves the presence of the target language culture (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 2010). Gardner (2009, p.14) further explains that second language learning "involves the acquisition of material that characterizes another

cultural community, and as such is different from other aspects of school learning". To acquire knowledge of the L2, it is stated that a learner must be willing "to identify with members of the other linguistic-cultural group and be willing to take on very subtle aspects of their behavior such as their language or even their style of speech" (Lambert, 1963, p.115). Also, it was proposed at the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages in 1977 that the new language should be seen and dealt with as a unity of its history and nature along with its relationship to the culture, acquisition and usage (Gardner, 1985a).

Williams and Burden (1997) state that the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1979, 1985a) is one of the most influential models in the social psychology of language (see figure 2.4). The main importance of this model lies in its clear separation of four distinct variables of the target language learning process (Gardner, 1985a, pp.146-150). The first variable is the social milieu which refers to cultural beliefs in relation to the importance and meaningfulness of learning a language. The second variable is learner variables/individual differences, including intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and language anxiety. Gardner (1985a), states that intelligence represents the ability to understand or learn something quickly. He claims that language aptitude represents a combination of language skills and individual factors that contribute to the ability to acquire any language. To him, motivation is a combination of efforts, desires and affects. Therefore, "the motivated individual is one who wants to achieve a particular goal, devotes considerable effort to achieve this goal, and experiences satisfaction in the activities associated with achieving this goal" (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a, p.2). He maintains that language anxiety is an important variable because it has a detrimental effect on language acquisition (Gardner, 1985a).

However, it is important to note that Gardner and MacIntyre (1992, p.212) also comment that “there are probably as many factors that might account for individual differences in achievement in a second language as there are individuals”.

The third variable is the language acquisition context which, according to Gardner (1985a), may be formal or informal. A formal context is the classroom where instruction is the primary objective. The language is learnt by means of instruction and teaching. Informal contexts are those where the language is learnt outside the classroom, and learners are exposed to it in many different ways, for example by watching a film, listening to the radio, or speaking to native speakers of the target language. However, Saleh (2015) found that international students studying in the United Kingdom do not have sufficient exposure to the target language despite living in the target language environment. Nevertheless, Gardner (1985a) stresses that learning another language is not the same as studying other subjects at school. He indicates that when learners learn another language, they do not learn only the language but also the behaviour patterns which are characteristic of that cultural community. He further argues that individuals who are “high in ethnocentrism or authoritarianism would have difficulty making something characteristic of another group part of themselves” (Gardner, 2010, p.82). The fourth variable is learning outcomes, which can be linguistic and non-linguistic. The linguistic outcomes include vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and other language skills, while non-linguistic outcomes are cultural beliefs or values, the self-concept, attitudes, motivation and interest, which develop with experience (Gardner, 1985a).

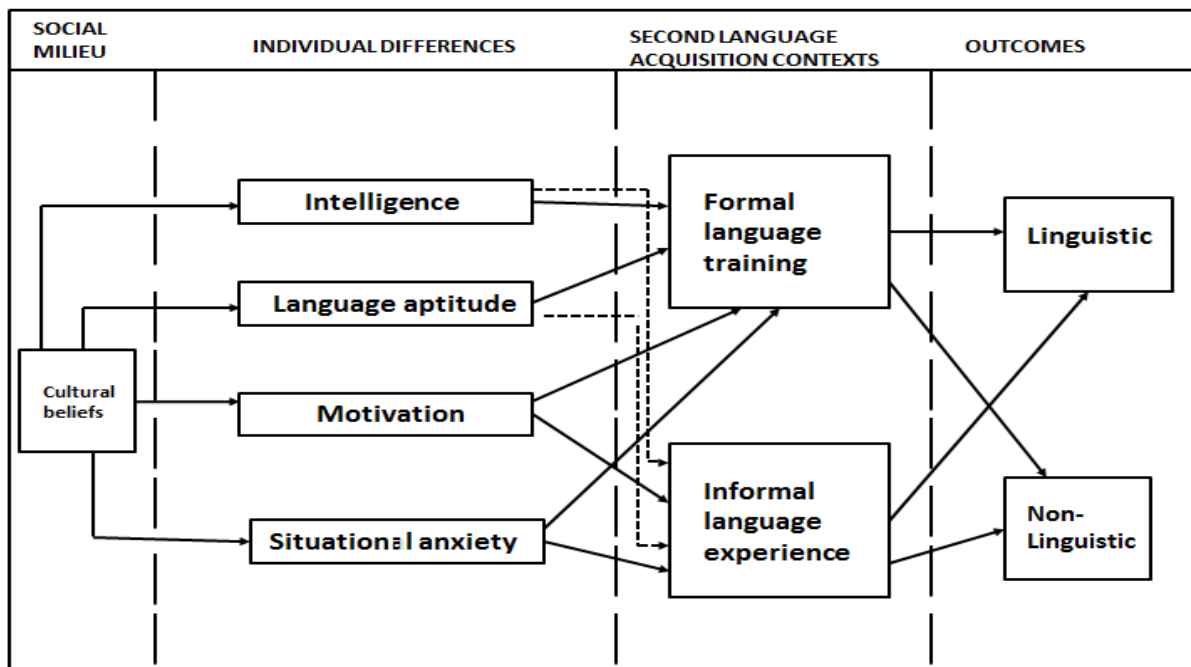


Figure 2-4: Schematic representation of the theoretical model of Gardner (1985a, p.147).

2.9 INTEGRATIVE MOTIVE

In his socio-educational model, Gardner uses the term 'integrative motivation', and this concept is seen by many authors "as its central feature and key individual-difference variable" (MacIntyre et al., 2003, p.142). It consists of three components: integrativeness, motivation, and attitudes toward the learning situation (see figure 2.5). The first component of integrativeness refers to an affective dimension (Gardner, 2005) and involves an integrative orientation in individuals' positive attitudes and openness toward a target culture (Gardner, 2001). However, Dörnyei (2005) insinuates that the term integrative is not easy to interpret because of its different terminological uses (integrative orientation, integrativeness, and integrative motive/integrative motivation). Also, the sub-component 'motivation' causes confusion and misunderstandings because motivation is included in the overall construct of integrative motivation, and at the same time as a distinct subcomponent. In fact, Gardner (2005, p.7) himself

comments that integrativeness as a term is giving “a lot of people a hard time” and is confusing. In spite of this, he believes that the concept itself is not difficult to understand. He has clarified this as follows:

The variable Integrativeness reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community. At one level, this implies an openness to, and respect for other cultural groups and ways of life. In the extreme, this might involve complete identification with the community (and possibly even withdrawal from one’s original group), but more commonly it might well involve integration within both communities (Gardner, 2001, p.5).

As for the integrative orientation, which is a subcomponent of integrativeness, this provides reasons or explanations for why a person is learning a target language for the purpose of becoming closer to the target language community (Gardner, 1985a). Furthermore, Gardner (2001) defines it as a desire to become close to or part of another cultural group and to achieve that language serves as a facilitator. The second component of the integrative motive is attitudes toward the learning situation which refers to attitudes toward the school and teachers or reactions to textbooks or other materials (see section 2.10). The third component is motivation, which concerns the effort exerted to learn the material, the desire for and attitudes toward learning that target language. As stated by Rjosk et al. (2015, p.1171), “motivation is one of the main forces driving learning”.

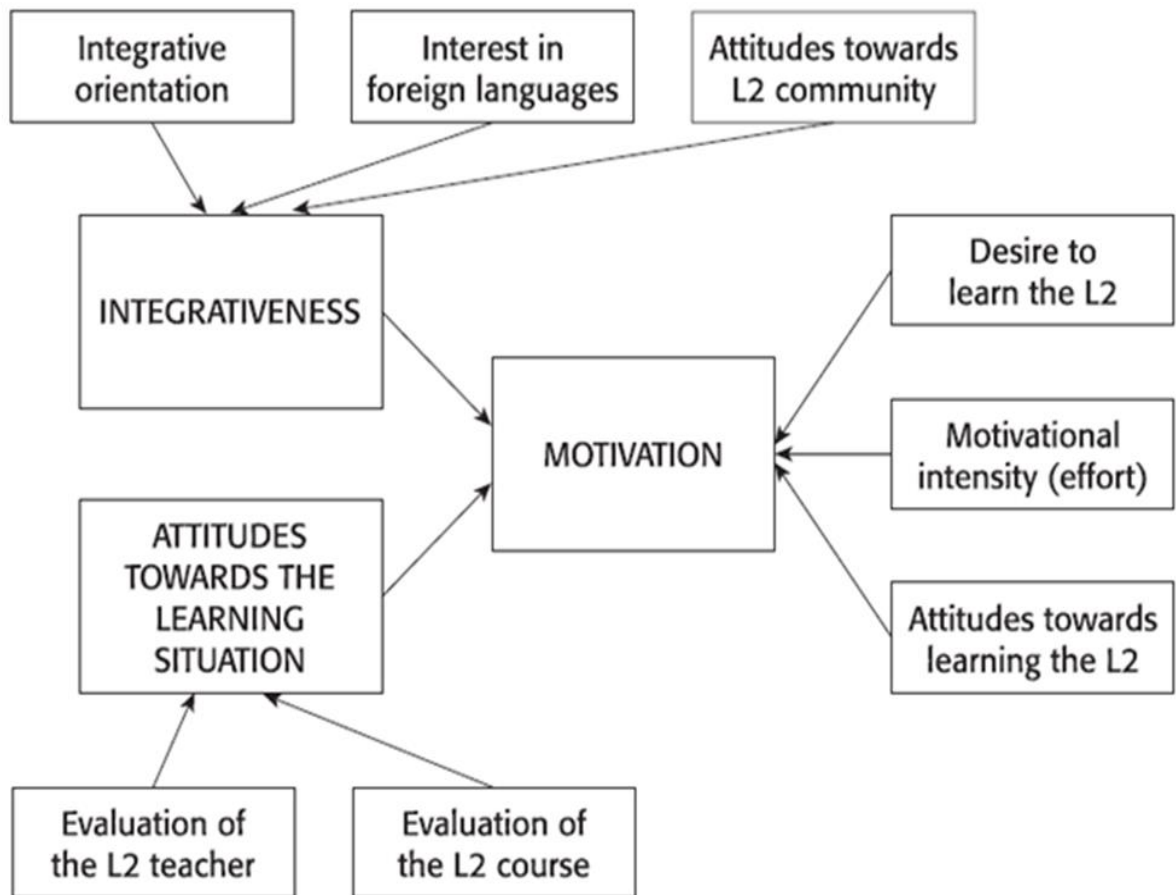


Figure 2-5: Gardner's conceptualization of the integrative motive (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p.42).

From research that has studied these components, the following conclusions have been drawn. A student who has high levels of integrativeness and good attitudes toward the learning situation, but whose motivation is low, will probably not reach a high level of target language proficiency. The same formula applies to a student with negative attitudes toward the learning situation and low integrativeness but with high motivation. S/he will not be able to exhibit a high level of motivation consistently (Gardner, 1985a, 2001, 2006, 2010).

Through the socio-educational model, we can recognize two things about motivation. First of all, it is a cause of learning behaviour. In addition, it represents the effects of

cognitive and affective factors (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). This is in line with Dörnyei's (2005, p.65) view when he claims that:

Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions.

However, since its first publication, the socio-educational model has been subject to many alterations. It is strongly criticised for concentrating on a social milieu without addressing the L2 within the classroom context or cognitive factors (Dörnyei, 1994). In addition, due to the lack of appreciation of that context, classroom applications were not explained (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). This is supported by Dörnyei (2003a), who claims that Gardner's approach presents a 'macro perspective' only.

The most thorough analysis of Gardner's model was conducted by Au in 1988. Going through fourteen studies by Gardner and his associates, he found that seven of them showed a nil relationship between integrative motivation and L2 achievement, and four showed a negative relationship between at least some integrative motive measures and L2 achievement. Au (1988, pp.77-78) concluded with five major reflections on the most important concepts of Gardner's model:

1. The integrative motive hypothesis- integrative motive is positively related to L2 achievement.
2. The cultural belief hypothesis- cultural beliefs within a particular milieu could influence the development of the integrative motive and the extent to which the integrative motive relates to L2 achievement.
3. The active learner hypothesis- integratively motivated L2 learners achieve high L2 proficiency because they are active learners.

4. The causality hypothesis- integrative motive causally affects L2 achievement.
5. The two-process hypothesis- linguistic aptitude and integrative motive constitute two independent factors affecting L2 achievement.

Au (1988) concluded his criticism of the concept of the integrative motive by claiming that:

Only a minority of these studies found modest, positive relationships between some aspects of the integrative motive and L2 achievement. That the integrative motive hypothesis lacks generality is now firmly established (Au, 1988, p.83).

For this reason, Gardner conducted a further study to defend his model and to show the considerable empirical support which exists for the role of integrative motivation in second language acquisition. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 75 studies, with samples of a total of 10,489 students. Analysis of these studies revealed that the highest correlations found were between motivation and the three measures of proficiency: grades, objective measures, and self-ratings. Secondly, the analysis showed that the correlations between attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness, and the aforementioned three measures of proficiency were the lowest, whereas the means for integrative and instrumental orientations were in between (Gardner, 2010).

In addition, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) remark that two of the fourteen studies Au (1988) considered were not included in their meta-analysis; the first because Gardner was not one of the authors and was not involved in the execution of the study, and the second because it did not include any measure of motivation. Furthermore, Au largely depended on isolated results. Moreover, it was pointed out that Au's conclusions from

the findings tended to depend on what Au thought is relevant to integrative motivation instead of hard evidence of the association between the variables in the studies. Finally, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) asserted that Au (1988) had reviewed 12 studies conducted by other researchers and that 11 of those studies had nothing to do with integrative motivation as presented in the socio-educational model. Not only that, but none of the measures of integrative motivation in these studies displayed a high coefficient of reliability, which was the case in Masgoret and Gardner's (2003) meta-analysis. Masgoret and Gardner's (2003) conclusion was that Au's (1988) statement that integrative motive hypothesis lacks generality, was "suspect, to say the least" (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003, p.156).

Ellis (2008) comments that the results of the meta-analysis by Masgoret and Gardner in 2003 show that there is consistency in the relationship between measures of achievement and the three constructs of integrative motivation. He further adds that it shows that the measure of motivation is more strongly related to achievement than the other two constructs in integrative motivation which are integrativeness, and attitudes toward the learning situation. Accordingly, he concludes that "the meta-analysis supports the claim that integrative motivation is an important factor in L2 achievement" (p.682). Finally, Ellis (2008) concludes that most of the theories or research of motivation include the notion of motivation in one way or another. Similarly, Gardner (2010) points out that although studies such as those by Kraemer (1993), Yashima (2002), and Yashima et al. (2004) were conducted in different cultural contexts, the overall nature of these studies is reflected in the construct of integrativeness in the socio-educational model which is concerned with the students' willingness and emotional ability to learn a foreign or second language. This is supported by Kraemer

herself who states that “the Social/Political Attitude-Integrative Orientation link corresponds to Gardner’s *integrativeness* construct [italics in original]” (Kraemer, 1993, p.98). Moreover, Yashima (2002) points out that the psychological tendency/the international posture is believed to influence the learners’ communication behaviour and to affect the learning of another language. In conclusion, the characteristics of international posture (Yashima, 2002) and social/political attitude (Kraemer, 1993) are reflected in the construct of integrativeness in Gardner’s socio-educational model, which reflects its multifaceted nature.

2.10 INTEGRATIVE AND INSTRUMENTAL ORIENTATIONS

These two orientations were identified by Gardner and his colleagues. In the literature, this pair of concepts is known as the ‘integrative and instrumental dichotomy’. According to Gardner (1985a, p.54), in this context “orientation refers to a class of reasons for learning a second language”, and Gardner (2010) further defines orientation as the underlying power that directs one’s choice for a particular reason.

After revisiting the work conducted on this issue, Gardner (2001) suggests that researchers should focus more on motivation than on orientation. His explanation was that there was not enough evidence that points at orientations being directly related to success in second language learning. Moreover, orientations are reasons for studying language and, as such, they are not directly responsible for language achievement (Gardner, 2001). The instrumental orientation refers to an attitude which is pragmatic in nature and sees learning the L2 as a tool towards getting a better job or position. Similarly, Arifin et al. (2014) define instrumental orientation as existing when a learner’s aim is to learn the target language in order to pass an exam, be able to read or to improve one’s career. On the other hand, the integrative orientation reflects a positive

attitude toward the target language community, sometimes even to the extent that a learner wants to interact with it or even become a member of the target language group or community (Gardner, 1985a, 2007). Moreover, integrative motivation occurs when the learner has a positive attitude toward elements of the second/foreign language. Gardner (1959-1972) and his associates were particularly interested in integrative motivation, and they believed that it was dominant. Gardner and Lambert (1972) found in a study of high school students studying French in Louisiana (USA), where there was an obvious French heritage, "that achievement was largely associated with favorable attitudes toward the French community" (Gardner, 2010, p.38). A similar view is held by Lyon (1996) who comments that the integrative factor is stronger than the instrumental factor. Also, the research of Gardner and his associates in Canada over a period of 12 years confirmed that too. Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that the students who participated in this study were learning French as a second language in Canada where French is an official language and the Canadian students who started learning it were already exposed to it in one way or another (Chambers, 1999).

On the other hand, Al-Khasawneh and Al-Omari's (2015) research in Jordan showed that the integrative motivation was not as important as the instrumental motivation, since knowing the English language there was regarded as an essential element in career progression. The same conclusion was reached in India (Lukmani, 1972). Also, in Pakistan, a study conducted by Rehman et al. (2014) showed that Pakistani students' instrumental motivation was much higher than their integrative motivation. Similarly, Fat (2004) reached the same conclusion in her study in Hong Kong which focused on the relationship between integrative motivation and second language achievements in Chinese secondary school male students. Their average age was 15

years old, and she used a mixed methods approach including interviews and questionnaires which showed that students were more instrumentally than integratively motivated toward English language learning.

Dickinson (1995) relates instrumental orientation to extrinsic motivation, whereas he links integrative orientation to intrinsic motivation. Schmidt et al. (1996) also claim that extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are somewhat similar to instrumental and integrative distinction, but they are not identical. Furthermore, it has been proposed that instrumental and integrative motivation can be seen as subtypes of extrinsic motivation because both are concerned with goals or outcomes. Similarly, Gardner (2010) states that “at one level, therefore both an integrative and an instrumental orientation can be viewed as reflecting extrinsic reasons for learning the other language” (p.32).

However, Brown (2007) and Lamb (2004) opposed the separation of these two orientations. They believe that instrumental and integrative orientations are almost indistinguishable, especially due to the globalization process that has led English to no longer be associated with a particular community or country. In other words, English is no longer associated only with Anglophone countries (Lamb, 2004). A similar stance is taken by Brown (2007) who states that integrative and instrumental motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive (see Table 2.2). In the same vein, Gardner (2010) notes that if these two variables are measured statistically, it can be expected that they would correlate positively. Reviewing many studies concerning integrative and instrumental motivation, Brown (2007) concludes that both integrative and instrumental orientations are important factors for a learner to succeed in language learning, “and the degree of impact of either orientation will depend on individual learners, educational contexts, cultural milieu, teaching methodology, and social interaction” (Brown, 2007, p.172).

Under these circumstances, Dörnyei (2010) criticizes Gardner for not giving enough explanation of the nature and impact of instrumental motivation. Instead, he concentrates on the interpersonal aspects of motivation that he called “integrativeness”. Moreover, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) explain that instrumental motivation needs to be seen as two distinct types, which are instrumental motives with a promotion focus and instrumental motives with a prevention focus.

Table 2.2: Motivational dichotomies (Brown, 2007, p.175).

	INTRINSIC	EXTRINSIC
INTEGRATIVE	L2 learner wishes to integrate with the L2 culture (e. g., for immigration or marriage)	Someone else wishes the L2 learner to know the L2 for integrative reasons (e. g., Japanese parents send kids to Japanese-language school)
INSTRUMENTAL	L2 learner wishes to achieve goals utilizing L2 (e. g., for a career)	External power wants L2 learner to learn L2 (e. g., corporation sends Japanese businessman to U.S. for language training)

However, Dörnyei (2010) states that for about fifteen years, he and his associates undertook a longitudinal survey in order to test integrativeness in three successive stages of data collection in 1993, 1999 and 2004. The study involved around 13,000 students in Hungary, and the target languages were Italian, French, Russian, English and German. The questionnaire used was developed with Richard Clément, one of Gardner’s close associates. Apart from including integrativeness and instrumentality, other aspects were considered, such as direct contact with L2 speakers, cultural interest, the vitality of the L2 community, milieu, and linguistic self-confidence. It was found that integrativeness plays the most important role in target language motivation, followed by attitudes toward target language speakers and community and instrumentality. The problem with this study lies in the fact that it did not make

theoretical sense for 'integrativeness' to be seen as a key factor in a setting where it was not applicable since there was nothing to integrate into (Dörnyei, 2010). However, Gardner's (2010, pp.223-224) response was that integrativeness in the socio-educational model:

Has never meant "to integrate" into the other community. ... This particular interpretation was made by other researchers who were reading meaning into the concept. ... the concept of integrativeness refers to affective reactions that come into play when individuals are confronted with learning a second language. It is not a conscious decision on the part of the individual and does not require real contract with L2 speakers. In fact, individuals may not be aware of it. In much of our research we have focused on both evaluative reactions to the other group as well as more general reactions to the notion of other groups in general. Other researchers [Kramer, 1993; Yashima, 2002] have focused on more general reactions, largely because of their cultural context.

Nevertheless, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) verify that integrativeness or in their terms, the *Ideal L2 Self* is a major factor along with instrumentality and attitudes to L2 speakers. For that reason, Dörnyei constructed a new theory which he called the "L2 Motivational Self System" which is discussed in detail later (see section 2.13). In the 1990s, an "educational shift" followed by a "motivational renaissance" took place (Dörnyei, 2003a, p.11). This shift marked the beginning of the cognitive-situated period which was characterized by moving "from the broad perspective of ethnolinguistic communities and learners' general disposition and attitudes to language learning, and sharpen the focus on a more situated analysis of motivation in specific learning contexts" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p.46). The socio-psychological framework was not rejected, but rather it was expanded with a stronger emphasis on classroom contexts.

Dörnyei (1998, p.127) clarifies that “in response to calls [Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1994] for the ‘adoption of a wider vision of motivation’”, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) propose a model which suggests three variables which act as mediators in the relationship between language attitudes and motivational behaviour. These three variables (see Figure 2.6) are goal salience, (i. e., goal specificity and goal frequency), valence, (i. e., the desire to learn the L2 and attitudes toward learning the L2), and self-efficacy. The latter includes performance expectancy, which refers to the expectancy or anticipation to be able to carry out different kinds of learning tasks by the end of the course, as well as L2 use anxiety and L2 class anxiety (Dörnyei, 1998). Dörnyei (1998) comments that by incorporating these new components from expectancy-value and goal theories into the social psychological construct of the L2 motivation model, it could be said that Tremblay and Gardner (1995) extended their model in a way which is simple and direct; that is, from language attitudes (attitudes toward L2 speakers, integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, attitudes toward the L2 course, attitudes toward the L2 teacher and instrumental orientation) to motivational behaviour (attention, motivational intensity and persistence). Looking at Gardner’s earlier models, the study of Tremblay and Gardner (1995) provides us with a synthesis of his earlier theories of attitudinal and motivational constructs without damaging the integrity of the socio-educational model of L2 learning. Dörnyei, additionally, emphasizes that the study by Tremblay and Gardner (1995) is an “important data-based investigation, and one that will undoubtedly inspire further research” (Dörnyei, 1998, p.127). The results of Tremblay and Gardner’s (1995) study agree with those of Gardner (1985a) in which the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery is validated, showing that motivational behaviour is influenced by language attitudes which also influences the three mediators of goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy,

in order to achieve second language attainment. To sum up, the model suggests that achievement in the second language is directly influenced by the target language dominance which is “the role played by the language background and experience” and motivational behaviour (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, p.509).

A PROPOSED MOTIVATIONAL MODEL

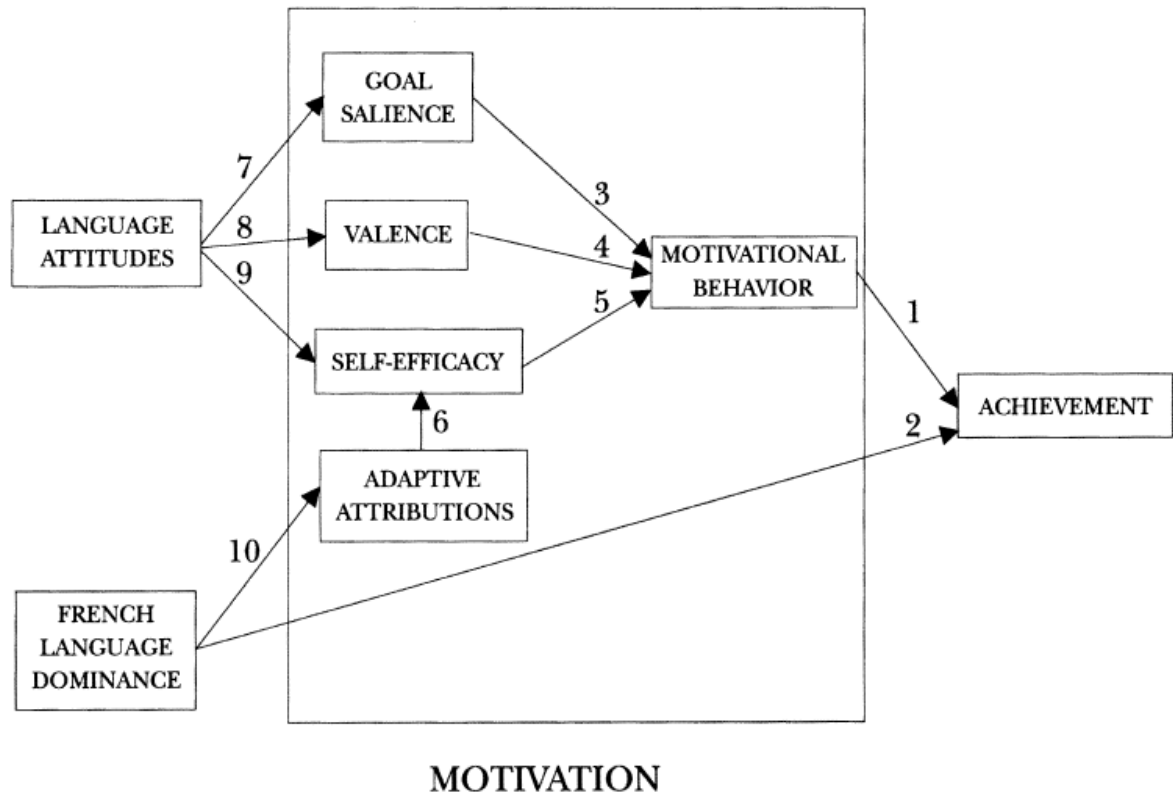


Figure 2-6: Model of L2 motivation (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, p.510).

In 1994, Dörnyei introduced a theoretical framework that attempted to combine L2 learning with psychological concepts, which became known as the tripartite or three-level framework of L2 motivation. The results obtained from Hungarian research (Clément et al., 1994) also produced a tripartite motivation construct containing integrativeness, linguistic self-confidence, and an appraisal of the classroom environment. The first two components had already been used in studies related to the

foreign language context. The third component was concerned with teachers and courses, which is similar to Gardner’s (1985a) AMTB (Attitude/Motivation Test Battery) and Dörnyei (1998). In 1994, and based on Clément et al.’s (1994) tripartite framework, Gardner and Clément’s theories, and Dörnyei (1990), Dörnyei developed a more detailed model of L2 motivation which is also believed to be useful for those who teach in contexts where contact with native speakers of the target language is limited or there is no such contact at all (Dörnyei, 2001a). Dörnyei (1994) synthesized various aspects of different studies, providing an extensive list consisting of three main findings into motivational components (see Table 2.3):

1. Language level synthesized.
2. Learner’s level.
3. Learning situation level.

Table 2.3: Dörnyei’s framework of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p.280).

Dörnyei ’s framework of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 1994)	
LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence *Language Use Anxiety *Perceived L2 Competence *Casual Attributions *Self-efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL <i>Course-specific motivational components</i> <i>Teacher-specific motivational components</i> <i>Group-specific motivational components</i>	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction Affiliative Drive Authority Type Direct Socialization of Motivation *Modelling *Task Presentation *Feedback Goal-orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

It is evident from table 2.3 that Dörnyei concentrated most on the third aspect, which is the learning situation. He said “the most elaborate part of the framework is the learning situation level” (Dörnyei, 1998, p.125). Therefore, regarding the learning and classroom context, Dörnyei wanted to create a more practical, educationally-orientated approach to motivation research where teachers would be actively involved (Dörnyei, 1998). Dörnyei (1998, p.128) specified seven dimensions of motivation:

1. Affective/ integrative dimension
2. Instrumental/ pragmatic dimension
3. Macro-context-related dimension
4. Goal-related dimension
5. Self-concept-related dimension
6. Educational context-related dimension
7. Significant other-related dimension

Dörnyei (1990) and Clément et al. (1994) conducted research in Hungary where they explored the learning of English as a foreign language in the school environment where learners usually did not communicate with native English speakers. So, the major shift which happened here in second/foreign language learning research was that concentration was moved from social attitudes toward the classroom context and consideration of the teacher, the syllabus, and the teaching methods used. In other words, the focus shifted to specific situated learning contexts. This was in response to the calls expressed by many researchers to include pragmatic features in language courses and to pay more attention to language pedagogy. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) point out that one of the main reasons which played a major role in attracting researchers was to have “a more programmatic, education-centred approach to

motivation research” (p.204). In their study of motivation in SL (second language) learning, Crookes and Schmidt (1991, p.502) conclude that they:

Suggest that this will allow the concept of motivation to continue to be linked with attitudes as a distal factor, while at the same time providing more satisfactory connection to language-learning processes and language pedagogy... In brief, we seek to encourage a program of research that will develop from, and be congruent with the concept of motivation that teachers are convinced is critical for SL success.

According to Ushioda (2008), the relevance of this framework of motivation lies in its synthesis of important factors that are related to the language and the learning situation as well as the learner. Although Dörnyei’s framework covers many different aspects of L2 motivation, some gaps and deficiencies have been noticed. Dörnyei (1998, p.126) himself criticizes the model by saying that it:

Lacks an indication of any relationships between the components and therefore cannot be seen as a motivation model proper; what is more, the components listed are quite diverse in nature and thus cannot be easily submitted to empirical testing. The framework also lacks a goal component and does not reflect sufficiently recent findings in self-determination theory. Finally, the integrative/ instrumental motivational dichotomy at the language level is obviously misleading in providing a simplification of the intricate processes determining the social dimension of L2 motivation.

2.11 WILLIAMS AND BURDEN’S MOTIVATIONAL MODEL

After reviewing research into and models proposed for motivation, Williams and Burden (1997) created their own model that tried to combine the necessary components in one detailed framework. The model itself consists of three different stages of motivation: 1) reasons for doing something, 2) deciding to do something, 3) sustaining the effort, or persisting (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.121). They divided the factors that influence motivation into internal and external variables based upon their belief that learning a

foreign or second language is a cultural and social process where the presence and involvement of other significant people plays an important role (Williams & Burden, 1997). It is not enough only to arouse the interest of students in a task, as many teachers think, but students also must be able to sustain their interest and invest the time, energy and effort necessary to achieve their target goal (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Williams and Burden (1997) conclude their discussion of the influence of motivation on second language acquisition by introducing a comprehensive framework of motivational factors. They categorise these factors into two categories which are those internal to the learner and external factors (see Table 2.4). They mention that these factors “include the whole culture and context and the social situation, as well as significant other people and the individual’s interactions with these people” (Williams & Burden, 1997, p.120). It is clear from this description that they are following the social constructivist approach (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). Williams and Burden (1997) state that the learner learns a second language either because he or she is internally motivated to learn the language itself and not because of something he or she is going to get, or because he or she is externally motivated such as to satisfy parents or teachers or to avoid punishment.

It is evident that the model provides a most detailed description of the components of motivation. The model also considers motivation in terms of the organisation of the different kinds of extrinsic and intrinsic factors rather than looking at motivation from a temporal perspective (Dörnyei, 2001a). Indeed, their organisation of external and

internal factors represents “the most elaborate treatment of the particular issue in the L2 literature” (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.115).

Table 2.4: Framework of L2 motivation (Williams & Burden 1997, p.138-140).

INTERNAL FACTORS	EXTERNAL FACTORS
1. Intrinsic interest of activity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ arousal of curiosity ➤ optimal degree of challenge (zone of next potential) 	1. Significant others: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ parents ➤ teachers ➤ peers
2. Perceived value of activity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ personal relevance ➤ anticipated value of outcomes ➤ intrinsic value attributed to the activity 	
3. Sense of agency: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ locus of causality (origin versus pawn) ➤ locus of control re process and outcomes ➤ ability to set appropriate goals 	2. The nature of interaction with significant others: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ mediated learning experiences ➤ the nature and amount of feedback ➤ rewards ➤ the nature and amount of appropriate praise ➤ punishments, sanctions
4. Mastery: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ feelings of competence ➤ awareness of developing skill and mastery in a chosen area ➤ self-efficacy 	3. The learning environment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ comfort ➤ resources ➤ time of day, week, year ➤ size of class and school ➤ class and school ethos
5. Self-concept: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required. ➤ personal definitions and judgments of success and failure ➤ self-worth concern ➤ learned helplessness 	4. The broader context: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ wider family networks ➤ the local education system ➤ conflicting interests ➤ cultural norms ➤ societal expectation and attitudes
6. Attitudes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ to language learning in general ➤ to the target language ➤ to the target language community and culture 	
7. Other affective states: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ confidence ➤ anxiety, fear 	
8. Developmental age and stage	
9. Gender	

2.12 DÖRNYEI-OTTO'S PROCESS-ORIENTATED MODEL

This model was developed with two hypotheses. The first is that a learner's level of motivation and commitment oscillates, even during a single lesson. The second hypothesis is related to a learner's "motivation over a longer period" such as within a semester, and how it can be radically changed (Dörnyei, 2003a, p.17). Dörnyei mentioned that the model was established on the basis of the Action Control Theory of German psychologists, (i. e. Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985; Heckhausen, 1991; Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994), and Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) found that the following elements were missing in previous models of motivation which led them to create their model in 1998 (see Figure 2.7):

1. The absence of a relationship to motivational behaviour in the learning setting (e. g. the classroom).
2. Less emphasis given or less importance ascribed to motivational sources that would assist in the performance of goal-directed behaviour.
3. Lack of awareness of the dynamic nature of motivation and its changes over time.

It can be said that, at this point, the paradigm shift in motivation research changed from a 'macro' to a 'micro' perspective (Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei (2005) explains that their model clarifies how ideas or aspirations are turned into goals and then into practical intentions. After that, those intentions are enacted and that results in achievement. As the final step, the assessment of the overall process takes place.

The model (see Figure 2.7) proposed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) consists of three phases: preactional, actional and postactional. The preactional phase consists of three subphases: goal setting; intention formation; and the initiation of intention enactment. The goal setting subphase has the three antecedents: wishes or hopes, desire and

opportunities. This phase is characterized by 'choice motivation' which leads the learner to select his or her goal before taking action. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) adopted an intermediate view of goals, between Gardner (1985a) who labelled them 'orientation' and Locke and Latham's (1994) goal-setting theory which considers goals as the main drive or engine for learners to act, arguing that goals "are an indispensable step in the motivated behavioural sequence" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p.49). In summary, this stage is where the learners select the goals which they are going to pursue, such as what language to study and how much effort to put into study. Then, the actional phase also consists of three processes: subtask generation and implementation, a complex ongoing appraisal process, and the application of a variety of action control mechanisms. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) describe this stage as crossing the Rubicon. This motivational stage is referred to as executive motivation, where learners carry out a task or start to take action towards the goal; in other words, moving from 'choice motivation' to 'executive motivation'. It incorporates the factors which are necessary for the implementation of the goal or action, and is related to sustaining goals such as language learning. It is important to mention that motivation during this stage is affected by various factors, including teachers, parents, peers, and the learner's knowledge, the teaching methods used, and the learner's sense of autonomy (Ellis, 2008). The third stage is the postactional phase, which can be described as retrospective motivation where learners become aware of the results of their efforts. Based upon their evaluation of the results, their motivation will then be directed toward future actions (Dörnyei, 2003a). The processes that mark this phase are the evaluation of the outcome of actions accomplished and the contemplation of possible inferences. However, the model does have some gaps. Dörnyei (2000) points out that actions take place in

separate sequences without interaction with other tasks that the learner is exposed to, and this is something that needs to be addressed.

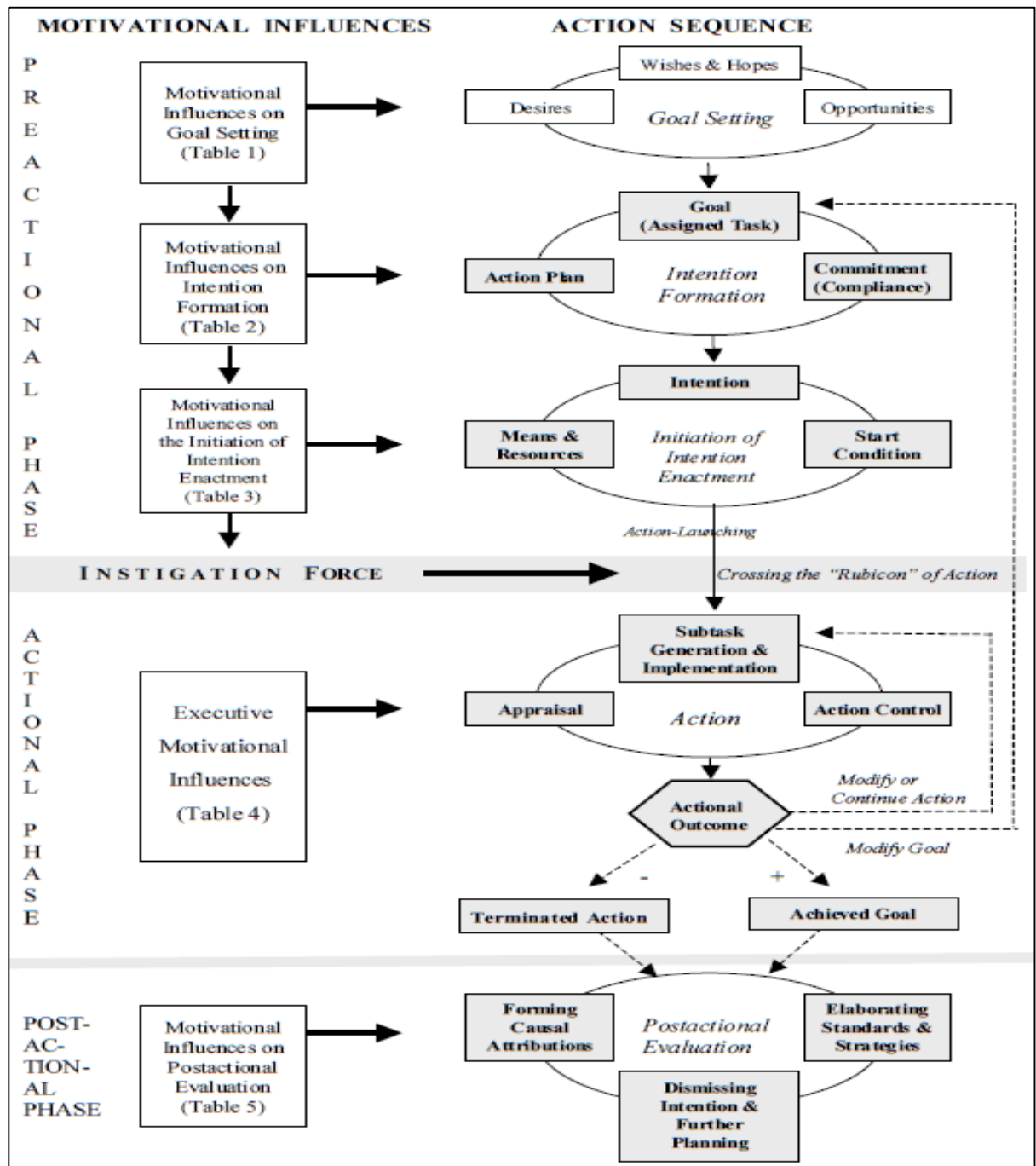


Figure 2-7: Schematic representation of the process model of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p.48).

2.13 L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM

Dörnyei (2005) proposes a new idea and set its foundations in the field of L2 motivation. He began to study the dynamic nature of the human 'self' in relation to the concept of integrativeness in the context of the growing status of English as an international language. Dörnyei clarifies that integrativeness, according to existing research, is present in certain socio-cultural contexts. Furthermore, identification with members of the L2 community is not essential to the motivational process. Therefore, Dörnyei suggests a system he called the 'L2 motivational self-system' that describes three dimensions of the self. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010, p.86) define the 'L2 Motivational Self System' in terms of the following three dimensions:

1. *Ideal L2 self*, which is the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self'. If the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the '*ideal L2 self*' is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. Traditional integrative and internalized motives would typically belong to this component.
2. *Ought-to L2 self*, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to *avoid* possible negative outcomes. This dimension corresponds to Higgins's [1987] ought self and thus involves the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalized) types of instrumental motives.
3. *L2 learning experience*, which concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group or the experience of success).

However, Dörnyei did not originate the concept and definition of the *ideal self*. Dörnyei (2005) states that the concept of the *ideal self* was first introduced in Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, along with two other possible selves: the *actual self*, the *ideal self* and the *ought-self*. The *actual self* refers to the actual or real characteristics "that someone (yourself or another) believes you actually possess" (Higgins, 1987, p.320);

whereas the *ideal self*, refers to the characteristics a person would like to have or possess (aspirations, hopes) and the *ought-self* represents the characteristics a person thinks or believes that s/he should or ought to possess. Markus and Nurius (1986) propose in their psychological theory of the concept of 'possible selves' that these stand for what a self '*might become*' or '*would like to become*' or even '*is afraid to become*' (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p.954). Dörnyei (2009) explains that the 'possible selves' can be seen as a product of motivational factors like value beliefs, expectations and attributions. Markus and Nurius (1986, p.966) conclude that "the nature and complexity of an individual's repertoire of possible selves may also be a significant source of individual differences". Moreover, it is important to note that Higgins (1987) used these terms, in his theory of motivation, "as precisely defined technical terms" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p.13).

As mentioned above, Dörnyei (2010) points out that Higgins' (1987, 1998) self-discrepancy theory stated that people have the tendency to reduce the gap between their actual self and ideal/ought selves. The actual self represents the attributes a person is believed to possess (Higgins, 1987). If the gap is not bridged, then the disparity in selves causes emotional distress. Moreover, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) advocate the view that 'possible selves' function as '*future self-guides*'. Concluding their study of possible selves, Markus and Nurius (1986) point out that the study of possible selves is able to provide psychology with an effective bridge between motivation and cognition. However, although Dörnyei believes "that the concept of ideal self may be useful when conceptualizing academic motivation," he also remarks "that the ideal self [Possible Selves] theory is far from complete" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.101).

2.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Taken together, the studies discussed show that motivational psychologists and scholars have spent much time and effort studying human behaviour in order to be able to explain the variations in individuals' actions, and they have proposed different theories. The studies presented provide evidence that all different theories in this chapter make sense. Nevertheless, each theory tends to ignore the others. Not only do they "ignore each other", but also they "do not even try to achieve a synthesis" (Dörnyei, 2001b, p.12).

This chapter reviews different theories of attitudes and motivation and their relationship to language learning and language achievement. In addition, it sets the basis for the research methodology and discussion in the present study. Theories relevant to this research are reviewed, starting with the definition of the main important concepts such as motivation, attitude and anxiety, and then Maslow's theory of motivation and its relationship to education and in particular to second/foreign language learning is considered. Then, the models and theories of famous figures in second/foreign language learning research, such as Gardner, Dörnyei and others are discussed in depth. The discussion centres around Gardner's pioneering studies. As Skehan (1989) concluded, "without doubt ... almost all other writing on motivation therefore seems to be a commentary, in on one way or another, on the agenda established by Gardner" (p.61). Although the well-known psycholinguist Dörnyei holds the position that motivation is "a multifaceted rather than a uniform factor", he also went on to state that "no available theory has yet managed to represent it in its total complexity" (Dörnyei, 1998, p.131).

However, Gardner as “an expert in statistics”, and his battery along with his advanced data analysis techniques provided high research standards for language acquisition research (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p77). Moreover, the review of these studies in this chapter has given insights used to design the present research questions and to help in interpreting the findings concerning the research questions and hypotheses of this study.

3 CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY CHAPTER

3.1 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

3.1.1 Introduction

Epistemology is a branch of philosophy concerning how knowledge is gained. Willig (2013, p.4) comments that “it attempts to provide answers to the question. ‘How, and what, can we know?’”. The epistemological position taken helps to determine the research methods used, and the goals and objectives of research, giving “a sense of what kinds of things it is possible for us to find out”. The epistemological position of this research is based on the positivist approach. To summarise, epistemology is when the philosophy of the researcher is concerned with those questions he or she asks about his or her knowledge of a certain phenomenon (Langdrige, 2004, p.250). During the twentieth century, there was a great divide between researchers in the social and behavioural sciences concerning the two paradigms of positivism and phenomenological-interpretive approaches (Onwueghuzie & Leech, 2003).

3.1.2 Positivism

Willig (2013) sees positivism as the ‘correspondence theory of truth’. It is an epistemological position which believes that the truth is available for discovery and that it is possible to describe a phenomenon and get it right. Thus there can be a direct relationship or correspondence between events and phenomena, and our perceptions and understanding of them. A positivist approach treats reality and phenomena in an objective manner. Therefore, answers to research questions are provided by testing hypotheses. In positivism, quantitative approaches are used such as using experiments, trials and questionnaires. Positivists additionally believe that if the same

research study is undertaken by different researchers, the same results should be achieved.

Langdrige (2004) explains that the positivist approach tends to use the hypothetical-deductive approach to seeking knowledge, which means that through a systematic approach we can study, describe, and explain the reality of a phenomenon of interest. A positivist believes that knowledge is impartial and unbiased. Therefore, "if biases and lack of objectivity were pervasive, the claims of the natural sciences to provide a definitive picture of the world would be seriously undermined" (Bryman, 2012, p.177). Therefore, the external world is possessing the truth and waiting for researchers to discover it. This reflects the view of Willig (2013) who states that a positivist epistemology suggests that the primary goal of the researcher is to produce objective outcomes, and the researcher's personal involvement or interests must not affect the results. Therefore, one of the main epistemological differences (see Table 3.1) between the interpretivist and positivist approaches is that in the latter the researcher and the object of study should be independent of each other (Onwueghuzie & Leech, 2003). However, this kind of research is not always quantitative in nature. Meanwhile, Langdrige (2004, p.251) states that "there is a growing body of research in social and developmental psychology which does not subscribe to positivism, or the hypothetico-deductive approach". Instead, the alternative approaches use "inductive methods to generate descriptions of theories about the people and the world in which we live. This body of research is invariably, though not necessarily qualitative research". One of the criticisms of the positivist or scientific approach concerns the use of a scientific epistemology which emphasizes that reality can be defined and explained objectively through using the hypothetico-deductive approach. Critics of this approach argue that,

although these scientific techniques have demonstrated their utility in the natural sciences, they are almost certainly inappropriate for research in the social sciences and psychology, especially when the study deals with human behaviour or thought. Paul (1994) points out that the scientific approach is in principle objectively oriented, but when it comes to individual differences, it is not the case. Additionally, human behaviour involves active and not passive phenomena. So, for example, calcium will have the same characteristics today which will be the same after one hundred years. In contrast, most people will exhibit almost completely different behaviour at different times. Many qualitative researchers believe that the positivist or scientific approach is flawed because of its claim of objectivity. They further assert that it is not possible to ignore the influence of the researcher because of his or her involvement in forming questions through to data analysis and interpretations of the findings from analysis (Langdridge, 2004).

3.1.3 The phenomenological-interpretive approach

Bowling (2009) states that although the positivist approach has proven its utility as a philosophy guiding scientific methodology, it can be misleading and provide superficial analysis. Social researchers who accept a phenomenological-interpretive philosophy claim that the goal of the researcher must be to discover social meanings or facts of reality. This kind of approach perceives 'reality' as multiple, and not a single reality as in the positivist approach. This is also supported by Onwueghuzie and Leech (2003, p.5) who hold the view that "interpretivists believe that there are multiple-constructed realities (i. e., relativist) and that multiple interpretations are available from different researchers that are all equally valid". Bowling (2009) further points out that phenomenological research should be conducted in a natural setting, which means that

people should be studied in their normal environments where there is a natural interaction between the investigator and the respondents. For this to succeed and to gather valid data, the researcher may use, for example, open-ended, unstructured, semi-structured or in-depth interviews. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2011) state that this kind of approach analyzes social episodes in terms of its actors. In other words, the researcher and the phenomena studied are dependent. To sum up, phenomenology is concerned with the questions of how people perceive and understand the social phenomena that surround them (Bryman, 2012; Bowling, 2009; Onwueghuzie & Leech, 2003). Willig (2008, p.52) also believes that “phenomenology is concerned with the *phenomena* that appear in our consciousness as we engage with the world around us” (Italics in original).

There are profound differences between positivism and interpretivism in terms of their metatheoretical assumptions (Weber, 2004). Table 3.1 summarizes these differences which concern metatheoretical assumptions relating to ontology, epistemology, the research object, the method, the theory of truth, validity, and reliability.

As argued by Weber (2004), the ontology of positivism holds that reality or the phenomenon studied is separate from the researcher. Therefore, the positivist approach is considered to be dualistic. In contrast, interpretivists hold the view that reality and the researcher cannot be separated. When it comes to epistemology, interpretivists believe that knowledge is built through our experience, history, and culture. On the other hand, positivists build knowledge of a reality that exists beyond the human mind and which is not socially constructed. Positivism sees the qualities of research objects as independent of the researcher, whereas interpretivists believe that the characteristics and qualities ascribed to objects or participants are socially

constructed. In short, an interpretive researcher acts as both the researcher and the instrument of measurement at the same time. Interpretivists use phenomenographic, ethnographic and ethnomethodological studies in the investigation of a phenomenon. Conversely, positivists usually use laboratory experiments or questionnaires. Weber (2004, vii) states that positivists “believe that a statement made by a researcher is true when it has a one-to-one mapping to the reality that exists beyond the human mind (a correspondence theory of truth)”. This means that the truth is determined by how well the researcher undertakes or implements the research, and how accurate the correspondence is between the researcher and his or her objects. Interpretivists, however, hold the view that in order for an investigator to understand a phenomenon, he or she should experience or live that phenomenon to have some conception or pre-understanding of it. Validity and reliability are part and parcel of any academic research. Positivists strive to gather data that produce results which reflect a true reality. Interpretivists, on the other hand, are more concerned with the idea that their conclusions are defensible. They believe that, for their research to be reliable, the researcher should be able to demonstrate interpretive awareness and try to withhold his or her pre-conceptions of a phenomenon, whereas positivists believe strongly that if their results are reliable, the same results ought to be obtained by different researchers (Weber, 2004).

Table 3.1: Class notes used by Jorgen Sandberg (Weber, 2004, iv).

Metatheoretical Assumptions About	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology	Person (researcher) and reality are separate.	Person (researcher) and reality are inseparable (life-world).
Epistemology	Objective reality exists beyond the human mind.	Knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a person's lived experience.

Research Object	Research object has inherent qualities that exist independently of the researcher.	Research object is interpreted in light of meaning structure of person's (researcher's) lived experience.
Method	Statistics, content analysis.	Hermeneutics, phenomenology, etc.
Theory of Truth	Correspondence theory of truth: one-to-one mapping between research statements and reality.	Truth as intentional fulfilment: Interpretations of research object match lived experience of object.
Validity	Certainty: data truly measures reality.	Defensible knowledge claims.
Reliability	Replicability: research results can be reproduced.	Interpretive awareness: researchers recognize and address implications of their subjectivity.

3.2 QUALITATIVE VERSUS QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

Creswell (1994, p.4) comments that:

The quantitative is termed the traditional, the positivist, the experimental, or the empiricist paradigm. The quantitative thinking comes from an empiricist tradition established by such authorities as Comte, Mill, Durkheim, Newton, and Lock (J. Smith, 1983). The qualitative paradigm is termed the constructivist approach or naturalistic (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the interpretative approach (J. Smith, 1983), or the postpositivist or postmodern perspective (Quantz, 1992).

Onwueghuzie and Leech (2003) state that from the beginning of the twentieth century until now, the academic world has witnessed a divide, and even a competition between qualitative and quantitative approaches in the social sciences. This polarization promoted researchers who may be called 'purists' who restrict themselves exclusively to being either qualitative or quantitative researchers.

The differences between these two kinds of approaches are based on five characteristics, and Table 3.2 shows the philosophical assumptions of qualitative

research with implications for practice, as proposed in several studies (Creswell, 1994; Klenke, 2008; Onwueghuzie & Leech, 2003; Yilmaz, 2013). These differences involve the ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical, and methodological assumptions.

Table 3.2: Philosophical assumptions of qualitative research with implications for practice (Creswell, 2007, p.17).

Assumption	Question	Characteristics	Implication for Practice (Examples)
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is subjective and multiple, as seen by participants in the study	Researcher uses quotes and themes in words of participants and provides evidence of different perspectives
Epistemological	What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?	Researcher attempts to lessen distance between himself or herself and that being researched	Researcher collaborates, spends time in field with participants, and becomes an “insider”
Axiological	What is the role of values?	Researcher acknowledges that research is value-laden and that biases are present	Researcher openly discusses values that shape the narrative and includes his or her own interpretation in conjunction with the interpretations of participants
Rhetorical	What is the language of research?	Researcher writes in a literary, informal style using the personal voice and uses qualitative terms and limited definitions.	Researcher uses an engaging style of narrative, may use first-person pronoun, and employs the language of qualitative research

Methodological	What is the process of research?	Researcher uses inductive logic, studies the topic within its context, and uses an emerging design	Researcher works with particulars (details) before generalizations, describes in detail the context of the study, and continually revises questions from experiences in the field
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3.2.1 Ontological assumptions

Sale et al. (2002) point out that to a positivist there is only one and single truth out there, that it is an objective reality independent of the researcher and the participants. The ontological position of quantitative researchers is based on positivism, which holds that reality is one 'single' reality which can be measured, and this measurement is reliable and valid. From this ontological point of view, it is believed "that there is only one truth, an objective reality that exists independent of human perception" (Sale et al., 2002, p.44), and an *a priori* operational and standardized definition is used of a phenomenon under study. On the other hand, a qualitative researcher takes the ontological position of the interpretive approach, which is that reality is socially constructed. This means that there are different kinds of realities depending on how the investigator interprets that reality. In other words, we have different realities because we have different researchers with different backgrounds, intellects, and also different contexts. Moreover, they assert that in order to understand the reality being investigated the researcher should be in direct contact with the 'actors' associated with it.

3.2.2 Epistemological assumptions

Quantitative purists hold that their epistemological position is that the researcher ought to be objective concerning the object of study. To them, the researcher and the object of study are strictly independent. Similarly, Creswell (1994, p.6) states that the

researcher should be “distant and independent of that being researched”. Conversely, qualitative purists hold the view that in order for research to have valid outcomes, the researcher should be as close to the subjects of study as possible, because they depend on each other. In qualitative studies, the researcher does his or her best to seek agreement from his or her subjects concerning interpretation, the presentation of the situation and the conclusions. In other words, the gap between the two in qualitative research is much smaller than in quantitative research (Kumar, 2014).

3.2.3 Axiological assumptions

Axiology involves the study of the nature of value judgments, and quantitative researchers expect an inquiry to be value-free which means that the researcher comes to the study without any preconceptions about the inquiry. On the other hand, qualitative researchers take the stance that investigators ought to conduct their study as value-bound. Therefore, it is natural for qualitative researchers to start their investigations with previous opinions about the phenomenon studied (Onwueghuzie & Leech, 2003; Yilmaz, 2013).

3.2.4 Rhetorical assumptions

The writing style used by quantitative purists is supposed to be neutral. Dörnyei (2007) comments that using numbers is one of the most important characteristics of the quantitative method. One of the quantitative researcher’s goals is to gather data which is structured and can be presented in numerical form (Matthews & Ross, 2010). A formal writing style is used in line with Creswell’s (1994, p.43) view that “a quantitative introduction typically is written from the third person point of view. This impersonal view removes the writer from the picture and helps create a sense of objectivity and distance between the researcher and that being researched”. An impersonal voice and the use

specific terms such as statistical expressions or definitions are present in the writing. On the other hand, the qualitative school uses a more informal writing style and the personal voice whereas fewer technical terms are used. Creswell (1994, p.43) states that “researchers commonly use the more literary point of view of first or second person in qualitative studies. Personal pronouns such as *I*, *we*, and *you* may be written into the introduction” (italics in original). Dörnyei (2007) points out that the qualitative method is concerned with the subjective judgments and opinions of the individuals being studied. Additionally, he comments that in order for a researcher to study a situation, he or she should speak to the participants themselves to capture an inside picture of that social phenomenon according to the participants’ perspective. This reflects the view of Matthews and Ross (2010, p.142) that:

Qualitative research methods are primarily concerned with stories and accounts including subjective understandings, feelings, opinions, and beliefs ... qualitative data is typically gathered when an interpretivist epistemological approach is taken and when the data collected is the words or expressions of the research participants.

3.2.5 Methodological assumptions

The use of deductive and inductive reasoning is another feature of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Purists of the quantitative approach undertake research deductively. Quantitative advocates usually come to their study with an a priori hypothesis to be tested, and a theory to be examined. They start from general reasoning and move to specifics. This is supported by Dörnyei (2007) who states that because of the use of numbers in quantitative study, the researcher undertakes his investigation with a *priori* knowledge of categorizations specified in advance. The researcher in this approach starts from general concepts and generates a model or theory and then can form testable hypotheses from that theory (Bowling, 2009). This

conflicts with the view held by qualitative purists who believe in the inductive approach. They study different events of a certain phenomenon, observe these events and conclude with a theory. In other words, in qualitative research, the inductive approach is used more than the deductive approach. There are no concepts or categories identified in advance by the investigator. Instead, these emerge from the respondents to provide the researcher with rich and 'context-bound' data leading the researcher to patterns or theories which enable him or her to a better understanding to explain the phenomenon (Creswell, 1994). Saunders et al. (2006) state that the deductive approach is more linked to positivism and the inductive approach to interpretivism (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches to research (Saunders et al., 2006, p.120).

Deduction emphasises	Induction emphasises
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scientific principles • Moving from theory to data • The need to explain causal relationships between variables • The collection of quantitative data • The application of controls to ensure validity of data • The operationalization of concepts to ensure clarity of definition • A highly structured approach • Researcher independence of what is being researched • The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events • A close understanding of the research context • The collection of qualitative data • A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses • A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process • Less concern with the need to generalise

Generalization is one of the main characteristics of the quantitative approach. Purists of the quantitative approach study a sample and generalize the results of that sample to the population of that study. Bryman (2012, p.176) states that “in quantitative research the researcher is usually concerned to be able to say that his or her findings can be generalized beyond the confines of the particular context in which the research was conducted”. Purists of the quantitative approach prefer random sampling (for example, simple random, systematic random, stratified random, or multi-stage cluster sampling). In contrast, qualitative researchers would usually select participants on a nonprobability basis so that subjects are chosen who can provide them with rich data. They prefer to use convenience, snowball, or quota sampling. Purists of the qualitative approach are not so concerned with generalization, but are rather concerned with the understanding of ‘hidden’ information or underlying knowledge about a phenomenon.

Replicability is a crucial distinctive feature that purists of quantitative research believe that research ought to allow. Bryman (2012, p.177) points out that “quantitative researchers in the social sciences often regard replication, or more precisely the ability to replicate, as an important ingredient of their activities”. This is supported by Kumar (2014) who said that quantitative researchers provide details about the research design which can facilitate the replication of the study. Purists of the quantitative approach hold the stance that the causes of phenomena can be determined reliably. Therefore, they believe that cause and effect are two different things. The opposite is expressed by supporters of the qualitative approach. They claim that is not possible, given the nature of reality, to distinguish between cause and effect because in reality they are one thing, and by doing so the researcher would jeopardize the outcomes of the study. With

regard to the replication of qualitative research, Kumar (2014) points out that “the replication of a study design and its findings becomes almost impossible” (p.133).

The distinctions between the qualitative and quantitative approaches are summarized in Table 3.4. Matthews and Ross (2010, p.142) claim that a researcher “can use these ideas to set out the key features of quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and analysis before going on to consider ways of choosing the methods”.

Doing so enables the researcher to answer research questions and test hypotheses.

Table 3.4: Features of quantitative and qualitative approaches (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p.142).

Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological and epistemological approaches are positivist (assumes that the social world is real)	Ontological and epistemological approaches are interpretivist (assumes that reality is a social construct)
Research questions may be set out as testable hypotheses	Research questions may be developed using subsidiary questions
The research question can be answered (or hypothesis tested by) counting events and using statistical analysis	The research question can be answered by describing and explaining events and gathering participants’ understandings, beliefs and experiences.
Researcher normally knows what he is looking for	Researcher may only have a general idea of what he is looking for
Research design/strategy is usually fixed before data collection	Research design/strategy may be fluid and evolutionary
Objective (researcher is not part of the research)	Subjective (researcher is involved as a social being)
Often uses tools (such as surveys or questionnaires) to collect data	Usually no use of tools: the researcher can be seen as the main instrument for collecting data
Data is often represented by numerical or named codes	Data may be in any form
It may be possible to generalise from the data	Not usually possible to generalise from the data

3.3 MIXED METHODOLOGY

Cohen et al. (2007) state that in order for researchers to obtain reliable data, they can use mixed methods approaches using numerical and verbal data. This is in line with the views of many pragmatic researchers who use mixed methods approaches (Lodico et al., 2010). Blaxter et al. (2010) comment that even if the main method of a researcher is, for example, a questionnaire survey or a set of interviews, that researcher may need to complement it with another method or methods to enable a proper exploration of the subject of study. Information gained or anecdotes gathered from an interview may sometimes be more revealing for the researcher than any amount of numerical data. It can also be argued that a researcher should not be restricted to a single approach. Instead, researchers should take advantage of combining qualitative and quantitative approaches to take advantage of the strengths that each has to offer. This is supported by the view of Bowling (2009, p.433) who states that “mixed methods research offers the potential to obtain deeper understandings of people and events”. Similarly, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) believe that a mixed methods approach helps the researcher to gain a comprehensive understanding of an issue under investigation from different perspectives. They further comment that “there has been a growing recognition at conferences and other professional meetings of the fact that a combination of qualitative and quantitative designs might bring out the best of both approaches while neutralising the shortcomings and biases inherent in each paradigm” (p.242). Blaxter et al. (2010) point out that triangulation occurs when the researcher uses two or more methods to verify the validity of findings. The traditional goal of triangulation is to validate findings by presenting results obtained using different methods but which give the same conclusion (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). Additionally, “the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods might be a particularly fruitful direction for future

motivation research” (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.194). Blaxter et al. (2010, p.206) provide a list which consists of eleven useful ways in which researchers can combine qualitative and quantitative methods productively in order to ensure the validity of research.

Eleven ways to combine qualitative and quantitative research

1. Logic of triangulation, for example when a researcher compares the findings from qualitative data with those from quantitative data. In other words, the two methods are checked against each other.
2. Qualitative research facilitates quantitative research. Qualitative research can help the researcher by providing him or her with background information about the situation and the subjects of the study.
3. Quantitative research facilitates qualitative research by helping the researcher with the choice of subjects for a qualitative research enquiry.
4. A general picture of perspective phenomena can be gained by combining both types of research. In other words, quantitative research can be used to fill gaps in qualitative research.
5. Structure and process. Quantitative research is usually more effective in identifying structural characteristics of social life than qualitative research, whereas qualitative research is stronger when it comes to processual aspects.
6. In qualitative research, the starting point is the subjects’ perspective, whereas in quantitative research the researcher’s perspective or concerns are the driving force.
7. Including quantitative data may help to overcome problems of generality.
8. Including qualitative with quantitative research may help the researcher to explore the relationships between variables, whereas quantitative research helps only to establish the relationship of these variables.
9. Quantitative research is usually concerned with large-scale, structural features of social life, whereas qualitative research deals with small-scale behavioural aspects. Including both types of research may provide the researcher with a means of bridging the macro-micro gap.
10. Each different stage of longitudinal study requires different methods, quantitative or qualitative research or combined.
11. Mixing, for example, qualitative research with a quasi-experimental method.

All of these eleven ways of combining quantitative and qualitative approaches may increase the validity of a study. However, the researcher in this study selected No. 8 to be the main approach used in gathering the data in this study. The researcher chose this option because it includes the use of qualitative methods to give more understanding of the reasons for the relationships between different variables, and to explain the factors underlying the broad relationships, which may not have been possible using the quantitative technique alone (Blaxter et al., 2010).

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) also state that for L2 motivation research, it is essential for scholars to take advantage of a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in order “to examine issues that are embedded in complex educational and social contexts” (p.241). Congruent with the eleven ways of combining the two methods mentioned above, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010, p.241) suggest six design types which may be relevant to research in motivation.

1. Questionnaire survey with follow-up interview (as used in the present study). Statistical analyses usually produce expected results and it is not usually possible to interpret those results on the basis of questionnaire data. Therefore, conducting a questionnaire and then following this by an interview study (either in an individual or group format) can remedy this weakness.
2. Questionnaire survey with preceding interview. Sometimes, it is very beneficial for a researcher to conduct a small-scale exploratory qualitative study, such as focus group or one-to-one interviews, to provide the researcher with background information on the context and subjects of the study in order to design and construct items for a questionnaire.
3. Interview study with follow-up questionnaire. One of the main weaknesses of qualitative research is the non-representativeness of typical samples. However, investigating the distribution of a phenomenon in a population is a typically quantitative objective. Therefore, by combining quantitative and qualitative

methods, the researcher can get the best of both worlds, gaining the advantages of the exploratory nature of qualitative research and the generalizability of the results of quantitative study.

4. Interview study with preceding questionnaire. A researcher can include an initial questionnaire where the responses may help in selecting the participants with certain traits for interview.
5. Observational studies. Since motivation is abstract and unobservable, observational data (for example, motivated behaviour in the language classroom) can only be used to obtain information about the processes of motivation. Therefore, such data need to be combined with questionnaire or interview data or both.
6. Practitioner research. In their classrooms, teachers can elicit data for research through questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions, learner journals, and reflective writing. Then, combining multiple quantitative and qualitative sources of students' reflective data with the teacher's own observations can provide a richly grounded study of motivation-in-context following the principles of action research or exploratory practice.

3.4 QUESTIONNAIRE

Matthews and Ross (2010) state that questionnaires are the most popular tool as a means of collecting data, especially given the development of statistical software which can give more accurate results particularly when dealing with large numbers and complex sets of data. They additionally point out that social science researchers use questionnaires in a wide range of different social contexts to obtain different kinds of data such, as factual data concerning age, gender or qualifications, but also to obtain the participants' opinions or attitudes about a social phenomenon.

Kumar (2014) asserts that, in questionnaires, the questions should be clear and easy to understand. This reflects the view of Maltby et al. (2010) who stress that a questionnaire item should not be ambiguous, and the questions should not have

different meanings for different respondents. Kumar (2014) points out that questionnaires have the advantages of being less expensive and also they offer greater anonymity than interviews. To construct a questionnaire, the researcher has to choose either open or closed questions. De Vaus (2002) states that in a closed question, the respondent is given the chance to choose one or more of the possible answers provided, whereas an open-ended question is one in which participants answer in their own words. Dawson (2009) illustrates the disadvantages and advantages of open and closed questions (see Table 3.5). Kumar (2014) stresses the importance of deciding what type of questions to use because ultimately the statistical analyses will depend on this.

Table 3.5: Open and closed questions (Dawson, 2009, p. 90).

OPEN QUESTIONS	CLOSED QUESTIONS
Tend to be slower to administer.	Tend to be quicker to administer.
Can be harder to record responses.	Often easier and quicker for the researcher to record responses.
May be difficult to code, especially if multiple answers are given.	Tend to be easy to code.
Do not stifle response.	Respondents can only answer in a predefined way.
Enable respondents to raise new issues.	New issues cannot be raised.
Respondents tend to feel that they have been able to speak their mind.	Respondents can only answer in a way which may not match their actual opinion and may, therefore, become frustrated.
In self-administered questionnaires, respondents might not be willing to write a long answer and decide to leave the question blank. How do you know the meaning of a blank answer when you come to the analysis?	Is quick and easy for respondents to tick boxes – might be more likely to answer all the questions.

Can use open questions to find out all the possible responses before designing a closed-ended questionnaire.	Can include a section at the end of a closed-ended questionnaire for people to write in a longer response if they wish.
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3.4.1 Types of questions that researchers should avoid

There are some types of questions that researchers should try to avoid in order for the questionnaire survey to gather data successfully and safely. Maltby et al. (2010) list three such questions. Firstly, embarrassing or personal questions should be avoided because these may cause discomfort to the participants. Also, embarrassing questions may yield incorrect answers and may also encourage participants to not finish the questionnaire. Hypothetical questions should also be avoided. Researchers should avoid asking participants about something they have never experienced, for example, asking participants what one would do about education if one was the Prime Minister of the country. Moreover, researchers should avoid questions that involve the participant's social desirability. Usually, individuals tend to answer 'yes' to questions which make them feel good, such as for example, if participants are asked if they regularly give to charity. This is supported by Oppenheim (1966) who states that questions can be embarrassing if they solicit socially disapproved attitudes or behaviour. He also points out that, when constructing a questionnaire, researchers should avoid 'prestige bias'. For example, if the item or question in the questionnaire is loaded with prestige where an opinion is associated with a well-known or prestigious figure, and then the respondent is asked to give his or her opinion, in this situation the data can suffer from prestige bias. The researcher should also make sure that the wording of the question has the same meaning for all respondents (De Vaus, 2002). Another thing a researcher should avoid is leading questions, which are those worded

in such a way as to emotionally or structurally encourage the respondent to answer the question in a certain way (Bell, 2005).

3.4.2 Administration of the questionnaire

There are various different ways of administering a questionnaire. Kumar (2014) lists four of these. The first is the mailed or posted questionnaires. Here the researcher should make sure that the addresses of the respondents are available before choosing this method. Also sending a prepaid self-addressed envelope to respondents with the questionnaires is likely to increase the response rate. Alternatively, online questionnaires sent in emails through the internet are commonly used nowadays. To use this method, the researcher should have the necessary email addresses in advance. A more traditional method is administration in public places. A researcher sometimes needs to administer the questionnaires in, for example, shopping centres, hospitals, schools or universities. The researcher usually explains to potential respondents the aim and purpose of the study as they approach and their participation in the research is then requested. Although this method is time-consuming, it has most of the advantages of administering a questionnaire collectively. Finally, collective administration methods usually give high response rates due to the captive nature of respondents, for example students in a classroom or people attending a function. The presence of the researcher in this method can have a positive effect. For example, a personal connection is established when the researcher explains to the study sample the purpose of the study. Also, the researcher can clarify any issues or question the respondents may have. Accordingly, the researcher in the present study chose a collective or group administration method to administer the main questionnaire survey. This method is commonly used by language researchers, and was also selected

because, by using this method, response rates of “nearly 100% can be achieved” (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p.68). The reason for this is because the targeted respondents are assembled in one place, in this case during their lessons. In order to reduce the respondents’ anxiety, and give a ‘professional’ feel to the survey and to generate a positive climate for questionnaire administration, the teachers were informed beforehand, and some of them were previously classmates of the present researcher. Before distributing the questionnaires to students, the researcher introduced himself, expressed his gratitude and then explained the purpose of the survey and its potential importance in improving English language learning in Qatar. Although the questionnaires were anonymous, the respondents were assured that their answers would be treated confidentially (see section 3.22). When the students had been given the questionnaire, the researcher read the initial instructions out loud while the students were reading the text silently. A pilot study (see section 3.20) was useful in improving the style and layout to give a professional appearance to the questionnaire. This was very helpful in persuading the participants to spend time and effort on the questionnaires, which took from 30 to 45 minutes to complete. Afterwards the researcher thanked the respondents for their participation and promised to send them feedback on the results.

3.4.3 Advantages and disadvantages of written questionnaires

Kumar (2014, p.181), Oppenheim (1992, p.102), and Walonick (2013, pp.37-38) gave comprehensive lists of the advantages of written questionnaires which can be summarized in the following points.

1. Questionnaires are very cost-effective in comparison to other ways of collecting data such as face-to-face interviews.
2. People are, in general, familiar with questionnaires; therefore, they will not make people apprehensive and hesitant to answer them.
3. Questionnaires are easy to analyse, especially given the advances in computer software.
4. Because there is no visual material or clues, researcher bias will be absent.
5. Questionnaires offer greater anonymity, unlike in face-to-face interviews where there is interaction between the interviewees and the researcher which might cause participants not to give accurate information in answer to sensitive questions.
6. Questionnaires are less intrusive than other methods such as telephone calls or face-to-face surveys. Here, the participant is free to complete the questionnaire at his or her own convenience.

However, six disadvantages of questionnaires can be summarised from Kumar's (2014, pp.181-182) and Walonick's (2013, pp.39-40) discussions.

1. The possibility of a low response rate. This is the worst thing for statistical analysis because it can reduce confidence in the results. Researchers usually do not receive back most of the questionnaires they send out. A researcher should be happy with a response rate of 50%. There are different factors which play a role in increasing or decreasing response rates, such as whether or not the topic interests the participants or the layout and length of the questionnaire.
2. Questionnaires do not give the option to probe responses further. However, the researcher can partially overcome this by providing space for comments.
3. Lack of opportunity to clarify issues. A participant cannot ask a question about items in the questionnaire if the researcher is not present.
4. About 90% of communication is visual. Visual communication cannot be obtained by using written questionnaires.
5. Others can influence the answers given to a questionnaire. When a respondent receives a posted questionnaire, he or she may consult other people before choosing answers. In this case, the researcher receives data from outside the targeted sample.

6. Limited application. Questionnaires are not suitable for people who cannot read or write, very young or old people, or handicapped people.

3.5 THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE PRESENT STUDY

After reading the covering letter attached to the questionnaire used in this study, the participants were asked to answer questions on demographic variables such as sex. They were also asked about their language achievement in terms of self-ratings of English language proficiency and English course scores. The questionnaire used in this study was adopted from Gardner's (1985a, 1985b) AMTB (Attitude/Motivation Test Battery). Dörnyei (2005) states that the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery is a useful self-report questionnaire, and many researchers have adapted it for many learning contexts in different places all over the world. Dörnyei further comments that "its design followed the psychometric principles governing questionnaire theory and it is a scientific assessment tool both in terms of its presentation and its content" (p.71). The AMTB was designed to measure the different components of Gardner's socio-educational model of second language acquisition and to measure all of the main elements of Gardner's theory of integrativeness (attitudes toward French Canadians, interest in foreign languages, integrative orientation). The AMTB also includes additional components concerning language anxiety (L2 class anxiety and L2 anxiety), parental support, motivational intensity, desire to learn French, evaluation of the French teacher, evaluation of the French course, and instrumental orientation. It was originally developed for a study of English-speaking Canadian students studying French as a second language (Dörnyei, 2005).

Note that in the following section, quotation marks indicate items which were not changed from the original ATMB wording.

3.6 THE ELEVEN ATTITUDINAL AND MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS IN GARDNER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

As presented in Gardner's (1985b) technical report, the eleven scales of the AMTB (Attitude/Motivation Test Battery) were adopted in this study with slight adjustments.

3.6.1 Scale 1: Attitudes toward British people

The students' attitudes toward the British were assessed for three main reasons. Firstly, English is perceived to be related to the UK more than any other country. Secondly, the British are the biggest group of native English speakers in Qatar, numbering around 20,000 (Demographics of Qatar, 2015). Third, Qotbah (1990) reports that the strong commercial ties between Qatar and the UK have led the two countries to sign various educational and medical agreements. He further points out that the government of Qatar began to send a considerable number of patients to be treated in hospitals in London, and also that "families began to send their children to learn English in different language schools all over Britain. Students were also sent there to specialize in other subjects" (Qotbah, 1990, p.13). Moreover, according to the Annual Statistical Abstract (2009), out of the 355 students granted scholarships to Anglophone countries between 2005-2008, 269 went to the UK. This represents 75.77 % of Qatari students studying abroad in native English speaking countries go to the UK (see Table 1.1 for details). Furthermore, a large number of Qatari tourists go to the UK every year, and it is believed that the UK is one of the most preferred countries for Qatari people to visit.

In this scale, the participants were asked to indicate their personal feelings about 18 items on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. All items were positively worded as they were in the original AMTB (Attitudes toward French

Canadians and Attitudes toward European French People). For this scale, the maximum possible score was 90 to indicate attitudes toward British people.

1. British people are very social, warm-hearted and creative people.
2. I would like to know more British people.
3. Having British people in Qatar adds a distinctive flavour to Qatari culture.
4. Arabs in Qatar should make a greater effort to learn the English language.
5. The more I get to know British people, the more I want to be fluent in their language.
6. Some of our best citizens are graduates from British educational institutions.
7. If Qatari people lose the connection with the British culture, it would indeed be a great loss.
8. British people's heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity.
9. Most British people are so friendly and easy to get along with that Qatar is fortunate to have them.
10. British people are considerate of the feelings of others.
11. The more I learn about the British, the more I like them.
12. British people are cheerful, agreeable and good humoured.
13. British people are trustworthy and dependable.
14. I have always admired British people.
15. British people are very friendly and hospitable.
16. I would like to get to know British people better.
17. The British are a very kind and generous people.
18. British people are sincere and honest.

3.6.2 Scale 2: Attitudes toward learning English

This scale consisted of ten items out of which five were positively worded and five negatively worded. In this scale, the participants were asked to indicate their personal feelings about the items on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The maximum possible score of the measure was 50 to indicate the attitude of that student toward learning the English language.

1. Learning English is really great.
2. I really enjoy learning English.
3. English is an important part of the school programme.
4. I plan to learn as much English as possible.
5. I love learning English.
6. I hate English.
7. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English.
8. Learning English is a waste of time.
9. I think that learning English is dull.
10. When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it.

3.6.3 Scale 3: Interest in foreign languages

In this scale, there were ten positively worded items and the maximum possible score was 50 to indicate students' interest in learning foreign languages in general. In this scale, the participants were asked to indicate their personal feelings about the items on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

1. "If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to speak the language of the people".
2. Even though Qatar is relatively far from countries speaking other languages, it is important for the Qataris and Arabs in Qatar to learn foreign languages.
3. "I wish I could speak another language perfectly".
4. "I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation".
5. "I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language".
6. "I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages".
7. "If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English".
8. "I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required".
9. "I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages".
10. "Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience".

3.6.4 Scale 4: Integrative orientation

This scale consisted of four positively worded items emphasizing the importance of learning the English language in order to be able to engage in social interaction with British people and communicate more freely with people from different cultures and countries. In this scale, the participants were asked to indicate their personal feelings about the items on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The maximum possible score of the measure was 25, which would indicate that the participant had an integrative reason for learning English.

1. Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English.
2. Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.
3. Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate British art and literature.
4. Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.

3.6.5 Scale 5: Instrumental Orientation

This scale included four positively worded items showing the importance of and pragmatic reasons for learning English language. In this scale, the participants were asked to indicate their personal feelings about the items on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The maximum possible score of the measure was 20 which would indicate that the participant had instrumental and utilitarian reasons for learning English or in other words, using the English language as a means to achieve something.

1. Studying English can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career.
2. Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.
3. Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.
4. Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language.

3.6.6 Scale 6: English class anxiety

This scale was used to measure the participants' anxiety within their English classrooms. High values (maximum=25) indicated a high level of anxiety. In this scale, the participants were asked to indicate their personal feelings about the items on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and the scores reflect the participants' degree of discomfort in their English classes.

1. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class.
2. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our English class.
3. I always feel that other students speak English better than I do.
4. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.

3.6.7 Scale 7: Parental encouragement

This scale consisted of 10 positively worded items. The aim of this measure was to assess the students' feelings about the parental support they received in studying the

English language. In this scale, the participants were asked to indicate their personal feelings about the items on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The maximum possible score of the measure was 50 which would indicate a high level of perceived parental encouragement.

1. My parents try to help me with my English.
2. My parents feel that because English is an international language, I should learn it.
3. My parents feel that I should continue studying English all through school.
4. My parents think I should devote more time to my English studies.
5. My parents really encourage me to study English.
6. My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English course.
7. My parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible.
8. My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me when I leave school.
9. My parents feel that I should really try to learn English.
10. My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my English.

3.6.8 Scale 8: Motivational Intensity

This scale consisted of 9 multiple-choice items tailored to measure the motivational intensity of the participants' motivation to learn the English language in terms of participating in the class by volunteering answers to questions asked by the teacher, how much they thought about what they had studied in their English class, and so on. Students gaining a high score (maximum=27) were considered those who put a high degree of effort into learning the English language.

1. I actively think about what I have learned in my English class:
 - a) Very frequently.
 - b) Hardly ever.
 - c) Once in a while.
2. If English were not taught in school, I would:
 - a) Pick up English in everyday situations (i.e., read English books and newspapers, try to speak it whenever possible, etc.).
 - b) Not bother learning English at all.
 - c) Try to obtain lessons in English somewhere else.
3. When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I:
 - a) Immediately ask the teacher for help.
 - b) Only seek help just before the exam.

- c) Just forget about it.
- 4. When it comes to English homework, I:
 - a) Put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
 - b) Work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.
 - c) Just skim over it.
- 5. Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I:
 - a) Do just enough work to get along.
 - b) Will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work.
 - c) Really try to learn English.
- 6. If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would:
 - a) Definitely volunteer.
 - b) Definitely not volunteer.
 - c) Only do it if the teacher asked me directly.
- 7. After I get my English assignments back, I:
 - a) Always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes.
 - b) Just throw them in my desk and forget them.
 - c) Look them over, but don't bother correcting mistakes.
- 8. When I am in English class, I:
 - a) Volunteer answers as much as possible.
 - b) Answer only the easier questions.
 - c) Never say anything.
- 9. When I hear an English song on the radio, I:
 - a. Listen to music, paying attention only to the easy words.
 - b. Listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
 - c. Change the station.

3.6.9 Scale 9: Desire to learn English

This scale was used to assess desire and willingness to accomplish goals in learning English language. It consisted of 10 multiple-choice items. A high score (maximum=30) suggested a high desire to learn English and that the student wanted to learn the language.

- 1) During English class, I would like:
 - a) To have a combination of Arabic and English spoken.
 - b) To have as much English as possible spoken.
 - c) To have only Arabic spoken.
- 2) If I had the opportunity to speak English outside of school, I would:
 - a) Never speak it.
 - b) Speak English most of the time, using Arabic only if really necessary.
 - c) Speak it occasionally, using it whenever possible.
- 3) Compared to my other courses, I like English:
 - a) The most.
 - b) The same as all the others.

- c) Least of all.
- 4) If there were an English club in my school, I would:
 - a) Attend meetings once in a while.
 - b) Be most interested in joining.
 - c) Definitely not join.
- 5) If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:
 - a) Would definitely take it.
 - b) Would drop it.
 - c) Don't know whether I would take it or not
- 6) I find studying English:
 - a) Not interesting at all.
 - b) No more interesting than other subjects.
 - c) Very interesting.
- 7) If the opportunity arose and I knew enough English, I would watch English TV programmes:
 - a) Never
 - b) As often as possible.
 - c) Sometimes.
- 8) If I had the opportunity to see a film in English, I would:
 - a) Go only if I had nothing else to do.
 - b) Definitely go.
 - c) Not go.
- 9) If there were English-speaking families in my neighbourhood, I would:
 - a) Never speak English with them.
 - b) Speak English with them sometimes.
 - c) Speak English with them as much as possible.
- 10) If I had the opportunity and knew enough English, I would read English magazines and newspapers:
 - a) As often as I could.
 - b) Never.
 - c) Not very often.

3.6.10 Scale 10: English teacher

In this construct, the participants were asked to rate their opinions of their teacher by means of semantic differential scales. In these, participants were given 23 bipolar adjectives and were asked to rate the teachers on a number of 5-point scales. The higher the score (maximum=115), the more positive was their evaluation of the teacher. Bipolar adjectives “are very easy to construct and”, they “appear less offensive than complete evaluative statements when talking about sensitive issues” (Dörnyei, 2001a,

p.201). Four dimension formed the concept of the teacher, and each dimension was evaluated using different bipolar adjectives as follows:

English teacher: Evaluation. In this subscale, the students were asked to give their general evaluative reactions concerning their English instructor on a 5-point semantic differential scale with 10 bipolar adjectives, and each pair form two opposite poles. These bipolar adjectives were unfriendly-friendly, unreliable-reliable, inconsiderate-considerate, bad-good, unpleasant-pleasant, inefficient-efficient, impolite-polite, insincere-sincere, undependable-dependable, and cheerless-cheerful.

English teacher: Rapport. The aim of this part of the scale was to assess what kind of rapport or relationship the teacher had with students. The 4 bipolar adjectives of 'rapport' were insensitive-sensitive, unapproachable-approachable, impatient-patient, and disinterested-interested.

English teacher: Competence. The students' evaluation of their teacher's competence was measured on a 5-point semantic differential scale with 5 pairs of adjectives. These were disorganised-organised, unindustrious-industrious, unintelligent-intelligent, incapable-capable, and incompetent-competent.

English teacher: Inspiration. In this subscale, students were presented with 4 bipolar adjectives to express their feelings about their teacher as a source of inspiration. These adjectives were presented in the form of 5-point semantic differential scales. The evaluative scales were colourless-colourful, unimaginative-imaginative, dull-exciting, and tedious-fascinating.

3.6.11 Scale 11: English Course

In this measure, the participants were given 23 bipolar adjectives to give their opinions of their English course on a number of 5-point semantic differential scales. The higher the score (maximum=115), the more positive the evaluation of their course. Each dimension of this variable was evaluated using different bipolar adjectives, as follows:

English Course: Evaluation. In this subscale, the students were asked to give their general evaluative reactions of their English course on 5-point semantic differential scales with 9 bipolar adjectives, and each pair formed two opposite poles. These bipolar adjectives were bad-good, disagreeable-agreeable, painful-pleasurable,

unsatisfying-satisfying, awful-nice, unpleasant-pleasant, unenjoyable-enjoyable, unrewarding-rewarding, and worthless-valuable.

English Course - Difficulty. In this factor, the students were given 5 items on 5-point semantic differential scales with 5 pairs of adjectives. These bipolar adjectives were simple-complicated, elementary-complex, effortless-hard, clear-confusing, and easy-difficult.

English Course - Utility. The usefulness of the English course for the students was assessed using five items on 5-point semantic differential scales with 5 bipolar adjectives. These were noneducational-educational, meaningless-meaningful, unnecessary-necessary, useless-useful, and unimportant-important.

English Course – Interest. This subscale consisted of five items on 5-point semantic differential scales with 4 pairs of adjectives. These bipolar adjectives were fascinating-tedious monotonous-absorbing, boring-interesting, and dull-exciting.

3.7 MAIN QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Walonick (2013, p.3) points out that “there are basically two kinds of research questions: testable and non-testable. Neither is better than the other”. Non-testable research questions usually, for example, start with *What*, for example, ‘What are students attitudes toward the new book?’, whereas testable research questions usually, for example, start with ‘Is there a significant relationship between ...’ or ‘Is there a significant difference between ...’. Although non-testable questions are useful to administrators and planners, they do not, unlike testable questions, provide a researcher with objective answers (cut-off points) for decision makers (Walonick, 2013, p.3). Testable questions were chosen in the present study because the hypotheses associated with this kind of question can be tested. In other words, “to answer questions like this you have to transform the research question into a testable hypothesis called the null hypothesis, conventionally labelled H_0 ” (Bowers, 2008, p.142). Hypotheses are mainly classified into two kinds. A research, experimental or alternative hypothesis is

often abbreviated as H_a , H_A or H_1 , and it changes a research question into a statement or belief. It is a statement of what the researcher thinks, predicts or believes will be the outcome of the study. If a researcher does not have a research hypothesis involving a belief, suspicion, doubt or prediction concerning the phenomenon under investigation, the question arises as to why s/he is conducting such a study. Meanwhile, the null hypothesis is abbreviated as H_0 . This is tested because it offers more precision. The null hypothesis is formed by inserting the word “no”, “not”, “the same” or “equal”, giving the meaning of no change in variables, no relationship between variables or no difference in the effect of the variables in the situation studied. In other words, the researcher is stating that there is no effect of one or more independent variables on one or more dependent variables. Null hypotheses are tested statistically, but the research/alternative hypothesis is never. Walonick (2013, p.5) states that “all statistical testing is done on the null hypothesis, never the hypothesis [the research hypothesis]”. The researcher’s aim is to reject the null hypothesis because s/he also wants to prove that there is statistical significance in the findings obtained, and also to reject the null hypothesis allows the claim that the results gained are not due to chance or random variations. However, researchers have to be aware of type I and type II errors. A type one error is “when you reject the null hypothesis when it is, in reality, true”. Thus, you would suggest a difference where, in reality, none exists. In contrast, a type II error is “when you accept the null hypothesis when it is false”. Thus, you would suggest no difference, where a difference does exist (Gratton & Jones, 2010, p.227). A straightforward explanation is that a type I error is when you reject the null-hypothesis when it is true, whereas a type II error is when you reject the research hypothesis when it is true (Cleark-Carter, 2004)

After analysing the data, the researcher can either a) reject the null hypothesis or b) fail to reject that null hypothesis. When the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, this means that not enough evidence has been presented to show that the null hypothesis is wrong. In the event of failing to reject the null hypothesis, “accept the null hypothesis” should not be said because the researcher is not sure whether or not the null hypothesis is correct; s/he just does not have enough evidence to be sure that the null hypothesis is incorrect. However, when the statistical test enables the researcher to “reject the null hypothesis”, the phrase “support the alternative hypothesis” can be used (Clark-Carter, 2004; Walonick, 2013). Therefore, when we reject the null hypothesis, we say the null hypothesis is rejected. This indicates, that the data provide us with enough evidence to support the research hypothesis and reject the null hypothesis. On the other hand, when the null hypothesis is not rejected, we say we failed to reject the null hypothesis (never say accepted), and the alternative/research hypothesis is not supported. That is, the evidence we have is not enough to reject the null hypothesis, and, at the same time, we cannot prove the research/alternative hypothesis. In conclusion, “since we are dealing with probabilities, we do not say that we have proven the [alternative/research] hypothesis or the null hypothesis” (Howitt & Duncan, 2011, p.33).

3.8 STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

The main concern of researchers using inferential statistics is to test for the ‘statistical significance’ of the results, which refers to the ability of the data to reveal a true or real difference or relationship in the results obtained. Statistical significance is when the difference or relationship that is observed is deemed reliable, and the results are unlikely to be due to chance. Significance is a term which shows how sure the researcher is that the difference between or the relationship between two groups or more exists. Statistical significance is measured using a probability coefficient (p). In

statistical tables significance is typically marked by one asterisk (*) which indicates that $p < .05$, two asterisks (**) which indicates that $p < .01$, or three asterisks (***) which indicates that $p < .001$. In this study, the value of alpha (α) or level of significance was set at 0.05 as in most educational research. This means that with the results obtained, there is only a 5 out of 100 or 1 in 20 chance of an effect being due to random error or variation and not due to the independent variables. In other words, there is a 95 out of 100 chance that the independent variables were the cause of the effect on the dependent variable (Dörnyei, 2007; Langdridge, 2013; Walonick, 2013).

3.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In this study, a quantitative approach was implemented using a questionnaire, and the qualitative approach was also followed through the use of focus group interviews. The purpose of using the focus group interviews was to gain more in-depth answers from students and to cover issues not raised in the questionnaire.

The analysis of the data looked for differences between female and male students in regard to the eleven factors dealt with in the questionnaire. The relationships between these factors and the students' achievement in English were also investigated using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) software, which "is the most widely used statistical package in the social science" (Cohen et al., 2007, p.2). This idea is confirmed by Blaxter et al. (2006) who state that researchers in social science departments in universities mostly use SPSS.

This study also required quantitative analysis, which can be of two types: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The former includes graphical descriptions such as pie charts and histograms, and summaries presented by calculating frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviations. On the other hand, inferential statistics

involves numerical techniques to draw one or more conclusions about a population, based on data taken from a sample of that population (Phelps et al., 2007). Steinberg (2004) explains that inferential statistics tell researchers how confidently they can infer that their quantitative findings are probably a true reflection of their sample and not due to chance or error.

The inferential statistical tests which were implemented in this study were independent *t*-tests and the Spearman correlation. In order to estimate population parameters, the best way is to look at sample values. *T*-tests are powerful and very robust against violations of parametric assumptions (Langdridge, 2004). Therefore, an independent *t*-test is used by researchers to test for a difference between two unrelated groups. A significant *t* value indicates that a true difference exists between the two groups. On the other hand, the Spearman correlation is used in data analysis to see if there is a relationship between two variables which is greater than what would be expected due to chance; and therefore a significant value of *r* indicates that a true relationship does exist between two variables (Lodico et al., 2010). Steinberg (2004) remarks that a correlation is said to be positive when an association or a relationship between variables is present, and the covariance of the variables lies in the same direction, whereas a negative correlation occurs when covariance exists but the variables take opposite directions. A correlation ranges from -1.0 which is a perfect negative correlation, to a perfect positive correlation of +1.0, while 0.0 shows no correlation or no relationship at all.

Comparisons between groups using the *t*-test were conducted, and the results are shown in tables followed by interpretations of each table. In order to give a multidimensional, comprehensive, detailed and accurate answer to each of the main

research hypotheses, the sub-null hypotheses of that main hypothesis were tested to see if differences between males and females existed. To do this, the researcher had to split the sex file into two groups (males and females). This procedure was done through the Split File command in SPSS (the Statistical Package for the Social Science). It is very well-known to researchers who are familiar with SPSS that “the Split File command is a simple and yet very useful tool” (Connolly, 2007, p.74). Pallant (2010) concurs with this view saying that when a researcher is interpreting the output of a study, it is useful to consider other questions in that study to explore in depth the nature of relationships or differences. She further points out that “this means that you will look at the results for each of the subgroups separately. This involves splitting the sample into groups according to one of your independent variables” (p.272).

3.10 RESEARCH QUESTIONS, AND HYPOTHESES AND THE ELEVEN ATTITUDINAL AND MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

Frist Main Question and Hypothesis:

Q 1: Is there a significant difference between male and female students in regard to the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors?

H_a 1: There is a significant difference between male and female students in regard to the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors.

H_0 1: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors.

Sub null-hypotheses:

➤ $H_{1.1}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people..

➤ $H_{1.2}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward learning English.

➤ $H_{1.3}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their interest in learning foreign languages.

➤ $H_{1.4}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their integrative orientations.

- $H_{1.5}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their instrumental orientations.
- $H_{1.6}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their English class anxiety.
- $H_{1.7}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their perceived parental encouragement.
- $H_{1.8}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their motivational intensity to learn English.
- $H_{1.9}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their desire to learn English.
- $H_{1.10}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their evaluation of their teacher in general.
- $H_{1.11}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their evaluation of their course in general.

Second Main Question and Hypothesis:

Q 2: Is there a significant relationship between the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors, and the students' English language achievement?

$H_{a.2}$: There is a significant relationship between the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors, and the students' English language achievement.

$H_{0.2}$: There is no significant relationship between the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors, and the students' English language achievement.

Sub null-hypotheses:

- $H_{0.2.1}$: There is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward British people and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.2}$: There is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward learning English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.3}$: There is no significant relationship between students' interest in foreign languages and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.4}$: There is no significant relationship between students' integrative orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.5}$: There is no significant relationship between students' instrumental orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

- $H_{0.2.6}$: There is no significant relationship between students' English class anxiety and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.7}$: There is no significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.8}$: There is no significant relationship between students' motivational intensity and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.9}$: There is no significant relationship between students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.10}$: There is no significant relationship between students' impressions about their English teacher and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
- $H_{0.2.11}$: There is no significant relationship between students' impressions about their English course and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Correlations of the Aggregate Hypotheses (Scores) with Achievement:

- $H_{0.2.12}$: There is no significant relationship between students' integrativeness and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
 - ❖ The students' integrativeness in null-hypothesis $H_{0.2.12}$ is the aggregate of integrative orientation ($H_{0.2.4}$), interest in foreign languages ($H_{0.2.3}$) and, attitudes toward British people ($H_{0.2.1}$). See section 2.9, 2.10 & 5.1 and Table 4.32 for details.
- $H_{0.2.13}$: There is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward the learning situation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
 - ❖ The students' attitudes toward the learning situation in the null-hypothesis $H_{0.2.13}$ is the aggregate of students' impressions of their English teacher ($H_{0.2.10}$) and students' impressions of their English course ($H_{0.2.11}$). See section 2.9 & 5.5 and Table 4.33 for details.
- $H_{0.2.14}$: There is no significant relationship between students' motivation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).
 - ❖ The students' motivation in the null-hypothesis $H_{0.2.14}$ is the aggregate of students' attitudes toward learning English ($H_{0.2.2}$), students' motivational

intensity ($H_{0.2.8}$), and students' desire to learn English ($H_{0.2.9}$). See section 5.2 and Table 4.34 for details.

Note that the three aggregated measures of integrativeness - attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation - were tested using correlations mainly because the “correlations of aggregate scores will be more consistent from sample to sample than the elements that go to make up the aggregate” (Gardner, 2012, p.223). Furthermore, more complete picture of the other variables as one component is given. These measures were aggregated to provide an overall measure of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation. As stated by Gardner (2010, p.23), “in general, motivation is defined as the aggregate of these three variables as either one alone does not yield a complete index of motivation”.

3.11 VARIABLES IN THE STUDY

Research variables can be generally categorized as either independent or dependent. Gray (2004) states that the subject of or issue in a study is called the dependent variable, whereas the independent variable affects the dependent variable (see Table 3.6). By the same token, Steinberg (2004) explains that in a cause-and-effect experiment, the variable that a researcher is manipulating in order to see its impact on other variables is the independent variable, which may be referred to as X or the cause. In contrast, the variable referred to as Y or the effect of independent variables is the dependent variable. When planning the research design, what is to be measured should be identified from the beginning of the research. Therefore, the variables the researcher is trying to measure are called the dependent variables. They represent the data that allow researchers to answer their research questions, and are called dependent variables because they depend upon or are caused by other variables which are either naturally occurring or result from the researcher's manipulation. On the other

hand, the variables that are responsible for causing changes in the dependent variables are termed independent variables. They are independent because variations in these factors do not depend upon other factors in the study (McQueen & Knussen, 2006). It is further suggested that when in doubt researchers should “always return to the research issue and hypotheses – what questions are you asking and what are you predicting” (McQueen & Knussen, 2006, p.35). In this study, sex is the independent variable and the eleven factors are dependent variables as shown in table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Testing the research hypothesis (hypothesis one).

Using T-Test		
Independent Variables		The Dependent Variables
Group	Subgroups	
Sex	Male	1. Attitudes toward British people. 2. Attitudes toward learning English. 3. Interest in foreign languages. 4. Integrative orientation. 5. Instrumental orientation. 6. English class anxiety. 7. Parental encouragement. 8. Motivational intensity. 9. Desire to learn English. 10. English teacher. 11. English course.
	Female	

Cohen et al. (2007) point out that many statistical tests operate with dependent and independent factors, for example, t-tests (see Table 3.6) and the analysis of variance; while other statistical tests do not, such as correlational statistics or factor analysis. They additionally urge researchers to consider the relationships between variables. Therefore, in the second main hypothesis in this study, the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors are termed predictors and the students' grades as outcomes or criterion variables (see Table 3.7). This “allows us to argue that while one variable might predict another, it does not necessarily cause it” (McQueen & Knussen, 2006, p.73).

Correspondingly, Clark-Carter (2004) states that when two variables are correlated, some predictability of the relationship between them will exist. Furthermore, “when the values of one variable are being used to predict the values of another ... then the often preferred terms are *predictor variable* and *criterion variable*. This usage emphasises the point that no manipulation has occurred” (Clark-Carter, 2004, p.38) (italics in original).

Table 3.7: Testing the research hypothesis (hypothesis two).

Correlation	
Predictors	Outcome measures
1. Attitudes toward British people. 2. Attitudes toward learning English. 3. Interest in foreign languages. 4. Integrative orientation. 5. Instrumental orientation. 6. English class anxiety. 7. Parental encouragement. 8. Motivational intensity. 9. Desire to learn English. 10. English teacher. 11. English course	Indices of achievement: student scores & self-ratings of proficiency

Indices of achievement

Self-ratings of English language proficiency: Various studies have used self-ratings of English language proficiency to measure level of English (Bernaus et al., 2004; Clément et al., 1994; Fat, 2004; Gardner, 2006, 2007, 2010, 2012; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b; Hakuta & D’andrea, 1992; Hengsadeekul et al., 2014; Ismail, 2007; Lalonde & Gardner, 1984; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Marian et al., 2007; MacIntyre et al., 1997; Ming, 2007; Pineda, 2011; Souriyavongsa et al., 2013; Tran, 2010; Wells et al., 2009; Zheng, 2010; Zanghar, 2012). Ayers (2010, p.1364) acknowledges that “it

is well known that self-reports are susceptible to large systematic biases, yet many studies have relied on self-reported linguistic measures". A similar view is held by Tran (2010, p.265) who states that "even though these self-reported measures are widely used, concerns over their potential validity have been raised. However, previous research has shown that these measures are highly reliable and valid because they strongly correlate with actual language ability". Researchers such as LeBlanc and Painchaud (1985) have also concluded after several stages of research that researchers should consider self-assessment as "a very valuable tool as a placement instrument" (p.673).

English course scores: Student scores have also been used in many studies (Al-Buainain & Al-Emadi, 1998; Abdul-Rahman, 2011; Abdol Latif et al., 2011; Colak, 2008; Chang, 2005; Falout et al., 2009; Ismail, 2007; Khamkhien, 2011; Nuchnoi, 2008; Obeidat, 2005; Phettongkam, 2009; Samad et al., 2012; Solak,2012; Tseng, 2013; Zheng, 2010; Zanghar, 2012). In this study, a "space was provided for students' to fill in their ... scores but students' names were not asked for as it might affect negatively the honesty in answering" the question related to their scores (Samad, 2012, p.434). Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p.17) also acknowledge that the main reason to adopt this practice is that anonymous participants are more likely to provide answers which are less self-protective and presumably more accurate than participants who know that their names are going to be identified. They additionally point out that "in a student questionnaire that asked the learners to evaluate their language teacher and course", which was the case in the present study, it was felt that students filling out such a questionnaire would be unlikely to give researchers honest answers without being assured about the confidentiality of their responses and the anonymity of the

questionnaires (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p.17). They further conclude that “following the same reasoning - and particularly when legal considerations, such as local research ethical regulations, also necessitate it - researchers often feel “forced” to make the survey anonymous” (p.17). Moreover, it is often impractical and sometimes impossible for researchers to obtain school records of students’ grades. Instead, self-report test scores are often used (Kuncel et al., 2005; Cole & Gonyea, 2010). Anaya (1999) data from 1,408 college students used to test the validity and accuracy rates of self-report test scores, and showed high correlations with their actual scores. A similar conclusion was also reached by Cole and Gonyea (2010). Finally, Gardner (2010, p.5) points out that “many studies of motivation and second language acquisition often use as indices of achievement grades in the course, teacher ratings, objective tests of vocabulary knowledge, grammar, and/or aural comprehension, ratings of oral speech, or even self-ratings of proficiency”. After all, if a researcher does not trust the participants of the study reporting their test scores, it would make little sense to trust them with other questions in the questionnaire or interview.

3.12 QUALITATIVE APPROACH TO MOTIVATION

Traditionally a qualitative approach was not part of the L2 motivation research repertoire, due to the influence of quantitative social psychology. The adoption of qualitative approaches, however, is very useful in gathering data about the dynamic nature of motivation. Ushioda (1994) supports the use of qualitative approaches in studying L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a). She points out that the value of qualitative methods lies in the power to shed light on different aspects of motivation in a case under study (Ushioda, 2001). Ushioda (1994, p82) states that her findings are “descriptive and suggestive” and she hopes that her study highlights the importance of

exploring L2 motivation as a qualitative construct and to illustrate the dynamic nature of L2 learning. She suggests that:

Other investigations might fruitfully extend this line of inquiry by examining different learning and cultural contexts, languages of study, age-groups and proficiency levels. The generally positive impact of high levels of motivation on levels of L2 achievement has been extensively documented in the existing quantitative research tradition. A more introspective approach to the perceived dynamic interplay between learning experience and individual motivational thought processes may offer a better understanding of how these high levels of motivation might be effectively promoted and sustained. (Ushioda, 1994, p.83)

Ushioda (1994) points out that some motivational perspectives were obtained from her data despite the small number of participants. This reflects the view of Dörnyei (2001a, p.240) who states that his “experience is similar: the amount of new insight gained from a recent interview study with 50 learners ... was most convincing with regard to the potential value of qualitative research in L2 motivation research”. He further adds that qualitative study can provide more understanding of the complex interaction of social, cultural and psychological factors within the participants themselves. For these reasons, the present researcher was encouraged to combine the qualitative approach with the main quantitative approach.

3.13 APPROACHES TO QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

There are different kinds of approaches to qualitative research with different epistemological and methodological positions (Langdrige, 2004). Langdrige summarizes these different approaches into two general groups:

1. Those that emphasise meaning for the participants (phenomenology, life story/ethnography and grounded theory).

2. Those that concentrate on language use (discourse analysis).
(Langdridge, 2004, p.258)

A similar stance is taken by Phelps et al. (2007) who state that the analysis of qualitative data in ethnographic research will differ considerably from that in discourse analysis, thematic analysis, content analysis, case study research or action research. Phelps et al. (2007) listed three main groups of approaches which may be useful, although they note that these approaches may overlap.

1. Language-oriented research approaches analyse data concerned with language and the meanings of words, and include content analysis, discourse analysis, ethnoscience, structural ethnography and symbolic interactionism.
2. Descriptive/interpretive research approaches can give insights into the phenomenon under investigation. Although this approach does not explicitly aim to generate theory, it provides a systematic and illuminating description of the case under study. This approach examines texts for topics or themes, breaks text into segments and attaches to each theme a keyword or code, and brings together the segments of the text that deal with the same theme.
3. Theory-building research approaches collect data with the aim to generate a theory.

3.14 INTERVIEWS

Dörnyei (2001a), and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) list four types of interviews. The first three involve a one-to-one format, and the other is a group format. In structured interviews, the interviewer uses a pre-prepared interview guide which has a list of questions to elicit data during the interview from the participants (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). An advantage of structured interviews is comparability across participants, while a disadvantage is the limited richness of data. Similarly, Corbetta (2003) explains that structured interviews are those in which the interviewees are asked the same questions with the same wording following the same schedule. This procedure is followed to ensure that the researcher has no influence on the data elicited from the participants.

The interviewer here usually does not give his or her opinion nor asks supplementary questions. The interviewer's role might be to ask the interviewees to clarify things which are not clear or to elaborate on some of the information they give (Maltby et al., 2010). However, Hays and Singh (2012) argue that the more the questions in an interview are structured, the more the interview loses its qualitative features. This is supported by Dawson (2009) who points out that because this kind of interview is highly structured, it is commonly used in quantitative research. Langdridge (2004) lists the advantages and disadvantages of structured interviews (Table 3.8), unstructured interviews (Table 3.9), and semi-structured interviews (Table 3.10).

Table 3.8: Advantages and disadvantages of structured interviews (Langdridge, 2004, p.51).

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Easy to administer ➤ Easily replicated ➤ Generalisable results (if the sample is adequate) ➤ Simple data analysis ➤ Lower influence for interpersonal variables ➤ High reliability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Respondent constrained ➤ Reduced richness ➤ Information may be distorted through poor question wording ➤ Suffers from difficulties associated with questionnaires

The opposite of a structured interview is the unstructured interview. Kumar (2014, p.177) indicates that these are “extremely useful in exploring intensively and extensively and digging deeper into a situation, phenomenon, issue or problem”. He additionally states that the strength of this kind of interview lies in the freedom of the researcher to ask any question or change the order of questions as long as they are still relevant to the phenomenon under investigation. Similarly, Dörnyei (2001a, p.238) suggests that the unstructured interview “allows maximum flexibility to ‘follow’ the interviewee in unpredictable directions”. Therefore, issues which may arise during the

interview might spur the researcher to formulate new questions during the discussion (Kumar, 2014). Using this kind of interview, researchers are hoping to create a friendly atmosphere in which they can get more information, and the respondents may reveal more than in formal interviews (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) explain that researchers do not need to prepare a detailed interview guide before this kind of interview. Instead, they only need to have a few opening questions (from one to two questions) to elicit information from the interviewees. This agrees with Hays and Singh (2012, p.240) remarks that “the label *unstructured* is misleading, since no interview can truly be unstructured and is more likely a “guided conversation”” (italics in original). Unstructured interviews also have advantages and disadvantages. Because they take place in a more relaxed atmosphere in which the interviewer can probe more complex issues and ask the participants to clarify their answers, the interviewer may obtain more in-depth and important information. On the other hand, to collect unstructured interview data is time-consuming and expensive, and the data is difficult to analyse. These interviews also require very high skills to conduct them and analyse the data (Bowling, 2009; Kumar, 2014).

Table 3.9: Advantages and disadvantages of unstructured interview (Langdridge, 2004, p.50).

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Flexible ➤ Rich data ➤ Relaxes interviewee ➤ Should produce valid (meaningful) data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Unsystematic ➤ Difficult to analyse data ➤ Strongly influenced by interpersonal variables ➤ Not reliable

Semi-structured interviews are the kind of interview most often used in qualitative social research. Researchers using semi-structured interviews usually want specific information which can be compared with other information they have already gathered

in other interviews (Dawson, 2009). Walliman (2011) comments that the semi-structured interview is a mixture of qualitative and quantitative interviews; therefore, it includes standardised and open questions. Similarly, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010, p.236) explain that semi-structured interviews “offer a compromise between the two extremes” of unstructured and structured interviews. Dörnyei (2001a) further adds that regardless of the preparation of guiding questions and prompts, the format of questions is still open-ended, and the researcher encourages participants to elaborate more on the topic under investigation. Similarly, Drever (2003) suggests two kinds each of subordinate prompts and probes questions to enrich the data. A type one prompt is when the interviewer uses a prompt to encourage the interviewee, while a type two prompt is used to ensure that the interviewee says as much as they can or wish to explain. Furthermore, type one probes are used by interviewers in order to probe for more detail on issues mentioned during the interviews by the interviewees. At the same time, type two probes are used in order to ask participants to explain and clarify their answers. Dawson (2009) advises researchers to keep the interview flexible in order to gain more important information from interviewees. Hays and Singh (2012) conclude that despite the absence of consistency in the data collection experience across different interviewees, the semi-structured interview partly overcomes this disadvantage in two ways: giving more detailed information about the phenomenon under study and showing more of the interviewee’s voice.

Table 3.10: Advantages and disadvantages of semi-structured interview (Langdridge, 2004, p.50).

Advantages	Disadvantages
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Can compare responses and analyse data more easily ➤ No topics missed ➤ Reduction of interpersonal bias ➤ Respondent not constrained by fixed answers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Some loss of flexibility for interviewer ➤ Question wording may reduce richness ➤ Less natural ➤ Limits to generalisation
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Finally, focus group interviews provide researchers with a substitute for semi-structured interviewing (Willig, 2013). These usually consist of 6 to 12 participants who discuss a topic (Dörnyei, 2001a). Bowling (2009) also states that many focus groups contain 6 to 12 participants. He further remarks that there are no strict guidelines or rules when conducting a focus group interview. Investigators tend to concentrate in depth on a specific topic which should be related to the participants' experience in order for interaction to occur amongst them (Walliman, 2011). Ary et al. (2013) comment that one of the advantages of the focus group is that the interviewees respond not only to the investigator but also to their peers in the discussion. In the same way, Bowling (2009, p.424) acknowledges that focus group interviews "have the advantage of making use of group dynamics to stimulate discussion, gain insights and generate ideas in order to pursue a topic in greater depth". He additionally argues that the group leader or moderator, sometimes called the facilitator, usually uses an unstructured guide, or a topic or question list in order to encourage the interviewees and to create an active discussion. Likewise, Maltby et al. (2010) indicate that to run a focus group interview well, a skilled, experienced facilitator is needed to run the session. They list six important points that a 'moderator' should take into consideration before and during the discussion.

1. The researcher should plan the questions carefully. The questions should be open and natural in nature to encourage students to engage in a deeper discussion.

2. The researcher should make sure a private area is chosen for the session with no distractions in order to be able to pick up what everyone says.
3. The researcher should encourage the discussion. For example, everyone in the group can be asked to give a response to the question.
4. The researcher should give positive feedback to the participants.
5. The researcher should know how to deal with difficult situations during the discussion. For example, when an interviewee is not giving other interviewees a chance to talk, the researcher should know how to keep the session on track. If the researcher notices that the discussion has become heated and out of hand, he or she can take a five-minute break and resume the interview with another question.
6. The researcher should provide a short break if he or she sees it is needed.

Dawson (2009) argues that in a focus group interview, the discussion is led by the moderator who asks questions, controls digressions and stops any non-relevant conversation. She further points out that the moderator's role is to make sure that no one participant dominates the discussion. She also lists six advantages and disadvantages of focus group interviews (see Table 3.11). Bowling (2009, p.407) concludes that "unstructured interviews and focus group interviews follow an *interpretive approach*, where the aim is to analyse how people understand their social world and the meanings of events" (italics in original). For the present study focus group interviews were chosen for two main reasons: firstly, because of their unique advantages (see Table 3.11 below), and secondly, because for cultural and/or religious reasons it was not possible to interview girls individually.

Research methodologists believe that the "focus group is only as good as its moderator" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.145), and the techniques recommended by many well-known authors (Ary et al., 2013; Dörnyei, 2007; Maltby et al., 2010) were followed when

conducting interviews in this study. A new digital audio recorder was prepared and its batteries were checked, and a quiet room was prepared within the school which had enough tables and chairs for the 8 students in the focus group. The tables were arranged in a circle so that the interviewees could see each other when talking. Then, the researcher welcomed the interviewees and expressed his gratitude for their participation. He informed them how long the interview would be likely to take and explained its purpose and importance for the learning and teaching of English, particularly in Qatar. Next, in order to get their permission for tape recording, they were assured of the confidentiality of both the information they would give and the recording itself explaining the necessity of the recording to make sure that their views were recorded accurately. After their approval was given for the audio recording, the researcher started the interview by asking if they had any questions, aiming to reassure them and also to make them feel comfortable. The discussion started with the participants introducing themselves. During the discussion, the researcher did his best to allow the interviewees to express anything they wanted to say. When participants gave short responses, probing was used in order to encourage them to explain and add to what they had said. There were some debates among the participants with the girls which gave the researcher excellent data. Nevertheless, during the interview with the girls, the researcher noticed that two participants were dominating the discussion. As advised by Dawson (2009), the researcher stopped making eye-contact with these two and looked at the other participants expectantly and started asking others about their opinions; this technique worked. However, in the boys' interview, one participant was dominant and not giving others a chance to contribute. Unfortunately, the strategy of stopping eye-contact did not work with him, but further advice given by Dawson (2009) did work, and that was to thank him and to turn to the other participants and ask

for their opinions. Both interviews lasted for 45 minutes, and afterwards the researcher thanked the participants and asked them if there was any issue or concern they thought needed further discussion. In both interviews, some more important comments were added particularly after the tape recorder was turned off intentionally by the researcher in order to get such comments. That was congruent with Bowling's (2009, p.410) advice that "one technique is to turn the recorder off at the end of the interview and 'chat' to respondents informally as a check on whether they have anything else to add". Finally, the researcher thanked the interviewees for their participation and their help in making the interviews happen.

Table 3.11: Advantages and disadvantages of focus group method (Dawson. 2009, p.30).

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Can receive a wide range of responses during one meeting.	Some people may be uncomfortable in a group setting and nervous about speaking in front of others.
Participants can ask questions of each other, lessening [sic] impact of researcher bias.	Not everyone may contribute.
Helps people to remember issues they might otherwise have forgotten.	Other people may contaminate an individual's views.
Helps participants to overcome inhibitions, especially if they know other people in the group.	Some researchers may find it difficult or intimidating to moderate a focus group.
The group effect is a useful resource in data analysis.	Venues and equipment can be expensive.
Participant interaction is useful to analyse.	Difficult to extract individual views during the analysis.

3.15 THEMATIC ANALYSIS

It should be borne in mind that “nearly as many analysis strategies exist as qualitative researchers” (Crabtree & Miller, 1992, p.17). However, the interview data in this study were analysed based on the thematic analysis method. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.77) acknowledge that “thematic analysis is a poorly demarcated, rarely acknowledged, yet widely used qualitative analytic method ... within and beyond psychology”. Dawson (2009) explains that thematic analysis involves the coding of data by themes. She adds that this kind of analysis is highly inductive. Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that researchers should learn thematic analysis because it provides them with the core skills that will be useful when conducting other forms of qualitative analysis. Howitt and Ducan (2011) state that grounded theory may seem to compete with thematic analysis in the sense that both methods identify themes. Nevertheless, the crucial difference is that grounded theory is always heading towards the generation of theory, whereas the main aim of thematic analysis is a full understanding of data which may or may not also lead to the development of theory. Willig (2013) remarks that a researcher can either adopt a deductive or an inductive approach to conducting thematic analysis. She states that an inductive approach involves using the method from the bottom up, where the researcher approaches the data without an a priori theoretically informed coding frame. On the other hand, the deductive approach is used when the researcher comes to the analysis with a template which is usually derived from the relevant literature. Braun and Clarke (2006) also point out that researchers may use an inductive or ‘bottom up’ way or the deductive or ‘top down’ way to identify themes or patterns within data. In other words, the inductive approach leads to a data-driven analysis, whereas the deductive approach is theory-driven. Braun and Clarke (2006) describe inductive analysis as “a process of coding the data *without* trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the

researcher's analytic preconceptions [italics in original]" (p.83). Conversely, they explain that deductive analysis is driven by the researcher's theoretical interest in the topic and is theory-led. Nevertheless, some researchers may use a combination of inductive and deductive form of thematic analysis whereby the codes used are based on a theoretical background to organise the data but where new themes are allowed to emerge from the analysis of data (Willig, 2013). To conclude, "thematic analysis involves the searching *across* a data set – be that a number of interviews or focus groups, or a range of texts – to find repeated patterns of meaning" (italics in original), (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.86). The researcher in this study decided to use a combination of inductive and deductive thematic analysis, as suggested by Willig (2013, p.60) who points out that "some researchers ... use a combination of inductive and deductive thematic analysis whereby an a priori template is used to organize the data to begin with but where novel themes are also allowed to emerge from analysis". Therefore, in order to provide an organized and systematic thematic analysis, the present researcher used template codes which are the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors (see section 4.5). Accordingly, "theoretically derived, a priori codes and newly emerging themes are then integrated in order to generate a comprehensive thematic description of the data" (Willig, 2013, p.60). Moreover, data from the focus group interviews were analysed manually, as in Abdul-Rahman (2011), although the plan in the beginning was to use NVivo computer software to analyse the data, the researcher decided to analyse the data manually because "in focus groups the group moves through a different sequence of events which is important in the analysis but which cannot be recognised by a computer" (Dawson, 2009, p.126). Dawson further adds that the meaning of text could not be understood by programmes. Abdul-Rahman (2011, p.207) agrees that the disadvantage of the use of a computer in the analysis of interview data is that "in

practice the computer software could not allow coding text unless it was highlighted. A manual system proved to be more efficient”.

3.16 SAMPLING

Sampling techniques are classified into two types. Non-probability sampling techniques are based on selection in a non-random manner. Accidents, convenience, snowball or quota sampling, and the researchers' judgements are among the common types of non-probability sampling techniques. By using this kind of technique, a researcher cannot make generalizations about the population of his or her study. On the other hand, probability sampling techniques give the most reliable and accurate representation of the whole population because each person in the population has the same chance of being selected. In other words, from the sample one can make accurate generalizations about the population. It is important to ask whether or not the population is homogeneous with similar characteristics. If not, there are three different techniques which can be used to make a sample representative of the population of a study: simple random sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling (Walliman, 2011). The technique used for the quantitative part of this study was cluster sampling. Blaxter et al. (2010, p.170) explain that this is “surveying whole clusters of the population sampled at random”. Four schools were chosen for this study, two for girls and two for boys. The total sample was 424 students, and therefore, 106 questionnaires were administered in each of the four schools (see Table 3.12). The method used for selecting the interviewees was quota sampling. In this technique researchers “select individuals as they come to fill a quota by characteristics proportional to populations” (McConville & Chui, 2007, p.56). The sample sizes for the focus group interviews were 8 girls and 8 boys.

Table 3.12: Sample of the study

Four Schools	Sex	Number of students
School No. 1	Females	106
School No. 2	Females	106
School No. 3	Males	106
School No. 4	Males	106
TOTAL of students		424

3.17 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS

De Vaus (2002) states that in order for a question to be reliable, the same question should be answered in the same way if the same person was asked on two different occasions, whereas a valid question is when the question measures what the researcher wants it to measure (Brace, 2013). The criteria from Brace (2013) listed below indicate strategies to check the reliability and validity of questionnaires and interviews within the following three areas: reliability, validity and error testing.

A) Reliability

1. Do the questions of the questionnaire or interview sound right?
2. Are interviewers and participants able to comprehend the questions?
3. Does the interview make the respondents interested in the questions asked during the time of the interview?
4. Can the instructions for the questionnaire be easily understood?
5. Do questions in the questionnaire flow properly?

B) Validity

1. Are the students able to answer the questions?
2. Are there any missing response codes?
3. Do the response codes for each item of the questionnaire provide sufficient discrimination for the participants to understand?
4. Are the answers the respondents give the responses to the questions that the researcher thinks he or she is asking?

C) Error testing

1. Are there any mistakes in the questionnaire?

2. Does the layout of the questionnaire work?
3. Does the technological device used work?
4. How much time does the interviewer need?

Bowling (2009) states that a test of reliability is a test used to show to what extent the items of a scale measure the same construct. He further adds that reliability “refers to the homogeneity of the instrument and the degree to which it is free from random error” (p.162). Similarly, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) define the reliability of a psychometric instrument tool as “to the extent to which scores on the instrument are free from errors of measurement”(p.93).

3.17.1 Reliability Tests

Various authors (Bowling, 2009; Cohen et al., 2007; Lodico et al., 2010) state that reliability can be assessed using certain parameters such as test-retest, alternative forms, and internal consistency.

3.17.1.1 Test-retest

In the test-retest method the researcher gives the same questions to the same respondents at intervals of two to four weeks, and a correlation test is conducted between the two occasions to find the value of correlation or the ‘reliability coefficient’ (De Vaus, 2002) which ranges from a value of zero to +1.00. The closer the value to +1, the more reliable the questionnaire is (Lodico et al., 2010). Therefore, to check the reliability of the questionnaire in this study, the researcher administered the instrument to 50 students from the target sample of the study, at two different times with a two-week gap. The correlation coefficient was .80 which gave the researcher confidence that the questionnaire of the study was stable and reliable, and that it would produce

approximately “the same score at time 2 that it did at time 1 for each person in the sample” (Crosby et al., 2006, p.235).

3.17.1.2 Alternative form or the equivalent form of reliability

In this method of checking reliability, the researcher designs two different instruments (parallel forms) to measure one construct by giving them to the same people. Then the results of the two forms are assessed to see whether or not they produce comparable results. Here it is desirable to achieve correlations of at least ρ 0.8 (Bowling, 2009). Nevertheless, the disadvantage of this procedure is that the researcher has to create two instruments instead of one. Moreover, it is very difficult for most researchers to construct two instruments which are equivalent in their measurement of a phenomenon (Walonick, 2013; Kumar, 2014).

3.17.1.3 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency is a procedure to test for the homogeneity of items; or in other words, to see to what extent the items of a questionnaire relate to a particular factor. There are two main procedures to measure internal consistency. These are split half reliability and Cronbach’s alpha (Bowling, 2009).

3.17.1.3.1 Split-half reliability and Cronbach’s alpha

Brewerton and Millward (2001) explain that split-half reliability means that a researcher separates scale questions or items which are designed to assess the same construct into two halves and examines the correlations between the two subtests of responses. An alternative approach used to assess the internal consistency of a measure is the Cronbach’s alpha statistic, which ranges from values of 0 to +1. Malhotra and Grover (1998) state that Cronbach’s alpha is used to test whether or not the items of a scale ‘hang together’. Therefore, items that do not ought to be taken out of the scale. The

test examines the correlation between each item and the total of other items in the questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2007). However, there is no agreement among researchers about the minimum acceptable standard for the value of Cronbach's alpha for scale reliability. Some researchers "accept 0.50 as an indicator of good internal consistency, especially for short sub-scales" (Bowling, 2009, p.164). Brewerton and Millward (2001) also comment different authors have different opinions on the lowest acceptable levels of internal scale reliability, but most accept figures ranging between 0.6 and 0.7 to be the absolute minimum. In second language acquisition questionnaires, researchers usually want to measure many different areas, because of the complexity of second language acquisition process (Dörnyei, 2003b), Dörnyei (2007, p.207) argues that "somewhat lower Cronbach Alpha coefficients are to be expected, but even with short scales of 3-4 items we should aim at reliability coefficients in excess of 0.70; if the Cronbach Alpha of a scale does not reach 0.60, this should sound warning bells". This is supported by Ringim et al. (2012) whose values of Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.60 to 0.99, and they concluded that the instrument used in their study was reliable.

3.17.2 Validity Tests

Validity refers to the accuracy of an instrument or measure in measuring what it is designed to measure (Lodico et al., 2010). Similarly, Clark-Carter (2004) states that the validity of a test refers to the degree to which what is being measured is what the researcher wanted to measure. There are different forms of validity, including face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity (concurrent validity and predictive validity), and construct validity (convergent validity and discriminant validity). Face validity is purely based on the investigators' subjective assessments of the items of the questionnaire in a study. For example, the investigator checks whether the items or

questions in the instrument are clear, unambiguous and relevant to the desired construct (Bowling, 2009). In a similar manner, content validity also depends on the judgement of the researcher. Here, the researcher checks whether or not the items in the scale represent the 'universe' of all possible indicators relevant to the factor under investigation, and also whether or not the construct includes all of the necessary items (Crosby et al., 2006, p.237). Establishing content validity is a more comprehensive task than with face validity; it requires information to be gathered from various sources, such as academic journals and experts in the same field. Content validity also fully covers the dimensions of the construct the researcher wants to investigate (Jones & Forshaw, 2012). Criterion-related validity means "to relate the results of one particular instrument to another external criterion" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.189). There are two kinds of criterion-related validity. Concurrent validity is when the researcher administers to a pilot group his or her new test or instrument as well as an existing and validated one testing the same thing. Therefore, to have evidence of concurrent validity, the data from the two tests should have a high correlation. Another form of criterion-related validity is predictive validity, which is when we, for example, use the ACT (American College Test) results of the students to help to predict their success at college. Therefore, if the correlation between the ACT (the predictor) and the college success/grade point average (the criterion) is high, then the ACT has criterion-related validity in predicting students' success (Lodico et al., 2010). The third form of validity is construct validity, which refers to the question of whether or not the researcher's instrument really measures the concepts underlying the instrument. Construct validity comprises two parts. Firstly, convergent validity requires that the instrument has a positive relationship with other well-established instruments which measure the same construct. Secondly, discriminant validity requires the instrument to have a lack of relationship or no

correlation with other irrelevant instruments (Brewerton and Millward, 2001). In other words, the instrument used in the research ought to discriminate among unrelated measures.

Although the validity and reliability of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) have been proven in various studies, the AMTB used in this study was given to three English language teachers to review the items in the questionnaire and to ensure the maximum content validity.

3.18 PILOTING AND MODIFICATION OF THE AMTB

Dörnyei (2001a, p.52) states that “adaptations of” the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) “have been used in several data-based studies of L2 motivation all over the world ... and at the moment it is still the only published *standardised test* of L2 motivation” (italics not in original). Nine years later, in his book with Taguchi, Dörnyei still believes that Gardner’s (1985a, 1985b) AMTB is “one of the best-known standardized questionnaires in the L2 field” (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p.25). Many researchers, all over the world, have used the AMTB for their studies because of its content and presentation. Also, it is adopted by many researchers because it covers nearly all of the psychological and motivational factors which have a direct or indirect influence on second or foreign language learning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei, 2005). Therefore, one of the main reasons for the choice in this study of the AMTB as the main instrument is due to its established reliability and validity. For example, the results obtained in Gardner et al.’s (1997) study provide strong support for those of Gardner and Smythe (1981) and Gardner’s (1985a) model. Furthermore, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993b, p.159) state that the reliability and validity of the AMTB have been supported by many studies “(see, e. g., Glikzman, 1976; 1981; Lalonde & Gardner,

1984; Gardner et al., 1985; Gardner & Lysynchuk, 1990; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991)". A similar view is held by Dörnyei (2005) who comments that the AMTB "is a multicomponential motivation questionnaire made up of over 130 items ... which has been shown to have good psychometric properties, including construct and predictive validity" (p.70).

Some researchers, for example, Au (1988) criticised the validity of the socio-educational model, but Gardner and MacIntyre (1993b) refuted their claims against the AMTB's measures. In the conclusions of their study examining the validity of the AMTB of Gardner (1985a), it was concluded that:

In general, the results support the conclusion that the subtests measure what they are intended to measure (construct validity) and that they correlate meaningfully with measures of second language achievement (predictive validity). (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993b, p.188)

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993b) used three methods to assess the 11 attitudinal and motivational variables: Likert scaling on a 7-point scale; the use of a semantic differential format; and using single-item Guilford (1954) scales. From the different assessments used, their calculations of Cronbach's alpha for the internal consistency of the 11 measures of attitudes and motivation ranged from 0.62 (motivational intensity) to 0.95 (French teacher evaluation) which, they concluded, proved the reliability of the AMTB. Furthermore, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) extended the original model by adding three new elements: goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy. The results of their study gave more support to the socio-educational model. In addition, Gardner (2005, 2006, 2010, 2012) intended to prove the generalizability of the socio-educational model against claims that the AMTB is concerned with second language learning and bilingual settings and not is appropriate for other contexts where English is a foreign

language. For example, it has been argued by several researchers (Dörnyei, 1990, 2010; Oxford, 1996; Chambers, 1999) that Gardner's initial research revolved around students in Canada who were living in a bilingual environment of English and French. So, he was exploring an environment where English-speaking students were to learn French on a daily basis in all aspects of life since French was present in the students' formal and informal environments. However, Gardner (2001) states that although their (Gardner and his associates) studies were mostly conducted in a Canadian context where English or French are considered official languages, there is a big chance that the French or English language is not widely spoken in the learners' environment. Furthermore, Gardner (2001) reports that the census of 2001 showed that in Ontario, where much of the research was conducted, "only 4.9% of the population report French as their home language while 73.9% report English" (Gardner, 2006, p.525). Gardner (2010) also maintains that researchers who conducted studies in various countries and failed to replicate the results reported in Canada must have either used tests which were developed by the researchers themselves, or selected only some items of the Attitude Motivation Test Battery or even tested hypotheses not germane to his socio-educational model.

However, because of the "difficulties posed by differing contexts" (Chambers, 1999, p.22), Gardner and his associates also conducted studies in the four European countries of Croatia, Poland, Romania, and Spain where English is regarded as a foreign language. The results obtained from these studies gave values of Cronbach alpha ranging from 0.55 to 0.92 (with median reliabilities ranging from 0.79 to 0.88), "indicate that the AMTB is clearly appropriate to these four counties, and the results typically obtained in Canada are obtained there as well" (Gardner, 2005, p.18). Given

these points, MacIntyre et al. (2009) report that the extensive research by Gardner and his associates proved that the principles of the social-educational model are sound. In his conclusion and based on the findings of his research, Gardner (2005, p.21) advocates that “if one pays attention to adapting the full AMTB to other cultural settings, the result obtained will be consistent with those obtained mostly in Canada and provide further support for the validity of the socio-educational model”. This was verified by a study of Israeli students studying Arabic conducted by Kraemer (1993) in the unique ethnolinguistic situation in Israel. The findings showed that Gardner’s socio-educational model also works in environments that are significantly different from the Canadian context where it was originally tested (Dörnyei, 1998). Kraemer (1993, p.83) comments that the socio-educational model is “indeed generalizable to the context of this study [her study]”. Moreover, Atay and Kurt (2010) conducted a study of 130 language students who were native speakers of Turkish to check the applicability of the socio-educational model in Turkey. Significant correlations were found between the students’ grades and the major elements of the model, which showed that the model is “appropriate to the Turkish context and to the learning of English as a foreign language” (Atay and Kurt, 2010 p.3092). Finally, Dörnyei (1998) underscores the point that because of the standards of the components set by Gardner, Clément and their associates, second language learning research on motivation has always been strong on empirical research.

3.19 TRANSLATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) emphasize the importance of translating an instrument before it is used if the original language is not the same as the target language, and they also urge researchers to treat translation issues more seriously. Therefore, after the initial translation of the questionnaire of this study into Arabic by the researcher,

who is a native speaker of Arabic and has a degree in English language teaching, and to ensure the equivalence to the original version, a bilingual external reviewer was consulted. The reviewer was a linguist with a Ph.D. from the United Kingdom. Furthermore, after the questionnaire was checked by the linguist in English, it was then given to another Ph.D. holder whose field is Arabic linguistics. Their comments were invaluable and relevant modifications were made. Additionally, to check the equivalence of the Arabic and English versions, an independent translator was recruited who has a Master's degree in translation and long experience in the field to back-translate the Arabic version into the English language (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012). Finally, the Arabic version was ready for piloting. These procedures were congruent with the advice of Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, pp.11-12) who state that “constructing a good questionnaire involves ... translating the questionnaire into a target language if it was not originally written in that language”.

3.20 PILOT STUDY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

To pilot-test a research instrument is part and parcel of any study. “It is even more important for researchers with limited resources to pilot-test their questionnaires before spending all their money. *If you do not have the resources to pilot-test your questionnaire, don't do the study* [italics in original]” (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982 p.283). Although piloting a questionnaire may be costly, there is a good chance that doing so will save time and money (Oppenheim, 1992). Dörnyei (2003b) maintains that piloting questionnaires allows researchers to collect feedback from participants about the questionnaire items and whether or not the instruments perform the task they were constructed for. Based on this, Dörnyei and Csizér (2011) listed seven important points to help researchers finalize their questionnaire construction. These are as follows:

(a) Fine-tune the final version of the questionnaire in order to eliminate ambiguous, too difficult/easy, or irrelevant items; (b) improve the clarity of the item wordings and instructions; (c) finalize the layout; (d) rehearse the administration procedures; (e) dry run the analysis in order to see whether the expected findings will potentially emerge from the data; (f) time the completion of the questionnaire; and (G) generally double-check that there are no mistakes left in the instrument (p.79).

Furthermore, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) stress the importance of questionnaire piloting even if the items are from existing instruments. In addition, they urge researchers to submit the items of the questionnaire to analysis. In the present study, the instrument of the main study and the items were tested to see whether or not they would work in practice, and whether or not the participants of the main study were likely to complete the questionnaires in the way the researcher wished. The present researcher was aware that “there is only one way to find out: by administering the questionnaire to a group of respondents who are in every way similar to the target population the instrument was designed for” (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p.56). For this reason, the questionnaire of the present study was piloted with 64 students from the same target sample. The aim was to collect feedback from the pilot sample about the questionnaire’s works and whether adjustments still needed to be made (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The participants in the pilot study were 32 students from the girls’ schools and another 32 from the boys’ schools. The feedback was very helpful in overcoming some of the ambiguities around wording by changing the translation into more meaningful Arabic words. It also gave the researcher a very accurate estimate of how long the average compilation of a questionnaire would take. Moreover, one word, ‘Arabs’, was suggested by many students to be added to item 2 in the scale of interest in foreign language and to item 4 in the scale of attitudes toward British people. Also,

comments were made by some students which drew the researcher’s attention to the style and layout of the questionnaire to give a more professional appearance to it and to have more positive attitudes of the respondents involved in the study. Some spelling mistakes (typos) were also identified by the students which saved the researcher time and money for the final version of the study. The reliability of the questionnaire (Table 3.12) was confirmed by checking its internal consistency using Cronbach’s alpha.

Table 3.13: Cronbach’s alpha: the reliability of the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors in this study.

Attitudinal and motivational factors	Cronbach’s alpha value
1. Attitudes toward British people	.931
2. Attitudes toward learning English	.886
3. Interest in foreign languages	.898
4. Integrative orientation	.911
5. Instrumental orientation	.845
6. English class anxiety	.876
7. Parental encouragement	.871
8. Motivational intensity	.601
9. Desire to learn English	.709
10. English teacher	.976
11. English course	.926

All eleven components reached Dörnyei’s (2007) recommendation concerning reliability, (see section 3.17) ranging from acceptable to excellent, except for the motivational intensity scale. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p.95) suggest that “if some substantial further improvement can [be] achieved by deleting an item that is either

somewhat questionable or is of secondary importance in the scale, I would probably discard it". A similar stance is taken by Bowling (2009) who recommends researchers remove any item with a low value of coefficient alpha because this may indicate that it does not belong to the scale. It was clear from the results that the item-total correlation for Item 9, (If there was a local T.V. station: a) never watch it; b) turn it on occasionally; c) try to watch it often), was significantly lower than for all other corrected item-total correlations. This means that if item 9 was deleted, the internal consistency of the scale would improve. Therefore, item 9 was deleted so that the internal consistency of the subscale, 'motivational intensity,' reached 0.601 which satisfied Dörnyei's recommendations of 0.6 or above (see section 3.17). Therefore, the motivational intensity scale was reduced from having 10 items in the original questionnaire to 9 items. Moreover, the negative items in the scale 'attitudes toward learning English' were reversed, as recommended by Pallant (2010, p.97) who stresses that if a scale "contains some items that are negatively worded (common in psychological measures), these need to be 'reversed' *before* checking reliability" (italics in original). The pilot results for internal consistency in this study are similar to those conducted in four other countries where English is regarded as a foreign language (Croatia, Poland, Romania, and Spain). These results for the reliability of the questionnaire in the present study agreed with the statistical analysis in previous studies of the internal consistency of the instrument and gave the researcher more confidence about using the questionnaire in this study. To conclude, this confidence is also supported by Cohen (2010, p.170) who acknowledges that "the social psychological approach they [Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert] adopted ... is still one of the most influential directions in the study of L2 motivation".

3.21 ORIGINALITY OF THE WORK

The uniqueness of this study lies in the following areas:

1. It is the only study in the Arabic world (as far as the present researcher is aware) which examines the eleven factors in Gardner's model using null hypothesis testing to answer research questions. Therefore, this study makes a major contribution to research on motivation by demonstrating the applicability of the socio-educational model (AMTB) in the Qatari context where English is regarded as a foreign language.
2. No similar study has ever been conducted in Qatar. This is the first time that achievement in English has been tested in an environment which is purely monolingual using the Arabic language. It is the only study in Qatar and in the Arab world which has tested the 11 student attitudinal and motivational factors using the Spearman correlation and t-test (see tables 3.6 & 3.7). Moreover, it is the only study which uses a null-hypothesis for each question to be answered, and which shows whether the null-hypothesis concerned was rejected or not. Also, another unique characteristic of this study is that with each answer to each research question it presents the findings of other studies which support or contradict this answer, irrespective of whether the answer is descriptive or inferential. No previous study has investigated motivation using tables of results with interpretations according to the descriptive and inferential data separately. In addition, no research in the Arab world has tested the three aggregated measures of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation. Furthermore, the main focus of the research is on the interaction between motivation and attitudes in relation to language achievement by Qatari secondary school students in a context where English is not the language of instruction but is a curriculum subject only. Hopefully,

the findings from this study will make several contributions to the current literature on motivation and attitudes in the overall process of language learning.

3. When the researcher of this study was investigating the differences between gender and sex in the Quran, it was very interesting to notice that the singular word 'male' was seen together with its antonym 'female' 10 times, in ten verses of the Quran. Also, the plural word 'men' was seen with 'women' 10 times, in ten verses in the Quran. It was found in the Quran that the two terms 'men' and 'women' (gender) were always used in connection to social behaviour and cultural practice. Moreover, the terms men or women in the Quran always indicate that those addressed have reached or passed the puberty stage. On the other hand, the two terms 'male' and 'female' (sex) were always used in connection to biological distinction. It was very clear that the Quran did not use the terms male/female and men/women interchangeably. This clearly indicates that the Quran was aware of the differences between these two concepts: gender and sex. This finding enhances our understanding of the reading, translation, and interpretation of the Quran. Therefore, the researcher of this study claims that he is the first person (as far as he is aware) to state or 'discover' that the Quran was aware of the differences between sex and gender and their classification. Moreover, this is the first study to mention sex and gender differences in relation to the Quran. However, further research needs to be done to investigate this distinction in the Quran further.

3.22 ETHICAL APPROVAL

The Supreme Council of Education in Qatar welcomes research in the educational field and allows access to schools for the purpose of data collection. Although the researcher was given verbal approval by the school managers to conduct the surveys, official written approval from the Supreme Council of Education in Qatar was also

requested to allow the researcher to conduct the questionnaire and interview survey with students, and permission was obtained (see appendix three). “Although data protection legislation can apply to research data, data in an anonymous/unidentifiable form are exempt from the legislation” (Howitt & Duncan, 2011, p.159). However, Dawson (2009) suggests that when a researcher is dealing with “very sensitive” information and the information is given by the participants in confidence, and the researcher thinks the information could be requested by a court, s/he has to inform the participants that s/he will hand over the information. The introduction to the questionnaire in this study informed participants about the main objectives of the present study, and the participants were also informed in person by the researcher. They were also informed that participation in the study was voluntary, and that they had the right to withdraw at any time. They were assured of the confidentiality of the information which would be provided by them, and it was explained to them that no marks would be given for participation. They were told that agreeing to fill in the questionnaire was considered to be consent to participate in this study. The researcher noted that after the participants of the questionnaires and interviews had been told that the survey was anonymous, they all started participating in the study without hesitation. This observation proves what Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p.81) hold that “anonymity may be desirable from the respondents’ point of view because they may feel safer this way in providing less self-protective and presumably more accurate answers”.

4 CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is firstly to give a clear description of the outcome of the data collection and analysis in this study, and secondly to show the results of the testing of the two main null-hypotheses. This chapter consists of two parts. The first part gives detailed information concerning the quantitative data using descriptive statistics to highlight the most important trends in the data collected from the participants, and then presents inferential statistics to test the hypotheses of the study in order to generalize the results obtained from the sample to the whole population of the study (Antonius, 2003). Inferential statistical interpretations in the present study were based on Maltby et al. (2010). Moreover, the statistical descriptions of data from the items in the questionnaire survey are organized in tables with eleven columns and six rows. The first column lists the items, the second column identifies the sex of the participant, and the third column shows the number of the participants in each category. This is followed by five columns representing levels of agreement with a questionnaire statement using the Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and showing the percentage and number of the participants who gave each response. Then, the mean response of each group is given along with the standard deviation and difference in means between male and female participants. The data is organised in this way in line with McQueen and Knussen's (2006, p.154) statement that "at their most basic, tables allow us to organise numerical information in a way that imposes some order on the data, serving the important descriptive functions of summarising and simplifying". This procedure also allowed a cut-off point to be set for the means in the descriptive statistics

at 2.5 (out of 5) or below for a negative mean and above 2.5 for a positive mean. It should be noted that this procedure was reversed when it came to the means for the anxiety scales. Of course, the shortcoming of deciding upon arbitrary cut-off points is that this does not “provide objective cut-off points for decision-makers”; nevertheless, the results of descriptive tables “might be extremely valuable to administrators and planners” (Walonick, 2013, p.3). Moreover, in this chapter, inferential statistics are presented in separate tables to show the statistical results of the testing of hypotheses. This is congruent with Muijs’ (2011, p.14) view that “in practice, most researchers test a null hypothesis of no difference because standard statistical tests are usually designed to test just that [null] hypothesis”. Furthermore, Walonick (2013, p.63) adds that researchers use “sample statistics to estimate the population parameters”. To obtain generalizable results, tests of statistical significance such as the t-test and Spearman’s rank-difference correlation coefficient were used to compare the results for male and female students (see section 3.9). This is in line with the view of Dörnyei (2007) who states that an independent-samples t-test should be used to compare the results of two groups which are independent of each other. In addition to the t-test, Spearman’s rank-difference correlation coefficient was used to test hypotheses concerning the relationship between students’ English language achievement (self-ratings and students’ grades), and the eleven motivational and attitudinal factors. Pallant (2010) explains that correlation is used when a researcher wishes “to describe the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables” (p.122). Each null-hypothesis is re-stated with the corresponding table, as recommended by Walonick (2013).

In the second part of this chapter, the analysis of qualitative data gathered using the focus group technique is presented. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) argue that although the questionnaire survey is a very useful method for gathering a huge amount of data in a relatively short time, it suffers from a lack of deep engagement by respondents. Therefore, they suggest that adding a qualitative component to research can overcome this disadvantage of quantitative research (see section 3.12). The focus group method was used here to gain in-depth explanations of the phenomena under study according to the perspectives of participants (Yilmaz, 2013). Using both qualitative and quantitative research is very useful to gain a comprehensive understanding of an issue from different perspectives. This view is supported by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010, p.241) who assert that “for L2 motivation research, it is the first purpose in particular that makes mixed methods research invaluable, as this methodology allows scholars to” study the multifaceted nature of motivation.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

4.2.1 Sex Distribution

In most social research, demographic information about samples is collected. Reporting the descriptive statistics of this data is very important in order to decide whether or not the sample represents the population (Walonick, 2013). With regard to the difference between sex and gender, Ellis (2008) argues that ‘sex’ represents a biological distinction whereas ‘gender’ represents a social one. In other words, sex is the product of nature whereas gender is the product of nurture. This is in line with the view of Talbot (2010) who states that “sex is a matter of bodily attributes and essentially dimorphic (that is, it has two forms). One is either male or female ... Gender, by contrast, is socially constructed” (p.7). She further points out that gender is different

from sex in that it is not binary. Moreover, Meyerhoff (2011) describes gender as to indicate a social identity which is created by social actions whereas the sex distinction (males and females) is a biologically and physiologically based distinction. The researcher in this study chose to use the term 'sex' instead of 'gender' because it "is used here to reflect the way in which the variable has been typically measured in SLA research (i.e. as a bipolar opposite)" (Ellis, 1994, p.202). This is congruent with Freeman and Knowles (2012) who urge researchers in different fields for the separation of the terms sex and gender in order to have an accurate presentation of research findings and to increase the accuracy of their studies. A good example might be the study of Abu Sharbain and Tan (2013) which revealed that female teachers held more positive attitudes towards the teaching profession than their male counterparts. They additionally suggest that policy makers should carefully consider the sex of teachers when selecting teaching staff because this factor is "a significant predictor of pupils' achievement as well as their attitude[s] toward learning" (Abu Sharbain and Tan, 2013, p.75).

The total number of students who participated in this study, as shown in figure 4.1 below, was 424. Of the total, 228 (53.77%) were males and 196 (46.23%) were females.

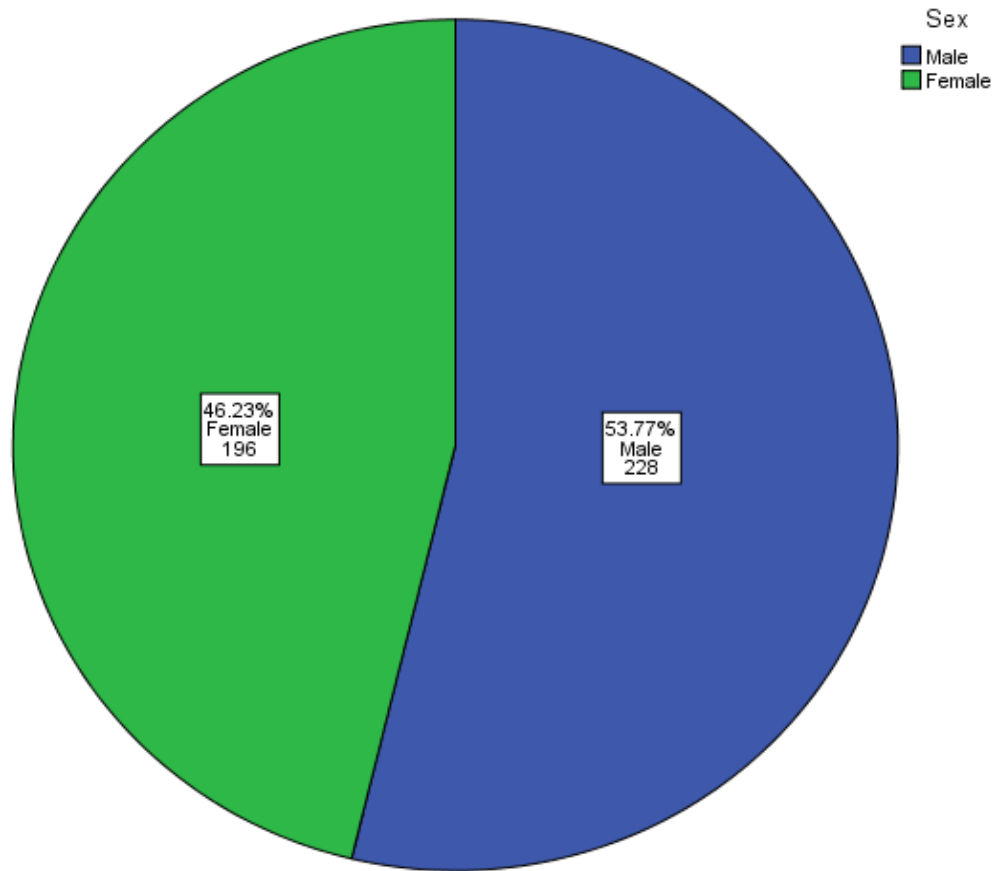


Figure 4-1: Sex distribution of participants.

4.3 NULL HYPOTHESIS H_{01} : THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS IN REGARD TO THE ELEVEN ATTITUDINAL AND MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

1. Attitudes toward British people.
2. Attitudes toward learning English.
3. Interest in foreign languages.
4. Integrative orientation.
5. Instrumental orientation.
6. English class anxiety.
7. Parental encouragement.
8. Motivational intensity.
9. Desire to learn English.
10. English teacher.

11. English course.

4.3.1 SUB-NULL-HYPOTHESIS ($H_{01.1}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people.

Table 4.1: Difference between male and female students regarding attitudes toward British people.

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
1. British people are a very social, warm-hearted and creative people.	All	415	57	37	142	114	65	3.22	1.22	-.275
			13.7	8.9	34.2	27.5	15.7			
	M	194	33	20	68	45	28	3.07	1.26	
			17.0	10.3	36.1	23.2	14.4			
	F	221	24	17	74	69	37	3.35	1.17	
			10.9	7.7	33.5	31.2	16.7			
2. I would like to know more British people.	All	414	53	51	93	107	110	3.41	1.38	-.320
			12.5	12.0	21.9	25.2	26.6			
	M	195	33	24	46	47	45	3.24	1.38	
			16.9	12.3	23.6	24.1	23.1			
	F	219	20	27	47	60	65	3.56	1.28	
			9.1	12.3	21.5	27.4	29.7			
3. Having British people in Qatar adds a distinctive flavour to Qatari culture.	All	409	65	37	122	107	78	3.23	1.30	-.312
			15.3	8.7	28.8	25.2	18.4			
	M	191	41	19	55	38	38	3.06	1.39	
			21.5	9.9	28.8	19.9	19.9			
	F	218	24	18	67	69	40	3.38	1.19	
			11.0	8.3	30.7	31.7	18.3			
4. Arabs in Qatar should make a greater effort to learn the English language.	All	417	42	32	64	88	191	3.84	1.34	-.475
			9.9	7.5	15.1	20.8	45.0			
	M	196	31	15	34	38	78	3.59	1.46	
			15.8	7.7	17.3	19.4	39.8			
	F	221	11	17	30	50	113	4.07	1.18	
			5.0	7.7	13.6	22.6	51.1			
5. The more I get to know British people, the more I	All	413	44	34	84	105	146	3.66	1.31	-.462
			10.4	8.0	19.8	24.8	34.4			
	M	193	30	18	42	47	56	3.41	1.39	
			15.5	9.3	21.8	24.4	29.0			

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
want to be fluent in their language.	F	220	14 6.4	16 7.3	42 19.1	58 26.4	90 40.9	3.88	1.20	
6. Some of our best citizens are graduates from British educational institutions.	All	412	36 8.7	38 9.2	137 33.3	129 31.3	72 17.5	3.39	1.14	
	M	192	24 12.5	16 8.3	61 31.8	52 27.1	39 20.3	3.34	1.24	-.097
	F	220	12 5.5	22 10.0	76 34.5	77 35.0	33 15.0	3.44	1.03	
7. If Qatari people lose the connection with British culture, it would indeed be a great loss.	All	411	84 20.4	61 14.8	125 30.4	76 18.5	65 15.8	2.94	1.33	
	M	192	49 25.5	24 12.5	64 33.3	30 15.6	25 13.0	2.78	1.33	-.305
	F	219	35 16.0	37 16.9	61 27.9	46 21.0	40 18.3	3.08	1.32	
8. British people's heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity.	All	411	150 36.5	83 20.2	99 24.1	50 12.2	29 7.1	2.33	1.27	
	M	191	75 39.3	31 16.2	50 26.2	22 11.5	13 6.8	2.30	1.28	-.050
	F	220	75 34.1	52 23.6	49 22.3	28 12.7	16 7.3	2.35	1.26	
9. Most British people are so friendly and easy to get along with that Qatar is fortunate to have them.	All	410	58 14.1	57 13.9	125 30.5	99 24.1	71 17.3	3.16	1.27	
	M	191	37 19.4	25 13.1	50 26.2	44 23.0	35 18.3	3.07	1.36	-.163
	F	219	21 9.6	32 14.6	75 34.2	55 25.1	36 16.4	3.24	1.17	
10. British people are considerate of the feelings of others.	All	409	74 18.1	58 14.2	146 35.7	82 20.0	49 12.0	2.93	1.24	
	M	191	40 20.9	28 14.7	63 33.0	39 20.4	21 11.0	2.85	1.27	-.145
	F	218	34 15.6	30 13.8	83 38.1	43 19.7	28 12.8	3.00	1.21	
11. The more I learn about the British, the more I like them.	All	404	55 13.6	42 10.4	136 33.7	97 24.0	74 18.3	3.23	1.25	
	M	186	25 13.4	18 9.7	63 33.9	45 24.2	35 18.8	3.25	1.25	.041
	F	218	30 13.8	24 11.0	73 33.5	52 23.9	39 17.9	3.21	1.25	

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
12. British people are cheerful, agreeable and good humoured.	All	392	57	44	137	93	61	3.14	1.23	-.129
			14.5	11.2	34.9	23.7	15.6			
	M	176	32	20	55	41	28	3.07	1.30	
			18.2	11.4	31.3	23.3	15.9			
	F	216	25	24	82	52	33	3.20	1.17	
			11.6	11.1	38.0	24.1	15.3			
13. British people are trustworthy and dependable.	All	388	52	63	132	91	49	3.15	2.35	-.056
			13.4	16.2	34.0	23.5	12.6			
	M	178	31	32	59	33	22	3.12	3.25	
			17.4	18.0	33.1	18.5	12.4			
	F	210	21	31	73	58	27	3.18	1.14	
			10.0	14.8	34.8	27.6	12.9			
14. I have always admired British people.	All	405	61	73	131	73	67	3.02	1.27	-.233
			15.1	18.0	32.3	18.0	16.5			
	A	188	32	37	65	25	29	2.90	1.27	
			17.0	19.7	34.6	13.3	15.4			
	S	217	29	36	66	48	38	3.13	1.26	
			13.4	16.6	30.4	22.1	17.5			
15. British people are very friendly and hospitable.	All	390	51	54	134	87	64	3.15	1.23	-.093
			13.1	13.8	34.4	22.3	16.4			
	M	179	28	30	54	30	37	3.10	1.33	
			15.6	16.8	30.2	16.8	20.7			
	F	211	23	24	80	57	27	3.19	1.14	
			10.9	11.4	37.9	27.0	12.8			
16. I would like to get to know British people better.	All	401	47	55	96	88	115	3.42	1.34	-.491
			11.7	13.7	23.9	21.9	28.7			
	M	185	28	31	52	32	42	3.15	1.35	
			15.1	16.8	28.1	17.3	22.7			
	F	216	19	24	44	56	73	3.64	1.28	
			8.8	11.1	20.4	25.9	33.8			
17. The British are a very kind and generous people.	All	401	63	67	154	62	55	2.94	1.22	-.185
			15.7	16.7	38.4	15.5	13.7			
	M	183	37	34	62	20	30	2.84	1.32	
			20.2	18.6	33.9	10.9	16.4			
	F	218	26	33	92	42	25	3.03	1.13	
			11.9	15.1	42.2	19.3	11.5			
	All	401	67	65	147	74	48	2.92	1.22	
			16.7	16.2	36.7	18.5	12.0			

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
18. British people are sincere and honest.	M	185	35 18.9	35 18.9	57 30.8	34 18.4	24 13.0	2.87	1.28	-.096
	F	216	32 14.8	30 13.9	90 41.7	40 18.5	24 11.1			
Total	All	328						3.17	.920	
	M	142						3.03	1.00	-2.38
	F	186						3.27	.84	

It can be seen from table 4.1 that students in general had positive attitudes towards British people (mean=3.17). What is interesting in this data is that the two items 4, “Arabs in Qatar should make a greater effort to learn the English language” (mean=3.84), and 5, “The more I get to know British people, the more I want to be fluent in their language” (mean=3.66), got the highest means for both groups, whereas item 8, “British people’s heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity” (mean=2.33), scored the lowest mean in both groups. For the item with the highest mean (item 4) 45.8% (N=191 out of 417) of students strongly agreed, while 21.1% (N=88 out of 417) agreed with the content of the item, 7.7 % (N=32 out of 417) disagreed, 10.1% (N=42 of 417) strongly disagreed, and 15.3 % (N=64 out of 417) were neutral. This is followed by item 5 for which 35.4% (N=146 out of 413) of them strongly agreed, 25.4% (N=105 out of 413) agreed with the content of the item, 8.2 % (N=34 out of 413) disagreed, 10.7% (N=44 of 413) strongly disagreed, and 20.3 % (N=84 out of 413) were neutral. On the other hand, as mentioned above, item 8 shows the lowest mean (m=2.33) where

36.5% (N=150 out of 411) of the students chose strongly disagree, 30.2% (N=83 out of 411) disagreed, 7.1% (N=29 out of 411) strongly agreed, 12.2% (N=50 out of 411) agreed, and 24.1% (N=99 out of 411) were neutral.

The attitudes of female toward British people were positive (mean=3.27). The 3 items with the highest mean response were item 4 (mean=4.07), item 5 (mean=3.88) and item 16 (mean=3.64). In item 4, total of 73.7.1% (N=113 out of 221) of female participants agreed or strongly agreed, 5% (N=11 out of 221) strongly disagreed, 7.7% (N=17 out of 221) disagreed, and 13.6% (N=30 out of 221) chose neutral. For item 5, 40.9% (N=90 out of 221) of female students strongly agreed, 26.4% (N=58 out of 221) agreed, 19.1% (N=42 out of 221) chose neutral, and 13.7% (N=30 out of 221) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Then for item 16, 59.7% (N=129 out of 223) female students selected agree or strongly agree, 20.4% (N=44 out of 223) of the females chose neutral, and 19.9% (N=43 out of 223) selected either disagree or strongly disagree. On the other hand, for item 8, "British people's heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity", scored the lowest mean (mean=2.35) in female participants' data as 7.3% (N=16 out of 223) strongly agreed, 12.7 (N=28 out 223) agreed, 57.7% (N=117 out of 223) either disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 22.3% (N=49 out of 223) were neutral.

The male participants also had positive attitudes towards British people (overall mean=3.03), although slightly less so than the girls. The item with the highest mean response was item 4, "Arabs in Qatar should make a greater effort to learn the English language" (mean=3.59) which scored the highest as 59.2% (N=117 out of 196) of male students agreed or strongly agreed, 23.5% (N=46 out of 196) disagreed or strongly

disagreed, and 17.3% (N=34 out of 196) selected neutral. Then, for item 5, “The more I get to know British people, the more I want to be fluent in their language” (mean=3.41), was the second highest, and item 6, “Some of our best citizens are graduates from British educational institutions” (mean=3.34), ranked third. For item 6, 47.4% (N=91 out of 192) of male students selected agree or strongly agree, 31.8% (N=61 out of 192) of the males chose neutral, and 20.8% (N=40 out of 192) of them either disagreed or strongly disagreed. Similar to the results for females, responses to item 8 had the lowest mean (M=2.30) for the male participants. Over half of those participants surveyed, 55.5% (N=106 out of 192) reported that they either disagreed or strongly disagreed, 26.2% (N=50 out of 192) chose neutral, and the other 18.3% (N=35 out of 192) agreed or strongly agreed.

An independent-samples t-test was used as can be seen in table 4.2 below to examine the statistical significance of differences between male and female students in terms of their attitudes toward British people. Male students (mean=3.0368, SD=1.00205) and female students (mean=3.2748, SD=.84145) scored statistically significantly differently ($t(237.3)=-2.28$, $p<.05$) in terms of their overall attitudes toward British people. Therefore, our sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.1}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people is rejected, and female students' attitudes (mean=3.2748) were significantly more positive than those of males. Therefore, we can say that the results support the research (alternative) hypothesis that there is a difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people.

Table 4.2: Overall difference between male and female students regarding attitudes toward British people.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	142	3.0368	1.00205	-2.28	237.3	.023
Female	186	3.2748	.84145			

4.3.2 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.2}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward learning English.

Table 4.3: Differences between male and female students regarding attitudes toward learning English.

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
1. Learning English is really great.	All	408	32	9	43	94	230	4.17	1.19	-.727
			7.8	2.2	10.5	23.0	56.4			
	M	189	28	6	30	39	86	3.78	1.42	
			14.8	3.2	15.9	20.6	45.5			
	F	219	4	3	13	55	144	4.51	.82	
			1.8	1.4	5.9	25.1	65.8			
2. I really enjoy learning English.	All	405	32	31	78	107	157	3.80	1.25	-.730
			7.9	7.7	19.3	26.4	38.8			
	M	187	28	19	45	38	57	3.41	1.40	
			15.0	10.2	24.1	20.3	30.5			
	F	218	4	12	33	69	100	4.14	.98	
			1.8	5.5	15.1	31.7	45.9			
3. English is an important part of the school programme.	All	406	33	19	53	103	198	4.01	1.24	-.740
			8.1	4.7	13.1	25.4	48.8			
	M	188	26	11	36	50	65	3.62	1.37	
			13.8	5.9	19.1	26.6	34.6			
	F	218	7	8	17	53	133	4.36	.99	
			3.2	3.7	7.8	24.3	61.0			

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
4. I plan to learn as much English as possible.	All	406	29	12	51	101	213	4.12	1.18	-.788
			7.1	3.0	12.6	24.9	52.5			
	M	188	25	11	35	41	76	3.70	1.39	
			13.3	5.9	18.6	21.8	40.4			
	F	218	4	1	16	60	137	4.49	.80	
			1.8	.5	7.3	27.5	62.8			
5. I love learning English.	All	403	37	20	48	107	191	3.98	1.27	-.792
			9.2	5.0	11.9	26.6	47.4			
	M	185	30	13	33	43	66	3.55	1.44	
			16.2	7.0	17.8	23.2	35.7			
	F	218	7	7	15	64	125	4.34	.97	
			3.2	3.2	6.9	29.4	57.3			
6. I hate English.	All	399	199	73	57	30	40	2.09	1.35	.719
			49.9	18.3	14.3	7.5	10.0			
	M	185	70	31	38	17	29	2.48	1.46	
			37.8	16.8	20.5	9.2	15.7			
	F	214	129	42	19	13	11	1.76	1.16	
			60.3	19.6	8.9	6.1	5.1			
7. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English.	All	400	50	70	130	81	69	3.12	1.24	.114
			12.5	17.5	32.5	20.3	17.3			
	M	185	26	29	53	39	38	3.18	1.31	
			14.1	15.7	28.6	21.1	20.5			
	F	215	24	41	77	42	31	3.06	1.18	
			11.2	19.1	35.8	19.5	14.4			
8. Learning English is a waste of time.	All	402	173	93	59	43	34	2.18	1.31	.710
			43.0	23.1	14.7	10.7	8.5			
	M	185	59	40	33	28	25	2.56	1.41	
			31.9	21.6	17.8	15.1	13.5			
	F	217	114	53	26	15	9	1.85	1.13	
			52.2	24.4	12.0	6.9	4.1			
9. I think that learning English is dull	All	399	138	96	80	41	44	2.39	1.34	.591
			34.6	24.1	20.1	10.3	11.0			
	M	185	51	34	46	26	28	2.70	1.39	
			27.6	18.4	24.9	14.1	15.1			
		214	87	62	34	15	16	2.11	1.22	

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
	F		40.7	29.0	15.9	7.0	7.5			
10. When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it.	All	408	192	72	72	31	41	2.15	1.35	.726
			47.1	17.6	17.6	7.6	10.0			
	M	190	66	31	46	17	30	2.54	1.44	
			34.7	16.3	24.2	8.9	15.8			
	F	218	126	41	26	14	11	1.82	1.17	
			57.8	18.8	11.9	6.4	5.0			
Total	All	410						3.81	.884	
	M	191						3.45	.927	-8.03
	F	219						4.11	.715	

As recommended by Pallant (2010), it is important when conducting a test which has negative items to make sure that responses to negatively worded items (items 6-10) are reversed when the totals are calculated, and this can be done by using the 'Transform' option in SPSS which means changing the codings of 5 to 1, 4 to 2, 3 to 3, 2 to 4 and 1 to 5 (see section 3.20).

The responses shown in table 4.3 illustrate that students in general had positive attitudes toward English language learning (mean=3.81). Students gave the highest mean response to item 1, "Learning English is really great" (mean=4.17), item 4, "I plan to learn as much English as possible" (mean=4.12), and item 3, "English is an important part of the school programme" (mean=4.01). For item 1, more than half of the participants 56.4% (N=230 out of 408) chose strongly agree, 23% (N=94 out of 408) for agree, so, the total of those who either agreed or strongly agreed was nearly eighty

percent (79.4%. N=324). Responses to item 4 also had a high mean, as 52.5% (N=213 out of 406) strongly agreed, and 24.9% (N= 101 out of 406) agreed with the statement, while only 3% (N=12 out of 406) disagreed, 7.1% (N=29 out of 406) strongly disagreed, and 12% (N=51 out of 406) were neutral. Third highest mean response is for item 3 where 74.2% (N=301 out of 406) agreed or strongly agreed, 20.9% (N=52 out of 406) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 13.1% (N=53 out of 406) gave neutral answers. On the other hand, for item 6, "I hate English" (mean=2.09) and item 10, "When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it" (mean=2.15) got the lowest means. As for item 6, 49.9% (N=199 out of 399) of the students chose strongly disagree, 18.3% (N=73 out of 399) disagreed, 17.5% (N=70 out of 399) either agreed or strongly agreed, and 14.3% (57 out of 399) were neutral. For item 10, 47.1% (N=192 out of 408) of the students strongly disagreed, 17.6% (N=72 out of 408) disagreed, 17.6% (N=72 out of 408) either agreed or strongly agreed, and the rest of the students (17.6% out of 408) were neutral. In general, we could say that the students disagreed with statement 9, "I think that learning English is dull" (mean=2.39), statement 8, "Learning English is a waste of time" (mean=2.18), statement 10, "When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it" (mean=2.15), and statement 6, "I hate English" (mean=2.9).

Male students' overall attitudes toward the English language were positive (mean=3.45). The male students gave item 1, "Learning English is really great" (mean=3.78), item 4, "I plan to learn as much English as possible" (mean=3.70), and item 3, "English is an important part of the school programme" (mean=3.62) the highest mean responses. In male students' responses to item one, 45.5% (N=86 out of 189) strongly agreed, 20.5% (N= 9 out of 189) agreed, 18% (N=34 out of 189) disagreed or

strongly disagreed, and 15.9% (N=30 out of 189) were neutral. This was followed by item 4, where 62.2% (N=117 out of 188) of the males either agreed or strongly agreed, 19.2% (N=36 out of 188) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 35 (18.6%) students were on the neutral side. Then, item 3 as 34.6% (N=65 out of 188) strongly agreed, 50 male students agreed, 19.7% (N= 37 out of 188) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 36 male students were neutral. Ranking the lowest was item 6, “I hate English” (mean=2.48), with the lowest mean responses by male participants where 54.6% (N=101 out of 185) chose either disagree or strongly disagree, and only 24.9% (N=46 out of 185) agreed or strongly agreed, with 38 male students selecting neutral.

Female students showed positive overall attitudes toward English language learning too (mean=4.11). The three items with the highest mean responses are item 1, “Learning English is really great” (mean=4.51)”, item 4, “I plan to learn as much English as possible” (Mean=4.49), and item 3, “English is an important part of the school programme” (Mean=4.36). For item 1, over two-thirds of the female participants 90.1% (N=199 out of 219) agreed or strongly agreed, 3.2% (N=7 out of 219) selected disagree or strongly disagree, and the remaining 13 (5.9%) female students were neutral. Next was item 4, where more than half of the female students 62.8% (N=137 out of 218) chose strongly agree, 27.5% (N=60 out of 218) agreed, 1.8% (N=4 out of 218) strongly disagreed, .5% (N=1 out of 218) disagreed, and 7.3% (N=16 out of 218) ticked neutral. Then for item 3, 85.3% (N=186 out of 218) of female students selected agree or strongly agree, 3.2% (N=7 out of 218) strongly disagreed, 3.7% (N=8 out of 218) disagreed, and 17 (7.8%) students were neutral. Nevertheless, female students disagreed with statement 6, “I hate English” (mean=1.76), statement 10, “When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it” (mean=1.82),

statement 8, “Learning English is a waste of time” (mean=1.85), and statement 9, “I think that learning English is dull” (mean=2.11).

With regards to the differences between male and female students in their attitudes toward the English language, an independent-samples t-test was conducted as shown in table 4.4 below to examine the statistical significance of any differences between male and female students. In all of the items except for item 7, “I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English” (p-value=.363), male students (mean=3.4557, SD=.92716) and female students (mean=4.1198, SD=.715118) scored statistically significantly differently ($t(408) = -8.174$, $p < 0.000$) in terms of their attitudes toward learning the English language. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.2}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward learning English is rejected. From these results shown in table 4.4, we have strong evidence to reject this sub-null-hypothesis and to support the alternative hypothesis.

Table 4.4: Overall difference between male and female students regarding attitudes toward learning English.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	191	3.4557	.92716	-8.174	408	.000
Female	219	4.1198	.715118			

4.3.3 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.3}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their interest in learning foreign languages.

Table 4.5: Differences between male and female students in regard to their interest in learning foreign languages.

Question	Sex	No.	S.Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S.Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
1. If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people.	All	411	24	13	43	93	238	4.23	1.13	-.556
			5.8	3.2	10.5	22.6	57.9			
	M	190	20	8	27	44	91	3.93	1.31	
			10.5	4.2	14.2	23.2	47.9			
	F	221	4	5	16	49	147	4.49	.86	
			1.8	2.3	7.2	22.2	66.5			
2. Even though Qatar is relatively far from countries speaking other languages, it is important for the Qataris and Arabs in Qatar to learn foreign languages.	All	411	29	25	72	127	158	3.87	1.19	-.562
			7.1	6.1	17.5	30.9	38.4			
	M	190	23	16	37	57	57	3.57	1.32	
			12.1	8.4	19.5	30.0	30.0			
	F	221	6	9	35	70	101	4.13	1.00	
			2.7	4.1	15.8	31.7	45.7			
3. I wish I could speak another language perfectly.	All	406	24	19	58	81	224	4.13	1.18	-.721
			5.9	4.7	14.3	20.0	55.2			
	M	187	18	15	37	43	74	3.74	1.31	
			9.6	8.0	19.8	23.0	39.6			
	F	219	6	4	21	38	150	4.47	.93	
			2.7	1.8	9.6	17.4	68.5			
4. I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation.	All	405	65	53	87	94	106	3.30	1.40	-.422
			16.0	13.1	21.5	23.2	26.2			
	M	186	43	21	42	39	41	3.07	1.46	
			23.1	11.3	22.6	21.0	22.0			
	F	219	22	32	45	55	65	3.49	1.32	
			10.0	14.6	20.5	25.1	29.7			
5. I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language.	All	407	44	45	101	105	112	3.48	1.29	-.351
			10.8	11.1	24.8	25.8	27.5			
	M	188	28	17	56	46	41	3.29	1.31	
			14.9	9.0	29.8	24.5	21.8			
	F	219	16	28	45	59	71	3.64	1.25	
			7.3	12.8	20.5	26.9	32.4			
All	408	28	38	63	105	174	3.87	1.24		
		6.9	9.3	15.4	25.7	42.6				

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
6. I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.	M	188	22	26	28	44	68	3.58	1.39	-.546
			11.7	13.8	14.9	23.4	36.2			
	F	220	6	12	35	61	106	4.13	1.04	
			2.7	5.5	15.9	27.7	48.2			
7. If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English	All	407	34	27	104	111	131	3.68	1.22	-.498
			8.4	6.6	25.6	27.3	32.2			
	M	188	26	14	52	48	48	3.41	1.31	
			13.8	7.4	27.7	25.5	25.5			
	F	219	8	13	52	63	83	3.91	1.08	
			3.7	5.9	23.7	28.8	37.9			
8. I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required.	All	409	82	67	91	90	79	3.04	1.40	-.126
			20.0	16.4	22.2	22.0	19.3			
	M	189	43	29	41	42	34	2.97	1.41	
			22.8	15.3	21.7	22.2	18.0			
	F	220	39	38	50	48	45	3.10	1.38	
			17.7	17.3	22.7	21.8	20.5			
9. I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages.	All	407	47	44	91	101	124	3.51	1.33	-.508
			11.5	10.8	22.4	24.8	30.5			
	M	188	29	26	48	40	45	3.24	1.36	
			15.4	13.8	25.5	21.3	23.9			
	F	219	18	18	43	61	49	3.75	1.25	
			8.2	8.2	19.6	27.9	36.1			
10. Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience.	All	410	42	39	89	114	126	3.59	1.29	-.506
			10.2	9.5	21.7	27.8	30.7			
	M	190	29	23	47	40	51	3.32	1.38	
			15.3	12.1	24.7	21.1	26.8			
	F	220	13	16	42	74	75	3.82	1.15	
			5.9	7.3	19.1	33.6	34.1			
Total	All	388						3.68	.922	-5.07
	M	176						3.42	1.01	
	F	212						3.90	.77	

Overall, the participants held positive attitudes toward foreign language learning with a mean response of 3.68. Items 1, “If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people” (mean=4.23), and 3, “I wish I could speak another language perfectly” (mean=4.13), had the highest mean responses. For item 1, 57.9% (N=238 out of 411) strongly agreed, 22.6% (N=93 out of 411) agreed, 9.5% (N=37 out of 411) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and the remainder chose neutral. For item 3, more than two-thirds of the participants (75.2% , N=305 out of 406) either strongly agreed or agreed, 4.75% (N=19 out of 406) disagreed, 5.9% (N=24 out of 406) strongly disagreed with the statement, and 14.3% (N=58 out of 406) were neutral. In contrast, item 4, “I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation” (mean=3.30), and item 8, “I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required” (mean=3.04), got the lowest mean responses, but were still positive. For item 4, 26.2% (N= 06 out of 405) of the students strongly agreed with the statement, 23.2% (N=94 out of 405) agreed, 29.1% (N=118 out of 405) either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and the remainder selected neutral. Item 8 carried the lowest level of agreement, where 79 (19.3%) students strongly agreed with the statement, 22% (N=90 out of 405) agreed, 36.4% (N=149 out of 405) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and the rest chose neutral.

The overall mean for male participants was 3.42, which indicated positive attitudes toward foreign language learning. Male participants showed more agreement with all of the items. The items with the highest mean responses were item 1, “If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people” (mean=3.93), item 3, “I wish I could speak another language perfectly’ (mean=3.74), and item 6, “I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages” (mean=3.58), 71.1%

(N=135 out of 190) of the male students strongly agreed or agreed with statement 1, 14.7% (N=28 out of 190) either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and 27 (14.2%) students chose neutral. Then, for item 3, 22% (N=41 out of 186) strongly agreed, 21% (N=39 out of 186) agreed, 33.4% (N=64 out of 186) either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and 42 (22.6%) of the male students were neutral. Next was item 6 for which 36.2% (N=68 out of 188) of the male students strongly agreed with the statement, 23.4% (N=44 out of 188) agreed, 25.5% (N=48 out of 188) strongly disagreed or disagreed, and the remainder (N=28, 14.9%) chose neutral. On the other hand, male students gave item 4 (mean=3.07) and item 8 (mean=2.97) the lowest scores, but the responses were still positive.

Female students also showed positive overall attitudes toward foreign language learning, with a mean of 3.90. They expressed their agreement with all of the statements concerning their interest in foreign language learning. They gave the highest mean responses to statement 1, "If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people" (mean=4.49), and statement 3, "I wish I could speak another language perfectly" (mean=4.47). The data for item 1 shows that 66.5% (N=147 out of 221) female students strongly agreed with the statement, 22.2% (N=49 out of 221) agreed, and only 4.2% (N=9 out of 221) of them either strongly disagreed or disagreed while the remaining ones (N=16) chose neutral. This was followed by item 3 where 68.5% (N=150 out of 219) strongly agreed, 17.4% (N=38 out of 219) agreed, 4.5% (N=10 out of 219) either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and the balance (N=21, 9.6%) chose neutral. By comparison, item 4, "I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation" (mean=3.49), and item 8, "I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not

required” (mean=3.10), scored the lowest means, but the data still suggest that female students held positive attitudes toward foreign language learning.

To check for statistically significant differences between male and female students’ responses in terms of their interest in foreign languages, an independent-samples t-test was conducted as shown in table 4.6 below. Male students (mean=3.4295, SD=1.01702) and female students (mean=3.9028, SD=.77435) did score statistically significantly differently ($t(386) = -5.073$, $p < 0.05$) in terms of their overall interest in learning foreign languages. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.3}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their interest in learning foreign languages is rejected.

Table 4.6: Overall difference between male and female students regarding their interest in foreign languages.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	176	3.4295	1.01702	-5.073	386	.000
Female	212	3.9028	.77435			

4.3.4 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.4}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their integrative orientations.

Table 4.7: Difference between male and female students regarding their integrative orientations.

Question	Sex	No.	S.Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S.Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
1. Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English.	All	409	23	11	48	88	239	4.24	1.12	-.62
			5.6	2.7	11.7	21.5	58.4			
	M	189	20	9	29	41	90	3.91	1.33	
			10.8	4.8	15.3	21.7	47.6			
	F	220	3	2	19	47	149	4.53	.80	
			1.4	.9	8.6	21.4	67.7			
2. Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.	All	408	20	17	54	104	213	4.15	1.11	-.76
			4.9	4.2	13.2	25.5	52.2			
	M	189	18	12	40	49	70	3.74	1.27	
			9.5	6.3	21.2	25.9	37.0			
	F	219	2	5	14	55	143	4.51	.79	
			.9	2.3	6.4	25.1	65.3			
3. Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate British art and literature	All	408	29	16	72	102	189	3.99	1.19	-.64
			7.1	3.9	17.6	25.0	46.3			
	M	188	22	11	46	41	68	3.64	1.33	
			11.7	5.9	24.5	21.8	36.2			
	F	220	7	5	26	61	121	4.29	.98	
			3.2	2.3	11.8	27.7	55.0			
4. Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups	All	409	24	28	67	91	199	4.00	1.20	-.72
			5.9	6.8	16.4	22.2	48.7			
	M	189	20	18	43	41	67	3.61	1.33	
			10.6	9.5	22.8	21.7	35.4			
	F	220	4	10	24	50	132	4.34	.96	
			1.8	4.5	10.9	22.7	60.0			
Total	All	407						4.10	1.03	-7.12
	M	188						3.73	1.17	
	F	219						4.42	.76	

It is noticeable from table 4.7 that the students, in general, had high integrative orientations (mean=4.10). In fact, this was the highest overall mean response of the 11 factors in this study. The students tended to agree with all four statements in this section. The highest level of agreement was for statement 1, "Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English" (mean=4.24), while the lowest agreement was for statement 3, "Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate British art and literature" (mean=3.99). For item 1, 58.4% (N=239 out of 409) of the sample strongly agreed with the statement, 21.5% (N=88 out of 409) agreed, 8.3% (N=34 out of 409) either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and the remaining students chose neutral. For item 3, which had the lowest mean response in the scale, 46.3% (N=189 out of 408) strongly agreed, 25% (N=102 out of 408) agreed, and only 11% (N=45 out of 408) either strongly disagreed or disagreed. Meanwhile 72 students selected neutral (17.6%).

Female participants on average had very high integrative orientations (mean=4.42). Statement 1, "Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English" (mean=4.53), had the highest mean response, whereas the lowest was for statement 3, "Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate British art and literature" (mean=4.29). For item 1, 89.1% (N=196 out of 220) of the female students either strongly agreed or agreed, 2.3% (N=5 out of 220) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 19 (8.6%) female students were neutral. For the item with the lowest mean response, item 3, 82.7% (N=183 out of 220) of female students either strongly agreed

or agreed with the statement, 5.5% (N=12 out of 220) strongly disagreed or disagreed, and 26 female students (11.8%) selected neutral.

On the other hand, male participants also had high integrative orientations (mean=3.73), though slightly less so than the females. Male participants gave strong agreement to all four items in the scale. The strongest agreement was for statement 1, “studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English” (mean=3.91), while responses for item 4, “Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups” (mean=3.61), had the lowest mean in the scale, but the male students still demonstrated a high integrative orientation as 35.4% (N=67 out of 220) strongly agreed, 21.7% (N=41 out of 220) agreed, 20.1% (N= 38 out of 220) either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and 22.8% (N=43 out of 220) of male students gave neutral answers.

To view the statistical significance of differences between males and females in regard to their integrative orientation based on inferential statistics, an independent-samples t-test was conducted as shown in table 4.8 below. The responses of male (mean=3.7301, SD=1.17656) and female students (mean=4.4212, SD =.76124) were statistically significantly different ($t(405)=-7.128$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{0.1.4}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their integrative orientation is rejected.

Table 4.8: Overall difference between male and female students regarding their integrative orientations.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	188	3.7301	1.17656	-7.128	405	.000
Female	219	4.4212	.76124			

4.3.5 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.5}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their instrumental orientation.

Table 4.9: Difference between male and female students regarding their instrumental orientations.

Question	Sex	No.	S.Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S.Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
1. Studying English can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career.	All	407	25	13	31	76	262	4.31	1.14	-.66
			6.1	3.2	7.6	18.7	64.4			
	M	188	18	11	25	40	94	3.96	1.31	
			9.6	5.9	13.3	21.3	50.0			
	F	219	7	2	6	36	168	4.62	.85	
			3.2	.9	2.7	16.4	76.7			
2. Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.	All	408	24	22	58	96	208	4.08	1.18	-.48
			5.9	5.4	14.2	23.5	51.0			
	M	188	17	13	39	37	82	3.81	1.30	
			9.0	6.9	20.7	19.7	43.6			
	F	220	7	9	19	59	126	4.30	1.00	
			3.2	4.1	8.6	26.8	57.3			
3. Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be	All	407	23	21	48	65	250	4.22	1.18	-.77
			5.7	5.2	11.8	16.0	61.4			
	M	188	19	17	34	29	89	3.80	1.37	
			10.1	9.0	18.1	15.4	47.3			
		219	4	4	14	36	161	4.57	.83	

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
useful in getting a good job.	F		1.8	1.8	6.4	16.4	73.5			
4. Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language.	All	409	71	31	93	88	126	3.40	1.43	-.36
			17.4	7.6	22.7	21.5	30.8			
	M	189	43	13	47	33	53	3.21	1.49	
			22.8	6.9	24.9	17.5	28.0			
	F	220	28	18	46	55	73	3.57	1.35	
			12.7	8.2	20.9	25.0	33.2			
Total	All	404						4.01	1.02	
	M	186						3.70	3.70	-5.59
	F	218						4.27	4.27	

It is clear from table 4.9 that the participants showed strong instrumental orientations (mean=4.01) concerning their study of English language. The highest level of agreement was found for item 1, “Studying English can be important for me only because I’ll need it for my future career” (mean=4.31), and item 3, “Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job” (mean=4.22). However, the mean response for item 4, “Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language” (mean=3.40), was the lowest of the four, but it was still on the agreement side. For item 1, 83.1% (N=338 out of 407) agreed with the statement, 9.3% (N=38 out of 407) showed their disagreement or strong disagreement, and the remaining students (N=31, 7.6%) were neutral. This was followed by responses to item 3, as 77.4% (N=315 out of 407) either strongly agreed or agreed, and only 10.9% (N=44

out of 407) chose to either strongly disagree or disagree. The remainder were neutral. On the other hand, item 4 had the lowest mean response, where 52.3% (N=214 out of 409) of all of the students strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, 25% (N=102 out of 409) showed disagreement or strong disagreement side, and the remaining students (N=93, 22.7%) chose neutral.

Male students expressed relatively strong instrumental orientation (mean=3.70) toward learning the English language. They gave strong agreement to statement 1, "Studying English can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career" (mean=3.96). This was followed by responses to statement 2, "Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person" (mean=3.81). However, the lowest level of agreement was for statement 4, "Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language" (mean=3.21). For item 1, 71.3% (N=134 out of 188) strongly agreed or agreed, 15.5% (N=29 out of 188) strongly disagreed or disagreed, and 25 (13.3%) were neutral. The second highest mean response among male students was for item 2, and 63.3% (N=119 out of 188) selected strongly agree or agree, 15.9% (N=30 out of 188) chose either disagree or strongly disagree, and the rest (N=39, 20.7%) were neutral. For the item with the lowest mean response, item 4, 45.5% (N=86 out of 189) of male students strongly agreed or agreed, and 56 (29.7%) chose to strongly disagree or disagree with the statement. The remaining ones (N=47, 24.9%) selected neutral.

On the other side, female students gave a higher overall mean response (M=4.27) than did male students (M=3.70). This signalled that they had higher instrumental orientation

toward learning the English language. The mean scores of female students for item 1, “Studying English can be important for me only because I’ll need it for my future career” (mean=4.62), and item 3, “Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job” (mean=4.57), were the highest two averages in the table 4.9. On the other hand, responses to item 4 had the lowest mean score (M=3.57) for female students. For responses to item 1, which had the highest mean in the scale, 93.1% (N=204 out of 219) strongly agreed or agreed, 4.1% (N=9 out of 219) strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement, and 6 (2.7%) chose neutral. Then, for item 3, whereas 89.9% (N=197 out of 219) selected either agree or strongly agree, 3.6% (N=8 out of 219) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and the other female students (N=14, 6.4%) chose neutral. Looking at the item with the lowest mean response, item 4, 58.2% (N=128 out of 220) of female students either agreed or strongly agreed, 46 (20.9%) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and the remaining ones (N=46) selected neutral.

With regard to the differences between male and female students in their instrumental orientation, an independent-samples t-test was conducted as shown in table 4.10 below to examine the statistical significance of the differences between them. Male students (mean=3.7070, SD=.58970) and female students (mean=4.2752, SD=.76124) scored statistically significantly differently ($t(402)=-5.599, < 0.05$) in terms of their instrumental orientation as shown in table 4.10. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.5}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their instrumental orientation is rejected.

Table 4.10: Overall difference between male and female students regarding their instrumental orientation.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	186	3.7070	.58970	-5.599	402	.000
Female	218	4.2752	.76124			

4.3.6 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.6}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their English class anxiety.

Table 4.11: Differences between male and female students regarding their English class anxiety.

Question	Sex	No.	S.Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S.Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
1. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class.	All	407	139	62	72	73	61	2.64	1.47	.649
			34.2	15.2	17.7	17.9	15.0			
	M	187	51	19	38	38	41	2.99	1.51	
			27.3	10.2	20.3	20.3	21.9			
	F	220	88	43	34	35	20	2.34	1.37	
			40.0	19.5	15.5	15.9	9.1			
2. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our English class.	All	407	118	61	82	92	54	2.76	1.41	.431
			29.0	15.0	20.1	22.6	13.3			
	M	187	41	25	45	46	30	2.99	1.38	
			21.9	13.4	24.1	24.6	16.0			
	F	220	77	36	37	46	24	2.56	1.42	
			35.0	16.4	16.8	20.9	10.9			
3. I always feel that other students speak	All	398	77	70	120	67	64	2.92	1.32	.033
			19.3	17.6	30.2	16.8	16.1			
	M	183	39	21	65	27	31	2.94	1.34	

Question	Sex	No.	S.Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S.Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
English better than I do.			21.3	11.5	35.5	14.8	16.9			
	F	215	38	49	55	40	33	2.91	1.31	
			17.7	22.8	25.6	18.6	15.3			
4. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	All	405	121	67	74	78	65	2.75	1.46	.083
			29.9	16.5	18.3	19.3	16.0			
	M	186	53	31	37	31	34	2.79	1.47	
			28.5	16.7	19.9	16.7	18.3			
	F	219	68	36	37	47	31	2.71	1.45	
			31.1	16.4	16.9	21.5	14.2			
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	All	404	165	55	68	50	66	2.49	1.51	
			40.8	16.6	16.8	12.4	16.3			
	M	185	67	22	34	24	38	2.69	1.56	
			36.2	11.9	18.4	13.0	20.5			
	F	219	98	33	34	26	28	2.32	1.45	
			44.7	15.1	15.5	11.9	12.8			
Total	All	394						2.70	1.18	
	M	181						2.86	1.18	-2.56
	F	213						2.56	1.16	

Although the overall results in table 4.11 show that the students had relatively elevated levels of English class anxiety (mean=2.70), their mean response was not far from the positive region for anxiety which was set to be 2.5 (or below) out of 5 (for more details, see section 4.1). This means that responses for all of the items were in the anxiety region (above 2.5) except for item 5. The two highest ranking items for anxiety were item 3, “I always feel that other students speak English better than I do” (mean=2.92),

and item 2, "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our English class" (mean=2.76), indicating the students' moderate levels of anxiety. On the other hand, they disagreed with statement 5, "I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English". However, their mean disagreement was weak (mean=2.49), which puts them very close to anxiety. As for item 3, 36.9% (N=147 out of 398) strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement, and 32.9% (N=131 out of 398) either strongly agreed or agreed. The remaining students were neutral. This was followed by statement 2, with a mean response of 2.76 and where 44% (N=179 out of 407) of the students chose either strongly disagree or disagree, 35.9% (N=146 out of 407) either agreed or strongly agreed, and 20.1% (N= 82 out of 407) were neutral. In the item with the lowest disagreement, item 5, 54.4% (N=220 out of 404) disagreed or strongly disagreed, 28.7% (N=116 out of 404) either agreed or strongly agreed, and 68 (16.8%) students were neutral.

Table 4.11 shows that male participants held a relatively high level of class anxiety with a mean of 2.86. For all of the items concerning anxiety the mean scores of male participants were on the anxious side (>2.5). The highest ranking two items were item 2, "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our English class" (mean=2.99) and item 1, "It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class" (mean=2.99). However, the lowest average mean response was for item 5, "I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English" (mean=2.69), which was also on the anxious side. Male students' responses to statement 2 show that 40.6% (N=76 out of 187) either strongly agreed or agreed, 35.3% (N=66 out of 187) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and the remaining 45 (24.1%) male students were neutral. This was followed by statement 1, where 42.2% (N=79 out of 187) of male students either chose

agree or strongly agree, 37.7% (N=70 out of 187) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and those who chose neutral were 20.3 % (N=38 out of 187). In the item with the lowest mean response, item 5, the proportion of male students who either agreed or strongly agreed was 33.5% (N=62 out of 185), and 48.1% (N=89 out of 185) disagreed or strongly disagreed. The remaining 34 (18.4%) selected neutral.

The overall level of class anxiety of female students (mean=2.56) was lower than that of their male counterparts, but was also still on the anxious side. Female students gave their strongest average agreement to item 3, "I always feel that other students speak English better than I do" (mean=2.91), and item 4, "I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class" (mean=2.71). In contrast, for item 5, "I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English" (mean=2.32), and item 1, "It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class" (mean=2.34), on average elicited disagreement from the female students signalling a lower level of anxiety regarding these two items. For statement 3, 33.9% (N=73 out of 215) of female students selected agree or strongly agree, 40.5% (N=87 out 215) chose either disagree or strongly disagree, and the remaining students (N=55) were neutral. Then, for statement 4, 47.5% (N=104 out of 219) of the female students disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement, 35.7% (N=78 out of 219) either agreed or strongly agreed, and 37 (16.9%) chose neutral. For item 5, 59.8% (N=131 out of 219) of the female students disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement, whereas 24.8% (N=54 out of 219) showed either agreement or strong agreement. The remaining students were neutral.

To determine the statistical significance of the the differences between male and female students in regard to their English class anxiety, an independent-samples t-test was

conducted as shown in table 4.12 below. Male students (mean=2.8696, SD=1.18557) and female students (mean=2.5662, SD=1.16148) scored statistically significantly differently ($t(392)=-2.560$, $p<0.05$) in terms of their English class anxiety. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.6}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their English class anxiety is rejected.

Table 4.12: Overall difference between male and female students regarding English class anxiety.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	181	2.8696	1.18557	-2.560	392	.011
Female	213	2.5662	1.16148			

4.3.7 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.7}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their perceived parental encouragement.

Table 4.13: Difference between male and female students regarding perceived parental encouragement.

Question	Sex	No.	S.Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S.Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
1. My parents try to help me with my English.	All	405	31	21	71	68	214	4.01	1.26	-.523
			7.7	5.2	17.5	16.8	52.8			
	M	185	24	10	40	28	83	3.73	1.41	
			13.0	5.4	21.6	15.1	44.9			
	F	220	7	11	31	40	131	4.25	1.07	
			3.2	5.0	14.1	18.2	59.5			
2. My parents feel that because English is an	All	402	23	19	58	90	212	4.11	1.16	
			5.7	4.7	14.4	22.4	52.7			

Question	Sex	No.	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S. Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
international language, I should learn it.	M	183	17 9.3	13 7.1	38 20.8	44 24.0	71 38.8	3.75	1.29	-.655
	F	219	6 2.7	6 2.7	20 9.1	46 21.0	141 64.4			
3. My parents feel that I should continue studying English all through school.	All	400	19 4.8	18 4.5	66 16.5	91 22.8	206 51.5	4.11	1.12	
			M	183	14 7.7	15 8.2	43 23.5			
	F	217	5 2.3	3 1.4	23 10.6	52 24.0	134 61.8	4.41	.90	
			All	403	24 6.0	37 9.2	92 22.8			105 26.1
4. My parents think I should devote more time to my English studies.	M	183	17 9.3	24 13.1	47 25.7	46 25.1	49 26.8	3.46	1.27	-.993
	F	220	7 3.2	13 5.9	45 20.5	59 26.8	94 42.7			
	All	403	29 7.2	15 3.7	64 15.9	88 21.8	207 51.4	4.06	1.21	
			M	183	23 12.6	10 5.5	38 20.8			
F	220	6 2.7	5 2.3	26 11.8	51 23.2	132 60.0	4.35	.96		
		All	394	24 6.1	28 7.1	107 27.2			97 24.6	138 35.0
M	176			15 8.5	14 8.0	58 33.0	38 21.6	51 29.0	3.54	1.22
		F	218	9 4.1	14 6.4	49 22.5	59 27.1	87 39.9		
All	404			23 5.7	27 6.7	74 18.3	94 23.3	186 46.0	3.97	1.19
		M	185	14 7.6	17 9.2	47 25.4	31 16.8	76 41.1		
F	219	9 4.1	10 4.6	27 12.3	63 28.8	110 50.2	4.16	1.07	-.418	
		All	406	23 5.7	24 5.9	49 12.1				87 21.4

Question	Sex	No.	S.Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	S.Agree	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%	%	%			
importance English will have for me when I leave school.	M	186	18	16	35	41	76	3.75	1.32	-.705
			9.7	8.6	18.8	22.0	40.9			
F	220	5	8	14	46	147	4.46	.93		
			2.3	3.6	6.4	20.9			66.8	
9. My parents feel that I should really try to learn English.	All	396	18	9	48	82	239	4.30	1.06	
			4.5	2.3	12.1	20.7	60.4			
	M	178	13	5	33	41	86	4.02	1.20	
			7.3	2.8	18.5	23.0	48.3			
	F	218	5	4	15	41	153	4.52	.88	
			2.3	1.8	6.9	18.8	70.2			
10. My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my English.	All	394	34	24	91	90	155	3.78	1.26	
			8.6	6.1	23.1	22.8	39.3			
	M	178	17	14	53	38	56	3.57	1.27	
			9.6	7.9	29.8	21.3	31.5			
	F	216	17	10	38	52	99	3.95	1.23	
			7.9	4.6	17.6	24.1	45.8			
Total	All	360						4.05	.989	-5.07
	M	152						3.74	1.05	
	F	208						4.27	.83	

Overall, the students scored a mean of 4.05, which indicated high levels of perceived parental encouragement. The students agreed with all of the items in the scale, and gave their highest agreement for item 9, “My parents feel that I should really try to learn English” (mean=4.30), and item 8, “My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me when I leave school” (mean=4.14), whereas moderate agreement was given to item 6, “My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English course” (mean=3.75), and item 10, “My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my English” (mean=3.78). Statement 9 got the

highest mean response, and 81.1% (N=321 out of 396) of the students either strongly agreed or agreed, 6.8% (N=27 out of 396) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 48 (12.1%) students decided to be neutral. For the second highest item (item 8), 76.3% (N=310 out of 406) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, 11.9% (N=74 out of 406) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and the rest (N=49, 12.1%) were neutral. However, 59.6% (N=235 out of 394) of the students chose agree or strongly agree for statement 6, which had the lowest mean response in the scale, 13.2% (N=52 out of 394) selected either disagree or strongly disagree, and the other students (N=107, 27.1%) were neutral. The second lowest mean response was for item 10, where 62.1% (N=245 out of 394) of the students chose to agree with the statement, 13.7% (N=58 out of 394) picked either disagree or strongly disagree, and the remaining students were neutral.

As illustrated in table 4.13 above, female students' perceptions of their parental encouragement to study English language were positive (mean=4.27). They gave strong agreement to item 9, "My parents feel that I should really try to learn English" (mean=4.52), and item 4, "My parents think I should devote more time to my English studies" (mean=4.46), whereas their weakest average agreement was indicated by the lowest two mean responses in the scale in table 4.13 for item 6, "My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English course" (mean=3.92), and item 10, "My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my English" (mean=3.95). Responses to item 9 showed female students' agreement to the statement where 89% (N=194 out of 218) of the participants agreed or strongly agreed, 6.9 (N=15 out of 218) neutral, and only 4.1% (N=9 out of 219) disagreed or strongly disagreed. Item 8 came the second highest in regard to female students' agreement

and 87.7 (N=193 out of 220) selected either agree or strongly agree, 6.4% (N=14 out of 220) were neutral, and 5.9 (N=13 out of 220) chose either disagreement or strongly disagreement. Showing their weakest agreement in regard to their perceptions of parental encouragement for item 6, 67% of female students (N=146 out of 218) selected agree and strongly agree, 10.5% (N=23 out of 218) picked disagree or strongly disagree, and 49 (22.5%) female students chose neutral. For the item with the second lowest mean, item 10, they showed moderate agreement as 69.9% (N=151 out of 216) of them expressed their agreement by selecting agree or strongly agree, 12.5% (N=27 out of 216) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and the remainder (N=38) were neutral.

The statistical analysis demonstrates that male students also had positive perceptions of their parents' encouragement to study the English language (mean=3.74) although this was at a lower level than for female students (mean=4.27). The highest levels of agreement with the statements were for item 9, "My parents feel that I should really try to learn English" (mean=4.52), and item 4, "My parents think I should devote more time to my English studies" (mean=4.46). The lowest two mean responses were from item 6, "My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English course" (mean=3.92), and item 10, "My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my English" (mean=3.95), and these items were also ranked with lower mean responses in the female scale too. For item 9 responses by male students had the highest mean, as 71.3% (N=117 out of 178) of male students agreed or strongly agreed with the statement and only 10.1% (N=18 out of 178) expressed disagreement. The remaining ones (N=33) were neutral. This was followed by statement 4 in which 51.9% (N=186 out of 183) of male students gave agreement or strong agreement, 25.7% (N=47 out of 183) chose neutral, and only 22.4% (N= 47) were on the

disagreement side. Looking at the item with the lowest mean response, item 6, 50.6% (N= 98 out of 176) of the male students either agreed or strongly agreed, 33% (N=58 out of 176) chose neutral, and the rest (N=28, 16.5%) disagreed or strongly disagreed. Next, for item 10, 52.8% (N=94 out of 178) of male students gave their agreement with the statement, 29.8% (N=53 out of 178) picked neutral, and 17.5% (N=31 out of 178) chose to disagree or strongly disagree with the statement.

An independent-samples t-test was then conducted, as shown in table 4.14 below, to examine the statistical significance of the differences between male and female students in terms of their parental encouragement. Male students (mean=3.7434, SD=1.05728) and female students (mean=4.2760, SD=.8311) did score statistically significantly differently ($t(358)=-5.073$, $p<0.05$) in terms of their parental encouragement. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.7}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their parental encouragement is rejected.

Table 4.14: Overall difference between male and female students regarding their parental encouragement.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	152	3.7434	1.05728	-5.073	358	.000
Female	208	4.2760	.8311			

4.3.8 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.8}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their motivational intensity to learn English.

Table 4.15: Difference between male and female students regarding motivational intensity to learn English.

Question	Sex	No.	C	B	A	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%			
1. I actively think about what I have learned in my English class: A) Very frequently. B) Once in a while. C). Hardly ever.	All	399	183	121	95	1.77	.80	-.058
			45.9	30.3	23.8			
	M	178	87	49	42	1.74	.81	
			48.9	27.5	23.6			
	F	221	96	72	53	1.80	.79	
			43.4	32.6	24.0			
2. If English were not taught in school, I would: A) Pick up English in everyday situations (i.e., read English books and newspapers, try to speak it whenever possible, etc.). B) Try to obtain lessons in English somewhere else. C) Not bother learning English at all.	All	375	88	150	137	2.13	.76	-.163
			23.5	40.0	36.5			
	M	161	59	49	59	2.03	.83	
			32.9	30.4	36.6			
	F	214	35	101	78	2.20	.69	
			16.4	47.2	36.4			
3. When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I: A) Immediately ask the teacher for help. B) Only seek help just before the exam. C) Just forget about it.	All	396	67	108	221	2.38	.75	-.284
			16.9	27.3	55.8			
	M	177	37	62	78	2.23	.77	
			20.9	35.0	44.1			
	F	219	30	46	143	2.51	.72	
			13.7	21.0	65.3			
4. When it comes to English homework, I: A) Work very carefully, making sure I understand everything. B) Put some effort into it, but not as much as I could. C) Just skim over it.	All	392	79	187	126	2.11	.71	-.330
			20.2	47.7	32.1			
	M	175	44	98	33	1.93	.66	
			25.1	56	18.9			
	F	217	35	89	93	2.26	.72	
			16.1	41	42.9			
5. Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I: A) Really try to learn English. B) Do just enough work to get along. C) Will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work.	All	393	110	117	166	2.14	.82	-.264
			28.0	29.8	42.2			
	M	173	63	48	62	1.99	.85	
			36.4	27.7	35.8			
	F	220	47	69	104	2.25	.78	
			21.4	31.4	47.3			
6. If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would: a) Definitely volunteer.	All	395	171	123	101	1.82	.81	.020
			43.3	31.1	25.6			
		175	81	42	52	1.83	.85	

Question	Sex	No.	C	B	A	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%			
b) Only do it if the teacher asked me directly. c) Definitely not volunteer.	M		46.3	24.0	29.7			
	F	220	90 40.9	81 36.8	49 22.3	1.81	.77	
7. After I get my English assignments back, I: A) Always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes. B) Look them over, but don't bother correcting mistakes. C) Just throw them in my desk and forget them.	All	391	108 27.6	139 35.5	144 36.8	2.09	.79	
	M	172	53 33.8	54 31.4	65 37.8	2.06	.82	-.039
	F	219	55 25.1	85 38.8	79 36.1	2.10	.77	
	All	390	60 15.4	124 31.8	206 52.8	2.37	.73	
8. When I am in English class, I: A) Volunteer answers as much as possible. B) Answer only the easier questions. C) Never say anything.	M	171	30 17.5	67 39.2	74 43.3	2.25	.73	-.208
	F	219	30 13.7	57 26.0	132 60.3	2.46	.72	
	All	390	100 25.6	99 25.4	191 49.0	2.23	.83	
9. When I hear an English song on the radio, I: A) Listen carefully and try to understand all the words B). Listen to music, paying attention only to the easy words. C) Change the station.	M	172	58 33.7	55 32.0	59 34.3	2.00	.82	-.407
	F	218	42 19.3	44 20.2	132 60.6	2.41	.79	
	All	390	100 25.6	99 25.4	191 49.0	2.23	.83	
Total	All	354				2.14	.35	
	M	149				2.07	.35	-3.15
	F	205				2.19	.35	

Table 4.15 above shows that the overall mean of the students' motivational intensity to learn English is low (mean=2.14). Their responses for all of the nine statements reveal that they did not, on average, devote great effort to acquiring the English language. The highest motivational intensity applied to item 4, "When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I: A) Immediately ask the teacher for help.

B) Only seek help just before the exam. C) Just forget about it", with a mean of 2.38, whereas their lowest degree of effort to learn English was shown for item 1, "I actively think about what I have learned in my English class: A) Very frequently. B) Once in a while. C). Hardly ever", with a mean of 1.77, and also item 6, "If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would: a) Definitely volunteer. b) Only do it if the teacher asked me directly. c) Definitely not volunteer", with a mean of 1.82. The lowest levels of motivation were shown for item 1 as 45.9% (N=183 out of 399) answered 'C', hardly ever, 30.3% (N=121 out of 399) selected once in a while, and the remaining 95 (23.8%) students went for 'A', very frequently, as a choice. This was followed by item 6 in which 171 (43.3%) students chose 'C', definitely volunteer, 123 (31.1%) 'B', only do it if the teacher asked me directly, and 101 (25.6%) picked 'A', definitely volunteer.

The data in table 4.15 illustrate that male students held a low level of motivation in class (mean=2.07). None of the items in the scale gave on average high or even moderate levels of motivational intensity above 2.5. Their highest mean was responses were demonstrated for item 8, "When I am in English class, I: A) Volunteer answers as much as possible. B) Answer only the easier questions. C) Never say anything (mean=2.25)". In contrast, item 1, "I actively think about what I have learned in my English class: A) Very frequently. B) Once in a while. C). Hardly ever" (mean=1.74), and item 6, "If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would: a) Definitely volunteer. b) Only do it if the teacher asked me directly. c) Definitely not volunteer" (mean=1.83), scored the lowest means for male students of motivational intensity. It is clear that responses for item 1 have the lowest mean for motivational intensity of males or females. For this item, 48.9% (N=87 out of 178) of male students selected 'C', Hardly

ever, 27.5% (N=49 out of 178) went for 'B', Once in a while, and 32.6% (N=42 out of 178) picked 'A', Very frequently. Next to item 1 is item 6 where 46.3% (N=81 out of 175) of the males chose 'C', Definitely not volunteer, 24% (N=42 out of 175) ticked 'B', Only do it if the teacher asked me directly, and 29.7% (N=52 out of 175) chose 'A', Definitely volunteer. However, responses to item 8, which concerned their participation in the class, carried the highest mean of the males' scores though still in the negative region, as 43.3% (N=74 out of 171) of male students went for 'A', Volunteer answers as much as possible, 39.2% (N=67 out of 171) 'B', Answer only the easier questions, and the remainder (N=30, 17.5%) picked 'C', Never say anything.

The female students again showed relatively higher levels of motivation (mean=2.19) compared to males though still also at low levels below 2.5. It can also be seen from table 4.15 that the only mean response in the table which suggested that female students held a moderate level of motivational intensity (mean=2.51) at just above 2.5 was for item 3, "When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I: A) Immediately ask the teacher for help. B) Only seek help just before the exam. C) Just forget about it". The second highest mean motivational intensity for female students is for item 8, "When I am in English class, I: A) Volunteer answers as much as possible. B) Answer only the easier questions. C) Never say anything" (mean=2.46), as 60.3% (N=132 out of 219) of females selected 'A', Volunteer answers as much as possible, 26% (N=57 out of 219) 'B', Answer only the easier questions, and the remaining (N=30 out of 219, 13.7%) chose 'C', Never say anything. On the other hand, for item 6, "If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would: a) Definitely volunteer. b) Only do it if the teacher asked me directly. c) Definitely not volunteer)", and item 1, "I actively think about what I have learned in my English

class: A) Very frequently. B) Once in a while. C). Hardly ever”, scored the lowest mean responses for females (mean=1.81) and males (mean=1.80). For item 6, 40.9% (N=90 out of 220) of females chose ‘C’, Definitely not volunteer, 36.8% (N=81 out of 220) ‘B’, Only do it if the teacher asked me directly, and the other 22.3% (N= 49 out of 220) chose ‘A’, Definitely volunteer. This was followed by item 1 in which 43.4% (N=96 out of 221) of the females selected ‘C’ Hardly, 32.6% (N=72 out of 221) ‘B’, Once in a while, and 24% (N=53 out of 221) encircled ‘A’, Very frequently.

An independent-samples t-test was used as shown in table 4.16 below to examine the statistical significance of the differences between male and female students in terms of their motivational intensity. Male students (mean=3.0765, SD=.35248) and female students (mean=2.1966, SD=.35388) did score statistically significantly ($t(352) = -3.157$, $p < 0.002$) in terms of their motivational intensity. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.8}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their motivational intensity is rejected.

Table 4.16: Overall difference between male and female students regarding motivational intensity.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	149	2.0765	.35248	-3.157	352	.002
Female	205	2.1966	.35388			

4.3.9 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.9}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their desire to learn English.

Table 4.17: Differences between male and female students regarding desire to learn English.

Question	Sex	No.	C	B	A	Mean	SD	Diff in Means	
			No.	No.	No.				
			%	%	%				
1. During English class, I would like: A) To have as much English as possible spoken. B) To have a combination of Arabic and English spoken. C) To have only Arabic spoken.	All	391	46 11.8	172 44.0	173 44.2	2.32	.67	-.336	
	M	174	36 20.7	78 44.8	60 34.5	2.13	.73		
	F	217	10 4.5	94 42.2	113 50.7	2.47	.58		
	All	387	63 16.3	195 50.4	129 33.2	2.17	.68		-.094
	M	170	41 20.4	68 33.8	61 30.3	2.11	.76		
	F	217	22 10.1	127 58.5	68 31.3	2.21	.60		
All	387	103 26.6	197 50.9	87 22.5	1.95	.70	.083		
M	168	43 25.6	81 48.2	44 26.2	2.00	.72			
F	219	60 27.4	116 53.0	43 19.6	1.92	.68			
All	388	127 32.7	154 39.7	107 27.6	1.94	.77		.048	
M	168	58 34.5	56 33.3	54 32.1	1.97	.81			
F	220	69 31.4	98 44.5	53 24.1	1.92	.74			
All	387	69 17.8	93 24.0	225 58.1	2.40	.77	-.365		
M	168	44 26.2	47 28.0	77 45.8	2.19	.82			
F	219	25 11.4	46 21.0	148 67.6	2.56	.69			
All	385	110 28.6	147 38.2	128 33.2	2.04	.78		-.251	
M	168	60 35.7	64 38.1	44 26.2	1.90	.78			

Question	Sex	No.	C	B	A	Mean	SD	Diff in Means
			No.	No.	No.			
			%	%	%			
	F	217	50 23.0	83 38.2	84 38.7	2.15	.77	
7. If the opportunity arose and I knew enough English, I would watch English TV programmes: A) As often as possible. B) Sometimes. C) Never.	All	388	75 19.3	105 27.1	208 53.6	2.34	.78	
	M	170	51 30.0	47 27.6	72 42.4	2.12	.84	-.390
	F	218	24 11.0	58 26.6	136 62.4	2.51	.68	
8. If I had the opportunity to see a film in English, I would: A) Definitely go. B) Go only if I had nothing else to do. C) Not go.	All	384	83 21.6	132 34.4	169 44.0	2.22	.77	
	M	168	55 32.7	56 33.3	57 33.9	2.01	.81	-.376
	F	216	28 13.0	76 35.2	112 51.9	2.38	.70	
9. If there were English-speaking families in my neighbourhood, I would: A) Speak English with them as much as possible. B) Speak English with them sometimes. C) Never speak English with them.	All	385	91 23.6	96 24.9	198 51.4	2.27	.82	
	M	167	60 35.9	51 30.5	56 33.5	1.97	.83	-.533
	F	218	31 14.2	45 20.6	142 65.1	2.50	.73	
10. If I had the opportunity and knew enough English, I would read English magazines and newspapers: A) As often as I could. B) Not very often. C) Never.	All	379	74 19.5	147 38.8	158 41.7	2.22	.75	
	M	166	39 23.5	69 41.6	58 34.9	2.11	.75	-.190
	F	213	35 16.4	78 36.6	100 46.9	2.30	.73	
Total	All	352				2.21	.39	
	M	151				2.07	.37	-5.87
	F	201				2.31	.37	

Table 4.17 shows that the students had a weak desire to learn the English language (mean=2.21, which is less than 2.5). They scored on average less than 2.5 in all of the 10 items in the table above, which illustrates their weak desire. The highest mean

scores were for item 5, “If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I: A) Would definitely take it. B) Do not know whether I would take it or not. C) Would drop it”, with a mean of 2.40, and item 7, “If the opportunity arose and I knew enough English, I would watch English TV programmes: A) As often as possible. B) Sometimes. C) Never”, with a mean of 2.34, whereas their lowest mean scores were shown for item 4, “If there were an English Club in my School, I would: A) Be most interested in joining. B) Attend meetings once in a while. C) Definitely not join”, with a mean of 1.94, and item 3, “Compared to my other courses, I like English: A) The most. B) The same as all the others. C) Least of all”, with a mean of 1.94. For item 5, 58.1% (N=225 out of 387) chose ‘A’, Would definitely take it, 24% (N=93 out of 387) ‘B’, Do not know whether I would take it or not, and the remaining students (17.8%, N=69 out of 387) chose ‘C’, Would drop it. The second highest mean was for item 7 as 53.6% (N=208 out of 388) of the students selected ‘A’, As often as possible, 27.1% (N=105 out of 388) ‘B’, Sometimes, and the rest (19.3%, N=75 out of 387) ‘C’, Never. The lowest mean response in the scale was for item 4, where, 32.7% (N=127 out of 388) of the students picked ‘C’, Definitely not join, 39.7% (N=154 out of 388) ‘B’, Attend meetings once in a while, and 27.6% (N=107 out of 388) went for ‘A’, Be most interested in joining. The second lowest response was for item 3 where 26.6% (N=103 out of 387) ticked ‘C’, Least of all, 50.9% (N=197 out of 387) ‘B’, The same as all the others, and the remaining students 22.5% (N=87 out of 387) chose ‘A’, The most.

Looking at male students separately, table 4.17 demonstrates that they held a weak desire to learn English with an overall mean of 2.07. The highest two mean responses were given to item 5, “If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I: A) Would definitely take it. B) Do not know whether I would take it or not. C) Would drop it”, with a mean of 2.33, and item 1, “During English class, I would like: A) To have as much

English as possible spoken. B) To have a combination of Arabic and English spoken. C) To have only Arabic spoken”, with a mean of 2.40. On the other hand, their lowest mean responses were for item 4, “If there were an English Club in my School, I would: A) Be most interested in joining. B) Attend meetings once in a while. C) Definitely not join”, and item 3, “Compared to my other courses, I like English: A) The most. B) The same as all the others. C) Least of all”, with means of 1.94, and 1.95 respectively. Item 5 gave the male students’ highest mean response, and 45.8% (N=77 out of 168) of the males picked ‘A’, Would definitely take it, 28% (N=47 out of 168) ‘B’, Do not know whether I would take it or not, and the others (26.2%, N=44 out of 168) chose ‘C’, Would drop it. Item 1 had the second highest mean response as 34.5% (N=60 out of 174) of the male students agreed on ‘A’, To have as much English as possible spoken, 44.8% (N=78 out of 174) ‘B’, To have a combination of Arabic and English spoken, and the remainder (20.7%, N=36 out of 174) picked ‘C’, To have only Arabic spoken. The item with the lowest mean response was item 4, where 34.5% (N=58 out of 168) of male students selected ‘C’, Definitely not join, 33.2% (N= 56 out of 168) ‘B’, Attend meetings once in a while, and 32.1% (N=54 out of 168) chose ‘A’, Be most interested in joining. This was followed by the second lowest mean response for item 3, where 25.6% (N=43 out of 168) of the male students named ‘C’, Least of all, 48.2% (N=81 out of 168) ‘B’, The same as all the others, and 26.2 (N=44 out of 168) decided on ‘A’, The most.

Similarly, the female students’ mean overall response (M=2.31) shows that they also did not have a strong desire to learn the English language, although this value was higher than that of the males (mean=2.07). They gave their highest mean response to item 5, “If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I: A) Would definitely take it. B) Do not know whether I would take it or not. C) Would drop it”, with a mean of 2.48, and item 7, “If the opportunity arose and I knew enough English, I would watch English

TV programmes: A) As often as possible. B) Sometimes. C) Never”, with a mean of 2.56. Meanwhile, as shown in table 4.17, female students showed their weakest desire to learn English in answers to item 3, “Compared to my other courses, I like English: A) The most. B) The same as all the others. C) Least of all”, with a mean of 1.92, and item 4, “If there were an English Club in my School, I would: A) Be most interested in joining. B) Attend meetings once in a while. C) Definitely not join”, with a mean of 1.92. However, the mean response for item 5 was just above the borderline (mean=2.56) and it was the item with the highest mean in the female scale as 45.8% (N=77 out of 168) of female students named ‘A’, Would definitely take it, 28% (N=47 out of 168) ‘B’, I Do not know whether I would take it or not, and 26.2 (N=44 out of 168) ‘C’, Would drop it. Regarding the lowest mean responses for female students in table 4.17, for item 3 27.4% (N=60 out of 219) of the female students went for ‘C’, Least of all, 53% (N=116 out of 219) ‘B’, The same as all the others, and 19.6% (N=43 out of 219) ‘A’, The most. The second lowest mean was for item 4 where 31.4% (N=69 out of 220) of female students selected ‘C’, Definitely not join, 44.5% (N=98 out of 220) ‘B’, Attend meetings once in a while, and the remaining females (N=53) chose ‘A’, Be most interested in joining.

An independent-samples t-test was used as shown in table 4.18 below to examine the statistical significance of the differences between male and female students in terms of their desire to learn English. Male students (mean = 2.0748, SD = .37456) and female students (mean=2.3129, SD=.37727) did score statistically significantly differently ($t(350) = -5.878$, $p < 0.05$) in terms of their desire to learn English. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.9}$, that *there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their desire to learn English*, was rejected. Therefore, we can say

that the data support the alternative research hypothesis that there is a difference between male and female students in regard to their desire to learn English.

Table 4.18: Overall difference between male and female students regarding desire to learn English.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	151	2.0748	.37456	-5.878	350	.000
Female	201	2.3129	.37727			

4.3.10 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.10}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their evaluation of their teacher in general.

It was found that the students in general had positive attitudes toward their English teachers, with an overall mean response of 3.21. Nevertheless, there is a slight difference between the mean responses for male and female students, and to decide whether or not the difference is significant, an independent-samples t-test was conducted as shown in table 4.19. The male students (mean=3.0070, SD=1.09917) and female students (mean=3.3580, SD = 1.09868) did score statistically significantly differently ($t(369) = -3.037$, $p < 0.05$) in terms of their impressions of their English teacher. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.10}$ that *there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their impressions of their English teacher* is rejected. Therefore, we can say that the data support the alternative research hypothesis that there is a difference between male and female students in regard to their impressions of their English teacher.

Table 4.19: Overall difference between male and female students regarding impressions of their teacher.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	156	3.0070	1.09917	-3.037	369	.003
Female	215	3.3580	1.09868			
Overall	371	3.2104	1.11103			

4.3.11 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{01.11}$)

There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their evaluation of their course in general.

Table 4.20 illustrates that the students held relatively low positive attitudes toward their course (mean=2.87). Also, the table indicates that male students on average had less positive attitudes than those of the female students. An independent-samples t-test was used, as shown in table 4.20 below, to determine if there were statistically significant differences between male and female students in terms of their impressions of their course. Male students (mean=2.8067, SD=.94850) and female students (mean=2.9210, SD=1.06486) did not score statistically significantly differently ($t(366)=-1.054$, $p>0.05$) in terms of their impressions of their course. Therefore, we failed to reject sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.11}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their impressions of their course.

Table 4.20: Overall difference between male and female students regarding impressions of their course.

Sex	No.	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	154	2.8067	.94850	-1.054	366	.292
Female	214	2.9210	1.06486			
Overall	368	2.8736	2.8736			

4.4 SECOND MAIN NULL HYPOTHESIS (H_{02}): THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTITUDINAL AND MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT.

The attitudinal and motivational factors

1. Attitudes toward British people.
2. Attitudes toward learning English.
3. Interest in foreign languages.
4. Integrative orientation.
5. Instrumental orientation.
6. English class anxiety.
7. Parental encouragement.
8. Motivational intensity.
9. Desire to learn English.
10. Students' impressions of their English teacher.
11. Students' impressions of their English course.

Aggregate scores:

12. Intgrativeness (factor 1+ factor 3 + factor 4).
13. Attitudes toward the learning situation (factor 10+ factor 11).
14. Motivation (factor 2 + factor 8 + factor 9).

4.4.1 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.1}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward British people and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Table 4.21 shows the use of Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient to examine the relationship between students' attitudes toward British people and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). No statistically significant correlation was found between students' attitudes toward British people and their English course scores ($r_s(296)=.063, p>0.05$). The same was found with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(319)=.068, p>0.05$), suggesting no statistically significant relationship between students' attitudes

toward British people and their indices of achievement. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.1}$ could not be rejected.

Table 4.21: Correlations between students' attitudes toward British people, and indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
Attitudes toward British people	Spearman's rho	.063	.068
	Sig (2-tailed)	.284	.227
	N	296	319

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.2 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.2}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward learning English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

As shown in table 4.22, Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between students' attitudes toward learning English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). Codings for the negatively scored items (items 6-10) were reversed when the totals or scores were calculated using the *Transform* option in SPSS (see section 3.20). Statistically significant positive correlations were found between students' attitudes toward learning English and their English course scores ($r_{s(366)}=.211$, $p<0.05$), as well as with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_{s(398)}=.251$, $p<0.05$), suggesting that students' attitudes toward learning English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-rating of English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.2}$ was rejected.

Table 4.22: Correlations between students' attitudes toward learning English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-rating of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
Attitudes toward Learning English	Spearman's rho	.211**	.251**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	366	366

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.3 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.3}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' interest in foreign languages and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

The results shown in table 4.23 illustrate that the Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was computed to examine the relationship between students' interest in foreign languages and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). Statistically significant positive correlations were found between students' interest in foreign languages and their English course scores ($r_s(348) = .248, p < 0.05$) and with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(378) = .295, p < 0.05$), suggesting that students' interest in foreign languages and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-rating English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.3}$ was rejected.

Table 4.23: Correlations between students' interest in foreign languages and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
Interest in foreign languages	Spearman's rho	.248**	.295**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	348	378

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.4 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.4}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' integrative orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Looking at table 4.24, the Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was calculated to examine the relationship between students' integrative orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). Statistically significant positive correlations were also found between students' integrative orientation and both their English course scores ($r_s(364) = .221, p < 0.05$) and with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(395) = .200, p < 0.05$), suggesting that students' integrative orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-rating of English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.4}$ was rejected.

Table 4.24: Correlations between students' integrative orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
Integrative orientation	Spearman's rho	.221**	.200**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	364	395

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.5 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{0.5}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' instrumental orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

To check if there is a relationship between students' instrumental orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-rating of English language proficiency), Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient were computed as can be seen in table 4.25. Statistically significant positive correlations were found between students' instrumental orientation and their English course scores ($r_s(364)=.175$, $p<0.05$) as well as with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(392)=.150$, $p<0.05$), suggesting that students' instrumental orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{0.5}$ was rejected.

Table 4.25: Correlations between students' instrumental orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
Instrumental Orientation	Spearman's rho	.175**	.150**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.001	.003
	N	364	392

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.6 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.6}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' English class anxiety and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

In order to examine the relationship between students' English class anxiety and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was used, as shown in table 4.26. A statistically significant negative correlation was found between students' English class anxiety and their English course scores ($r_s(350)=-.145$, $p<0.05$). The same was found with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(383)= -.271$, $p<0.05$), suggesting that students' English class anxiety and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.6}$ was rejected.

Table 4.26: Correlations between students' English class anxiety and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
English Class Anxiety	Spearman's rho	-.145**	-.271**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.007	.000
	N	350	383

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.7 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.7}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

To determine whether or not there was a relationship between students' parental encouragement and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was introduced as shown in table 4.27. A statistically significant positive correlation was found between students' parental encouragement and their English course scores ($r(320)=.147$, $p<0.05$). The same was found with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($rs(349)=.202$, $p<0.05$). This suggests that parental encouragement and students' English achievement were related. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.7}$ was rejected.

Table 4.27: Correlations between students' parental encouragement, and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-rating of English language proficiency
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Parental encouragement	Spearman's	.147**	.202**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.008	.000
	N	320	349

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.8 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{0.8}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' motivational intensity and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-rating of English language proficiency).

To determine whether or not there was a relationship between students' motivational intensity and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was used (see table 4.28). Statistically significant positive correlations were found between students' motivational intensity and both their English course scores ($r_{s(317)}=.226$, $p<0.05$) and self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_{s(344)}=.273$, $p<0.05$), suggesting that students' motivational intensity and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{0.8}$ was rejected.

Table 4.28: Correlations between students' motivational intensity and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
Motivational intensity	Spearman's	.226**	.273**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	317	344

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.9 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.9}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

As shown in table 4.29 below, after checking the relationship between students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), using Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient, statistically significant positive correlations were found between students' desire to learn English and their English course scores ($r_s(314)=.279$, $p<0.05$) as well as with their self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(344)=.255$, $p<0.05$), suggesting that students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.9}$ was rejected.

Table 4.29: Correlations between students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	English Course Scores	Self-ratings of English language proficiency
Desire to learn English	Spearman's rho	.255**	.279**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	344	314

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.10 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.10}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' impressions of their English teacher and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Table 4.30 shows that, after computing Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient to examine the relationship between students' impressions of their English teacher and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), no statistically significant correlations were found with their English course scores ($r_s(336) = .094$, $p > 0.05$) or their self-ratings in English language proficiency ($r_s(361) = .033$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.10}$ could not be rejected.

Table 4.30: Correlations between students' impressions of their English teacher and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	Self-rating of English language proficiency	English course scores
Students' impressions of their English teacher	Spearman's rho	.033	.094
	Sig (2-tailed)	.534	.084
	N	361	336

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.11 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.11}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' impressions of their English course and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

To examine the relationship between students' impressions of their English course and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was applied

(see table 4.31). No statistically significant correlation was found between students' impressions of their English course and their English course scores ($r_s(336)=.040$, $p>0.05$). The same was true with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(358)=.060$, $p>0.05$), and therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.11}$ could not be rejected.

Table 4.31: Correlations between students' impressions of their English course and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	Self-ratings of English language proficiency	English course scores
Students' impressions of their English course	Spearman's rho	.060	.040
	Sig (2-tailed)	.257	.459
	N	358	336

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.12 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.12}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' integrativeness and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-rating of English language proficiency).

Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was used as shown in table 4.32 to examine the relationship between students' integrativeness and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). A statistically significant positive correlation was found between students' integrativeness and their English course scores ($r_s(369)=.198$, $p<0.05$). The same was found with self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(401)=.196$, $p<0.05$), suggesting that students' integrativeness and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) were statistically significantly related to one another. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.12}$ was rejected.

Table 4.32: Correlations between students' integrativeness and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	Self-ratings of English language proficiency	English course scores
Integrativeness	Spearman's rho	.196**	.198**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	401	369

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.13 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{02.13}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward the learning situation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

To discover the status of the relationship between students' attitudes toward the learning situation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient was employed as presented in table 4.33. No statistically significant correlations were found between students' attitudes toward the learning situation and either their English course scores ($r_s(341)=.076$, $p>0.05$) or self-ratings in English language proficiency ($r_s(366)=.059$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.13}$ could not be rejected. Here we could say we 'failed to reject' the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.13}$.

Table 4.33: Correlations of students' attitudes toward the learning situation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	Self-ratings of English language proficiency	English course scores
	Spearman's rho	.059	.076
	Sig (2-tailed)	.263	.162

Attitudes toward the learning	N	366	341
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** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.4.14 Sub-null-hypothesis ($H_{0.14}$)

There is no significant relationship between students' motivation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Table 4.34 shows the Spearman's rank-difference correlation coefficient calculated to examine the relationship between students' motivation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). Statistically significant positive correlations were found between students' motivation and their English course scores ($r_s(369)=.218$, $p<0.05$) and with their self-ratings of English language proficiency ($r_s(401)=.263$, $p<0.05$), suggesting that the students' motivation and their indices of achievement were statistically significantly related. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{0.14}$ was rejected.

Table 4.34: Correlations of students' motivation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency).

Factor	Statistics	Self-rating of English Language proficiency	English Course Scores
Motivation	Spearman's rho	.263**	.218**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	401	369

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.5 FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

In order to differentiate between the responses of individual interviewees, a coding system was used which consists of two characters. The first character is for sex, either

'M' for male or 'F' for female, and the second character is a number from 1 to 8, because there were 8 interviewees in each of the two groups.

The interview questions and thematic analysis are grouped according to the eleven attitudinal and motivational factors below (see section 3.15 for more details):

1. **Attitudes toward British people.**
2. **Attitudes toward learning English.**
3. **Interest in foreign languages.**
4. **Integrative orientation.**
5. **Instrumental orientation.**
6. **English class anxiety.**
7. **Parental encouragement.**
8. **Motivational intensity.**
9. **Desire to learn English.**
10. **Students' impressions of their English teacher.**
11. **Students' impressions of their English course.**

4.5.1 Attitudes toward British people

From the thematic analysis of the students' attitudes toward British people, three themes emerged from the data: (1) respectful behaviour; (2) friendliness; and (3) respect for the system and rules.

Female students commented positively on the question of how they found British people. They saw British people as polite, and they said that they found them respectful when they dealt with them. As one female student said:

F2 said:

I find British people to be respectable.

Another female student added that the British whom she knew from the British Council were nice to deal with.

F6 said:

I see them as respectable, and they respect people they deal with.

Another three female students expressed the same opinion.

F7 said:

I find them well-mannered and not big-headed when dealing with others.

F4 said:

There is a barrier between me and them which is religion only. However, I don't feel there are many differences in religion between us and the British here; therefore, I prefer interaction with them because they have principles and ethics.

F3 said:

I see them as people who appreciate a person's talent and abilities.

One female student took a neutral position. She believed that it depended on the person concerned.

F8 said:

I am indifferent toward them; I don't like them, and I don't hate them. To me, I see them like most nations, if you respect yourself they will respect you.

Male students held similar positive views of British people as being hard-working people. As one male student commented:

M4 said:

From my father's experience, once they are committed to finish a task, they do try to finish it at the agreed time!

Another male believed that role of etiquette was part and parcel of British people's nature.

M3 said:

From my point of view, they are prestigious and noble people. They always behave with good manners.

The same image was held by another two male students.

M2 said:

Civilized and high-class people.

M1 said:

I saw two of my brother's friends. They were British. I think they are prestigious.

Two males believed that morality is a very important thing in English people's lives.

M6 said:

I find English people moral.

M8 said:

Conservative and moral people.

One male student had a different opinion.

M5 said:

I think they are snobbish.

However, two male students disagreed with him stating that they believed that British people are trustworthy, and you can depend on them.

M4 said:

Trust and reliability are some of the characteristics of the British.

M2 said:

I see them as respectable people.

When the interviewees were asked whether or not they found British people easy to mix with, the majority commented that they found them friendly and not difficult to speak to.

F5 said:

Cultured and warm people.

F1 said:

Cooperative and helpful people.

M6 said:

The British are friendly and welcoming to all nationalities regardless of their differences.

One of the participants did not mix a lot with British people, but he was influenced by his friend who perceived British people as people who would be friendly with a person whom they had a positive experience with.

M1 said:

We have not been given an opportunity to interact that much with British people, but I know one of my friends who says that they are so friendly, and once they trust you, that's it!

The above participant's view was supported by another male student.

M2 said:

They are not friendly with people who they don't know very well.

Nevertheless, one interviewee had a different opinion. He held the idea that British people were not friendly, and that they were arrogant.

M5 said:

My impression is that they are not friendly, and I think they are snobbish.

By way of contrast, a male student studying with him in the same class disagreed with him strongly.

M2 said:

I see them as cooperative people who help each other as well as other people.

A common view amongst the interviewees was that the British are known for being systematic and also known for respecting rules and order when doing things.

F3 said:

Regarding the British, they are known for obeying the rules, especially rules related to the language. If we would compare the British and Americans, we could notice that the British do not make grammatical mistakes, nor do they omit letters when pronouncing words which is the case with the Americans. When listening to any one of them speaking English, I feel that their language is excellent and as it should be.

A female student agreed with the above comment as she stated that:

F5 said:

It is a nation that created a system and implemented it according to the book. No honest person would deny their scientific discoveries and their significant contribution to science. It is enough to say Isaac Newton is from there.

She added that she liked the English timing of drinking tea.

F5 said:

I like the habit they have which is afternoon tea at 5 o'clock.

One female student was amazed at what she saw in the United Kingdom when she went to study the English language in Bath in the previous summer.

F7 said:

Excellent nation! When I went last year to Bath, I saw everything there, buses and trains, etc., were in order.

In view of the fact that British people are advanced in technology and intellectual thinking, one female student expressed her surprise that such a high level nationality like the British generalised the misbehaviour of some individuals and attributing it to the whole nation.

F4 said:

I agree with regard to their great advances in technology, in addition to their organization in everyday life. However, if I were from a developed and civilized nation, I would have to avoid negative generalisations because a large number of them think that we are not hard-working people, and that we don't respect the system.

Other male and female students commented as follows:

M4 said:

If they [the British] read our culture, they would come to know that it is a great culture and real Arabs respect their promises even if someone might lose his life, and our literature is full of the same stories, but actually some Arabs, unfortunately, did ruin our reputation.

F5 said:

Our old Arab civilisation and heritage is full of moral and good deeds, but our problem is that we do not read to practice these good deeds and to follow those famous and good figures in our history.

Moreover, two male students related stories from two private schools they had experience of when they were studying abroad.

M3 said:

I got to know them from the academic side. They are really patient with students to a huge extent. Furthermore, they equip the student with the foundations, basically as if he was starting from zero.

M7 said:

Yes, they are patient and at the beginning when I was there [in the UK], I was speaking English with great difficulty, but they were teaching me how to build confidence first to be able to speak better and better.

One female student's view was in line with those of the two males above (M3 and M7) in saying that the British deliver information to students in sequence and systematically.

F4 said:

I do not know much about British people, but I noticed during my summer course at the British Council that they are so friendly, practical people and teach you step by step not like here [her school]. I wish I had more opportunities to meet them more. I cannot wait to go to Britain or America or Canada.

4.5.2 Attitudes toward learning English.

When the interviewees were asked whether or not they liked the English language, two recurrent themes in the interviews were their love of the English language and how enjoyable the English language was.

F4 said:

Yes, I love learning English. To me English language is the most interesting subject in the school. When I am attending English lessons, I really don't feel the time.

F1 said:

I love English language and for this reason, I am, next summer, not going to Turkey with my family. Instead, I requested of my father to send me to the UK for a one-month English course.

Three male students commented that they studied English language because they enjoyed it and felt happy during English classes.

M3 said:

I learn English language because I find it fascinating. It is not solely a subject for me at school that I have to learn.

M5 said:

I like to learn English language too, though I think there are different accents and slang within the English language. I find the English accent to be easier and more beautiful to hear than the American one.

A male student had a plan for his future. His plan was to study hard in order to get good final grades to be able to qualify for a scholarship.

M8 said:

My plan for myself after I finish high school is to get a scholarship and go to Leeds University where my brother is and to study English language as much as possible because I enjoy it at the same time I want to master it.

A similar plan was revealed by one female student. She loved the English language and enjoyed studying other subjects which use English as the medium of instruction. She wanted to study media for her Bachelor's degree, and she was determined to study it in the English language in particular.

F6 said:

If you ask me why I study English, I will tell you I study it merely because I enjoy it. When I go to university, I would like to study media, but I would like to study it in the English language because I like English very much.

4.5.3 Interest in foreign languages

When the students were asked about their interest in wanting to know other foreign languages, two themes were identified in their responses: (1) additional advantages and (2) attraction. A male student was confident in his answer about the importance of and good feelings about knowing another language.

M5 said:

Of course, other languages aside from English is a great advantage. In my opinion, learning other languages doesn't do any harm. On the contrary, it adds more assets to your knowledge. For example, if you have a foreign visitor in your place who does not speak English or Arabic, what would you do if do not understand each other's language?

Another female student was interested in learning different languages, but she gave priority to the foreign language of the community where she and her family would be living.

F4 said:

It useful to study the language of the foreign country where you are, especially if you and your family live there. I also believe in the old saying: "if you master a language of a group of people, you would be safe from many of their problems". In being able to understand and speak that language, I would be able to know how this group of people looks at us or me and how they want to deal with me.

On the other hand, a male student was very enthusiastic about learning another foreign language as a personal dream.

M7 said:

In my opinion, English should be learnt first because now everyone in the labour market would ask you if you speak good English, but if you tell them that you can also speak another language, for example, French or Chinese, they will, for sure, recruit you. Therefore, speaking different languages, to me, is a dream.

One male student pointed out that he agreed with the idea of being able to speak the language of the country which you are visiting, and one should be aware of the fact that some countries do not prefer to speak in other languages apart from their own language.

M2 said:

There are, for example, some countries like Holland. People there are so proud of their language to the extent that they don't speak with you in English. Therefore, you find yourself forced to speak their language when you are in Holland. I believe that the English language is so important, and also, I don't see any problem in learning another one or two languages alongside English to be able to communicate with different nations who don't speak or don't want to speak in English. This will also be very much hopeful for cultural purposes as well as for learning and obtaining new skills.

Another female student commented as follows:

F5 said:

Knowing the language of a foreign country you are visiting is an enjoyable experience and at the same time is important because it enables you to understand what is happening around you there. Also knowing the language of that foreign country can be a great help for you to be able to manage your affairs there, such as looking for a hotel or finding a job or even reading about the history of that foreign country.

About two-thirds of the students said that they would like to study different languages if they were given a chance because learning languages is attractive to them.

M8 said:

I am attracted to studying different languages, not only English.

One female student indicated that she would like to learn other languages, and she mentioned the French language in particular.

F5 said:

I like other languages, apart from English. I wish I could learn French now or in the future.

A different opinion was given by a female student who was only interested in learning the English language, and she was not bothered about other languages.

F2 said:

No. from my side, I only like learning English.

Some students found Far Eastern languages such as Japanese or Korean language attractive.

M 7 said:

I would prefer learning Japanese to English because the English language has become a widespread language and is used a lot; therefore, I would like to learn a new language. I like Japanese people. I see them as civilized and advanced. I find their language to be beautiful.

F4 said:

I would like to learn a foreign language of people I like. For example, I like Korean people and their TV series, movies and songs. For that reason, I spent some time learning the Korean language because I like the people, and now I can understand words and sentences more.

4.5.4 Integrative orientation.

When the participants were asked if they were in the UK, would they have integrated and mixed with the people there, the themes which recurred throughout the data were as follows: firstly, participating in British culture; secondly, understanding the other group's literature, and thirdly, mixing with and meeting more people, either the British or different people who can speak English.

One female student mentioned that, for her, the most important and challenging thing was to understand the British culture, not the language, which she believed would help her to interact with the British and people in the UK.

F5 said:

For me and from my experience, the real difference between us and them [the British] is some aspects of the cultural point of view. For this reason, I am going to google their culture in the internet to learn about British life.

Another female student was concerned about being different in her religion as a Muslim from the people of that foreign country.

F1 said:

Regarding me going to a European country I am not familiar with, it will be seen at the beginning as a student coming to study, but I think their interaction with me will reflect their attitudes toward Arabs and Muslims.

One female agreed with F1, saying that she had the same feelings and concerns.

F3 said:

The same. I can integrate with them without any problems, but this integration carries certain dangers as well since there are some negative aspects of it. I, as a Muslim, have certain beliefs, tradition and habits that I am proud of and I think some of these would be difficult for them to understand. For that reason, I don't mind participating in events there and mixing with them culturally or socially, but there are some lines I would not cross as an Arab and a Muslim.

To understand different cultures was very important for some students. For example, a male student was aiming to learn English language mostly because he saw it as a key to understanding other cultures, not only British culture. Moreover, he believed that listening to the news in English was more reliable.

M3 said:

I also learn English language for two reasons, which are that I like those people [the British]. Therefore, I really want to understand their behaviour and way of living more before I go to the UK. Second, it is also necessary to know it because most of the sources of information are in English. Even if the same information is available in Arabic, still I refer to the English sources because I find them to be more accurate and

authentic. Even the news is more accurate and clearer when it is from the English version. Even if you want to know about other people's culture if you know the English language things would be much easier for you to understand.

One female student was willing to integrate and would not want to be marginalized when in the UK. She also believed that knowing the English language would help her to understand the British culture and doing so would enable her to have more friends.

F5 said:

I don't mind being like one of them. I don't like to be isolated as a foreigner. My opinion is that we need to mix and integrate with them in order to know their positive and negative sides. Being aware of their culture will always help you to gain more friends while you are there.

Students in general accepted the idea that they were going to learn English and be proficient at it because this would help them to meet more people and to have more discussions.

M5 said:

In my opinion, when I am in the UK, I am going to mix not only with the British but also with people from other countries because the English language allows you to have more friends.

Two male students had the same idea. They believed that integration was necessary for them to know about British culture. Moreover, they stated that British people surpassed the Arabs in various fields. For this reason, we as Arabs should meet and mix with them to improve our countries.

M7 said:

It is necessary that we integrate with them. The Arabic proverb said: who lives with people more than 40 days becomes one of them. So, we need to know their nature, behaviour and manners in everything.

M4 said:

I know many of the respected figures in our neighbourhood who studied law or business administration in Britain. To have a degree from the UK is really my dream. These people [the British] are years and years more advanced than us; therefore, mixing with them or studying in their universities will benefit me and raise my level socially, culturally and even linguistically. I don't mean only scientifically, but also their literature. If you just mention William Shakespeare to anyone, they will tell you he is the greatest writer that has ever lived!

In response to the question from the researcher about whether or not they would mix with the British when they went to the UK, one female student believed strongly that it would be impossible when in the UK not to interact with the British.

F6 said:

Of course, I will socialise with them, it is inevitable to mix, but I would relate it to the language. If you are good at it, you would interact with them directly and mingle with them faster.

A male student had a different opinion. He saw that the impact of students on each other is very strong. So, to him, a student is affected by his colleagues.

M7 said:

It depends on who travels with you. If they really want to study, you will mix with them, but if they do not like studying, they will affect you, for sure.

Some students wanted to meet and interact with British people because they were interested in meeting them and also they wanted to give them information or clear up misconceptions held by some British and other foreigners about the Arabs.

F8 said:

As for me, I will socialise with them and will try to get them to know my Arabic culture and will try to improve their picture about the Arabs.

M6 said:

My cousin told me that the British are not happy with what some Arabic tourists do in London. I would like to meet those British and tell them that those people are not a good example of us, and this is not our behaviour.

The students in general believed that it was much easier to interact with the British or other nations if they were able to speak English. They said if a person did speak good English, he or she would feel relaxed and at ease when dealing with the British or different groups who could speak English.

M7 said:

Even in your country, if you went to a neighbourhood where you have many foreigners who live there, they would feel relaxed when dealing with you, if you speak good English or know the language of that foreigner you are speaking to.

A female student was worried about the early days when arriving in the UK. She believed that the most difficult part of her scholarship would be the start. However, she commented that things one by one would be managed.

F4 said:

At the beginning, a girl will find that everything surrounding her, food, drinks, transportation, and hospitals, is in English. At first, a person is afraid, but with time, things become easier.

The students also believed that it was important to be able to speak English because being able to would encourage you and create a comfortable atmosphere for yourself to integrate and gain more and more knowledge. Moreover, one of them gave an example of what the Google company had done with its employees in order to encourage them to innovate.

F7 said:

I read that the Google company in order to attract employees and increase their motivation to be able to innovate, designed a workshop in a shape of a house with all relaxing contents so that everyone in the team would feel comfortable. So, the point is, if someone wants to be attracted to something, then that something has to be felt as if it is part of that someone.

F4 said:

Sure, I will not be able to concentrate if I am afraid of something. I must choose a good neighbourhood and good family to feel safe.

4.5.5 Instrumental Orientation.

The interviewees were asked about what the benefits were of knowing the English language nowadays. Their four main reasons were as follows: A) the importance of the English language in social life, B) the importance of English in the academic world, C) the importance of the English language in the job market, and D) the importance of speaking skills for the job market in Qatar.

Students had a common agreement among each other that the English language is very important in their social life. As one male student said.

M2 said:

Honestly, English language helps me a lot in social life. If I go to a restaurant, for example, all of them are interacting in English, rarely in Arabic. It is impossible to find a person who would interact with you in French. Most nationalities interact in English. For that reason it is an important language; it helps you in social and professional life.

One female student gave India as an example of the power of the English language even among the people from the same country. She also said that India has different groups with different languages, and they use English to communicate with each other.

F5 said:

For sure, it has become a leading language in the world. It is very important because people communicate with each other by means of it all over the world. For example, in India, they have many languages, yet they are using English as a means of communications.

A male student expressed the same idea, saying that if you were running your own business and there was contact with the public you would have to use English more.

M8 said:

We can say it is the business language. If you do not have it, then you cannot run your own business, especially if your business involves contact with the public. I tried this and experienced it personally with my father. Oh guys, it is so important to know English.

This idea was shared by another two male students. They told stories about when they travelled to two Asian countries. One student pointed out that in China, the only foreign language spoken was English. The other student went with his mother to Thailand for medical treatment. He was amazed at how many people were able to speak English.

M3 said:

English has become a dominant language all around the world. For example, I travelled with my father to China to buy car spare parts for his shop. The most common language used there with foreign businessmen was English. I would say, without knowing English, it would be very difficult to manage what you want in foreign countries, especially if you go for business.

M4 said:

In Thailand, when we took my mother to be treated, all the communications there, between the tourists, whether for medical tourism or even if you are going for a honeymoon and the people there, were in English.

What they said was confirmed by a female student. She stated that in general, if a person travelled to any foreign country and this person spoke English they would not have a communication problem.

F6 said:

If we travelled abroad, we wouldn't be able to live with other people unless we spoke English since the majority speaks this language. English is regarded as a medium of communication between people of different languages.

To search for academic information and for academic purposes, the interviewees believed that the English language is the primary tool for them to find the information they want even if the choice of studying abroad was not there.

M8 said:

Even if you don't go to study abroad, just to browse the internet, you will find that most of the useful websites to learn something from are in English and not in Arabic. I would study it because it will be useful for me in life, generally speaking.

One male student emphasised the importance of studying science from English version books but not Arabic ones. He stated that he never searched for scientific information books translated into Arabic. When he wanted to check any unclear information, he either went to the main English source or a website where he could find simple examples.

M6 said:

For example, if I wanted to check the information provided in a science book, I wouldn't check for it in books written in Arabic because most of the time their translation is literal, and therefore, not understandable. Although sometimes I cannot understand the science books that I am referring to, still, I try to translate them by myself in order to get reliable information or search for simple examples from the website, but I do not go to the translated ones.

All of the students, males and females, believed in the importance of English in their academic life, particularly when a student wants to go to university.

M7 said:

Now, in order to enrol in a university, it depends on the English exam score you get. So, I know that I need to get a high result in order to join Qatar University.

A male student was more detailed than the other students in giving information of some universities' conditions regarding the level of English language of new students.

M3 said:

Yes, we see now that every place and all different majors at universities require different proficiency levels in English. All of them want a good level of English, and you cannot reach your goal if you are not proficient in English.

Nearly all of the students agreed on the importance of the English language in their future lives. They stressed the negative consequences of not having a good command of English, and agreed with one student when he said all jobs now require employees to be proficient in English.

M2 said:

Yes, he is right. Now, 90% of employers require proficiency in English.

One male student wanted to be an ambassador. He said that to be an ambassador you must be excellent at English. He mentioned that he would do all the necessary things to reach his goal.

M5 said:

As for me, I will strive to become an ambassador. An ambassador must be able to be proficient in more than one language.

One female student pointed out that the requirement of having the English language is not only needed in Qatar but also in all of the other Arabic countries. She gave an example of her sister searching for a job in Qatar in 2012, and she described how difficult it was for her sister because she did not speak good English.

F1 said:

Yes, but even the Arab countries, including Qatar, have almost become like foreign countries because most job vacancies in Qatar require CVs to contain information about the level of English in reading, writing and speaking. My sister, after her graduation, she went to many job interviewees, all of them without exception were asking for English.

A very short and expressive sentence was given by one female when she summed up her thoughts in one word: to 'live'. She said that she needed English to make ends meet.

F7 said:

In short, we study English in order to be able to live. Especially, if you are a girl, you do not have as many options as boys. For example, boys can go to the army or join the police, etc.

A very interesting point was mentioned by some male students, which was that they would not need to study English because they could join the police or the army easily and without language requirements.

M3 said:

For the majority of us as Qataris, there is an idea that once we finish studying, we would work with the police or the army. For that reason, there is no interest in English language. In addition, the idea to go university no longer exists for the majority because they prefer to join the military.

M1 said:

If my English has not improved, I will definitely not go to university. The army or the police give the same salary as or more than other civilian jobs with university degrees. So, why bother?

About two-thirds of the students suggested that speaking is the most needed skill in the job market. However, they did not devalue the importance of the other skills of listening, reading and writing.

M4 said:

All four are important, but for me, the most important is speaking because he who knows speaking will be able to manage things, and mastering this skill will help him in job interviews. I mean, this would give the company where he wants to work a good impression of himself.

One female student was convinced that speaking is the number one skill in terms of the importance of using it when you have a job. She was influenced by her father's experience with his job in the oil company.

F6 said:

Speaking is the most important among the four skills. If you make a mistake while speaking, another person can correct you. In oil companies like where my father

works, they send them for English courses, and there nobody speaks in Arabic, all in English.

One male student was more analytical. He pointed out that the four skills of listening, speaking, writing and reading depend on each other. In other words, they affect each other either negatively or positively.

M3 said:

They complement each other. If you are able to write you should be able to read, and if you are able to read you should be able to speak. So, each one is related to the other. However, I think, speaking is the most used skill in daily life. Because if you are working in your business or with someone, most of the time you will need your speaking skills, not the other ones.

4.5.6 English class anxiety.

The students did confirm that they felt anxious during their English classes. Two themes emerged from the data in terms of what they believed caused their anxiety: (1) the teacher and (2) the course level. One student spoke about his experience with one English teacher who taught him when he was at primary school, and how he made him love learning English. However, after his experience with his teacher the year before, his attitudes toward English language had changed.

M7 said:

It depends on the teacher. I liked English language because of my teacher who taught me at the primary school; however, the situation changed since last year when our high school teachers' approach was harsh and difficult and that made me worried more in English classes.

Another male student stressed the role of the teacher to reduce anxiety in the class by preventing students from laughing at each other.

M4 said:

The most influential and encouraging factor for me is the teacher. If he is able to control the class, no one would make fun of others. What confuses me most is my mates because if anyone utters a wrong word; it is finished!

A lot of male students agreed that the level of their course affects the level of their anxiety. Two female students reasoned that their anxiety was related to the difficulty of the course level. They said their course that year was far from interesting, and they thought that what might caused their anxiety.

F2 said:

As for me, the course is very boring. It should be more flexible, and many things should be changed to a manageable level in order to become more interesting and enjoyable in all aspects of the language. We would not feel afraid of answering if the level of the book is manageable.

F4 said:

This year, I study more than one hour a day for the English course, but I am not keeping up with the curriculum, to tell you the truth, this makes me nervous and not confident during my English course.

The same was true generally of the males. Most of them agreed that they faced the same difficulty. One student pointed out that from the beginning of the course he did not waste time, and always concentrated on the teacher and tried to understand the materials in the course, but it was too difficult for him.

M8 said:

When the teacher calls me out to answer questions in front of my mates, I get confused. Actually, I am not afraid to answer. The problem for me is that I do not know the answer. Although I did my best to concentrate during the lesson, the subject is too hard for me.

On the other hand, one student's mother was from a country in the Far East where the English language is considered to be the official language of that country. To him, anxiety did not arise during the English lessons. In contrast, he wanted the teacher to ask him because he felt proud and happy to give correct answers.

M5 said:

I would make it more difficult. To me, the course is really easy. My mum is a foreigner [English language is her second language], and she considers our course level to be very easy. I do not mind being asked by the teacher, on the contrary, I feel proud and happy to be asked.

4.5.7 Parental encouragement.

When the students were asked how their parents encouraged them regarding learning English, five themes emerged from the data analysis. These are (1) verbal encouragement, (2) private teaching, (3) help from siblings, (4) the effect of their parents' level of English, and (5) extra-curricular activities. Nearly all of the students received verbal encouragement from their parents, and even parents who did not speak English encouraged their children to learn it.

M1 said:

My parents don't speak English, but both of them encourage me. They keep telling me look after yourself, don't forget to do your homework, don't forget to study, etc.

A student was encouraged by her mother not only to study the English language but also to love it to be proficient at it.

F7 said:

My mum was a teacher and was always encouraging me to learn English language for its enjoyment and not only because of the exams and marks. She says you have to love it in order to master it.

Students received direct and indirect encouragement from their parents. For example, one male student said that his parents always advised him to study and do his homework telling him that English is important in his life if he wanted to become an engineer or a doctor.

M2 said:

My family encourages me indirectly. For example, study to be this and that.

When the students were asked whether the advice that they received from their parents was helpful or not, their answers were very positive except one male student who was neutral in his response.

F5 said:

Yes, of course, without my parents' encouragement I would not be able to speak English as good as now. They always stressed the importance of English language. Encouragement is important because it might give you positive energy and it might give you reasons to motivate you to learn English to a huge extent. The family is the one that knows their children's personalities the best; therefore, they can give reasons and push children in a direction that suits their personalities with regard to learning English.

F7 said:

Yes, they advise me to learn English language, at least, to be able to manage in case I went to any place or a restaurant where English is needed.

M2 said:

It is not necessary to be encouraged by the family. There are so many people who became doctors and engineers, and their families were not familiar with English nor did they know its importance.

Private teaching was provided by some parents, either in the form of going to private school or having a private teacher. One female student was in a private English-speaking school for 6 years before she joined state school. Her parents' plan was to form a strong basis for her English skills. Another female student was taken every summer to the British Council to take courses in the English language.

F8 said:

I was in a private school before I came to the state school. My parents wanted me to start learning English through a private school.

F3 said:

My mother is a teacher. Every summer, she takes me and my sister to the British Council for one month and a half to study English.

One male student gave a historical comment about families in Qatar and the change in their attitudes toward English language and the choices they made of schools for their children.

M4 said:

In the past when we started to go to school, there was no parental care. For them, it was only important to pass the stage you are in, but now they have started realizing and understanding more and more, so they enrol their children into kindergarten and foreign schools where English is the medium of instruction in order for their future to be better.

Two male students had private teachers during their study. Their parents employed the teachers to help them with their speaking and/or grammar. One student had a private teacher when he was in preparatory school, and the for the whole summer the year before.

M2 said:

During my study in preparatory school, my father found an excellent English private teacher. He was a great help to me with my speaking skill and the other skills too.

M6 said:

My father arranged with a British teacher to teach me the whole summer. I used to go to their house every day. It was a good experience. He helped me a lot, particularly, with my listening skill.

Some students also received help and encouragement from their siblings. One female student talked about her brother experience with English when he joined the faculty of medicine, and the difficulties he faced because of his low level of English.

F3 said:

Sometimes brothers or sisters encourage more than the father and mother. For example, my older brother is the one who encourages me because when he was my age, he didn't study and didn't care a lot about the importance of English. For that reason, he faced many difficulties when he was deciding on his medical major. He wanted me to avoid such problems and therefore, started encouraging me a lot to learn the English language.

One female student informed us about her positive experience with her sister who was like a teacher to her. Her sister taught her to be confident and serious, and that encouraged her to learn more. Another male student considered his uncle as the role model for him when it came to his English language accent.

F2 said:

My sister is the one who gives me encouragement all the time. She always tries to challenge me with my English, and when I make mistakes, she doesn't laugh at me. She corrects me seriously.

M8 said:

When I see my uncle, I feel I want only to speak with him in English because when he speaks it is as if I am listening to a native speaker. He sometimes asks me to repeat after him to say it [the English word] after him.

A large number of the interviewees mentioned the effect of their parents' level of English on themselves. A male student gave the example that a boy would try to prove to his parents that he could speak English if they spoke English too.

M1 said:

If a boy doesn't like English language, but his parents communicate in English from time to time with each other, he might learn it to prove to them that he is good at it and able to speak it too.

Two female students were confident that the effect of the parents' level of English on them was noticeable because it acted as a catalyst to push them to put all their efforts into learning English.

F8 said:

Of course, the parents' ability to speak English represents a driving force for children to speak and love the language. I still remember imitating my father when he used to speak English with his friends over the phone.

F4 said:

This [knowing English] surely could be a drive for children to learn English language. My mother had an Indian friend. She used to visit us every week. I always wanted to understand what they used to say and laugh about.

It was mentioned by some students that some parents encouraged their children to take part in extra-curricular activities. One female student used to be taken by her father to buy simple stories in English from a store in their neighbourhood. Furthermore,

another male student's mother was an English teacher. She was not in favour of reading translated English stories. Therefore, she provided him with stories written in the English language. She recommended that if he wanted to learn proper English, he should go to books which were in English and not the translated ones.

F3 said:

Every month my father takes me to a nearby bookstore to buy stories written in English. He always advises me to take young adult stories in series.

M5 said:

My mum is an English language teacher. She brings stories for me to be read at home. In the beginning, I used to read translated books, but then mum advised me to read the stories in the original language since the original ones are more precise in meaning. Sometimes, books translated into Arabic do not give the true meaning because the translation tends to be inadequate.

Also, according to the data analysis, some parents had different ways of giving different extra-curricular activities. One female student said that she and her sister used to be taken by their father to the cinema nearly every month to watch a movie, and then he used to check their understanding of the film. Another male student used to go with his father to a nearby tennis club where there used to be some British people in order to meet and speak with them in English.

F3 said:

My father sometimes takes us, my brother and I, to the cinema, but after we leave the cinema, he starts asking us about the story of the film, the actors' names, and new words we learnt from the film.

M2 Said:

I enjoyed going to the club which was in the building of my father's company. He took me last year many times. I made some friends from the United Kingdom and from France too. It was fun.

4.5.8 Motivational intensity

When the students were asked about their perceptions of whether or not they felt strongly motivated to learn English during their lessons, it was obvious that the majority of the students did not have high motivational intensity. One theme was continuously repeated in the interviewees' responses. This theme was their reluctance to participate in the English lesson because of the lack of interesting activities.

One male student said that he was not motivated to be involved in the English lesson because of the boring atmosphere created by the way of teaching the teacher used.

M3 said:

Frankly speaking, I always wait for the English class to finish. It is so boring! The teacher is only reading from the book. There are no activities for students to do or even interesting passages to read.

Another female student stated that their English lesson lacked interesting activities such as games or reading dialogues.

F5 said:

They don't give us something attractive. In the British Council, they give students tasks to do during the class. For example, they ask them to perform a short play which encourages students to participate with their maximum effort possible.

Many students would be willing to participate more if there were activities in the form of games. A male student was hoping that the teacher would give them language games to play as in the private school where his friend used to go.

M4 said:

We always ask our teacher to give us language games to improve our level. My friend is studying in a private school. He told me that they give them games most of the time during their English lesson. They give them, for example, vocabulary games at the end of every week. I hope our teacher gives us the same.

4.5.9 Desire to learn English

One theme kept emerging during the data analysis. The students constantly complained about their level of English. They said they had the desire to learn English, but their level was not helping them. When students were asked if they would continue to learn English if the school had given them a chance, they answered yes. One female student said that without any doubt she would continue to learn English to survive in life, but her request was only to have a manageable course and not one that was too difficult like their current course. Another female student added that she did not like to do English homework because of the gap between her level and the course level.

F7 said:

Sure, I would continue taking English. You cannot live without English. The thing is, we want them [the school] to make the course more manageable and interesting.

F2 said:

Actually, after I go home I do not open the English books. The problem is that even if you want to study, the book style does not encourage you, and I think the level is a bit high for me.

The majority of the interviewees did not mind mixing with the British or English-speaking families in Qatar or abroad. One male student commented that he did want to socialize with English-speaking families, but his communicative proficiency level did not help him to be at ease when he spoke with them. Furthermore, he added that he wanted to speak English in the English lesson, but he was always discouraged because of his low level of English.

M6 said:

There are many European families in our neighbourhood, especially people from England, but my English language does not help me. To be honest, I feel shy to speak with them in English because of my level.

M6 added:

Yes, I have the desire to speak English, but when our teacher speaks in English, I get frustrated because I cannot understand what he means. That's why I sometimes prefer the meaning to be clarified in Arabic.

One student suggested that if the school gave them a bridging course, they would do their best to improve their levels.

M1 said:

If there is a place where they would give us English which we could understand, and make it intensive, no problem, we will study hard as long as we can understand the teacher.

4.5.10 Students' impressions of their English teacher

The teacher's way of teaching, the teacher's personality, and the interviewees' desire to have a native English-speaking teacher were three themes which recurred during the data analysis. Nevertheless, the way of teaching and the teacher's personality were

two dominant themes in the interview data. For example, one male student said that he was not happy with that 'dull' way of teaching used by their English teacher, describing it as a traditional and futile way. Another male student also stressed the importance of the teacher and the teaching method used. He said that he was taught by many teachers, but only one teacher made him love English, and that was because of his method and personality.

M3 said:

When the teacher enters the class, he starts teaching in the same traditional method. He doesn't bother to introduce changes into the old method. That is, learning a language is just memorization of some words which we will need in the exam. This way of teaching is futile, and it makes the language like a burden to us.

M7 said:

Yes, the teacher is very important. I studied English with more than one person, and I only learnt with one of them. There are teachers who are firm with students and who teach with care. So, it depends on the teacher's method. On the other hand, there are teachers who do not care nor do follow up students' progress. It goes back to a teacher's personality, whether he has the ability to make the student interested and how he deals with him. How many teachers have we had?! Rarely was there one who was a skilful teacher of English language who was able to teach a student at the student's level so that the student would understand.

The importance of relationship between the students and the teacher was also obvious in the data analysis. Students wanted the relationship with their teacher to be stronger and less formal. For example, a female student stated that her relationship with the teacher was good, but would be better if the teacher was not so formal with her. Another male student complained of the impatience of their teacher. He claimed that most of the time the teacher behaved with them in a nervous way which caused them to like learning English less.

F5 said:

Well, I see our relationship with our teacher is acceptable, although I think it could be much better if our teacher made the lesson go as if we were all students together. I do not like to feel that I am in a formal setting.

M5 said:

The teacher, for example, speaks nervously and anxiously, thinking that this way he will control the class. What happens is that we start liking the lesson less and less.

Some female interviewees gave examples of the teacher and the way of teaching they liked. The example they gave was their Pakistani English teacher who had taught them the year before. She was admired and liked by them all. Their comments were positive about both her way of teaching and her personality.

F1 said:

To be honest, it is the teacher. For example, last year we were taught by a teacher from Pakistan, and we really enjoyed learning the language because of her approach. There were many scientific terms that were difficult to understand, but really because of her help regarding this issue, we were able to overcome this problem. At the end of each week, we had an open class, and we were able to speak about anything, even outside of the curriculum. She didn't speak Arabic, and she forbade using Arabic to the extent that whoever uttered a word in Arabic was deducted a mark. Despite that, we were achieving high marks and were learning it passionately. I think she was able to understand Arabic, but she didn't speak it with us. She was so friendly!

F2 said:

She [the Pakistani teacher] is still at school but teaching lower grades. She was presenting cultural subjects/topics and things we liked. By doing this, she always made us want to learn more and more. She used games and pictures as well as cartoons in her lessons. I have to add that this teacher started teaching me in grade eight, and it was a turning point for me in regard to English language learning.

Male students gave another example of a teacher they liked a lot who had taught them the term before. They pointed out that the teacher used to give them information in an attractive way. They also suggested that if the way of teaching was stimulating and enjoyable, they assumed that their grades and level would be much better.

M6 said:

We had a teacher last term who used to present information nicely and easily. In that way, we used to learn and enjoy at the same time. This term, the situation completely changed. Now we study the subject just because of the exam, but the previous teacher used to turn the topics into ones that are realistic and from everyday life which motivated me to learn even if I was tired.

M2 said:

I think, if the teacher presented the subject in an interesting way instead of a boring way, our performance and marks in the exams would be much higher.

The students showed a very strong interest in having a native English-speaking teacher or a teacher whose mother tongue was not Arabic in order to be forced to speak with him or her in English. One male student believed that to have a non-Arabic teacher was the best way to practise their English. Another male student commented that having a native English-speaking teacher would be extremely beneficial to them.

M1 said:

It is better to have a foreign English teacher, in my opinion, because I think it is the best way to practice our English every day.

M4 said:

I am suggesting that the teacher should be a foreigner, not an Arabic teacher who always speaks to you in Arabic. Sure, it is better if he was British or American. ... Imagine every day you speak with a native speaker. Especially if he were English, you would hear the real English accent! One hundred percent, it would help us.

Females were more in favour of the idea of having teachers of English who were native-speakers of English. One female gave the reason for her idea that girls do not have so many chances to interact with English native speakers as boys. Another female told of her experience with a native English-speaking teacher when she was in grade 8 and how having this teacher caused a great change in her academic life.

F7 said:

Considering the fact that we girls do not have as many opportunities as boys have, I would change most of the Arabic teachers and replace them with English native speakers. It is difficult, but the outcome will be respectable.

F2 said:

A foreigner is much better. When I was in grade 8, I was taught by a native speaker. She was from the UK. My level in English language was zero. English language depends on conversation and being used to it. When this teacher started with us, I used to ask my friend for specific words before talking to the teacher and every time when I would ask him, I used to memorize that word and never forget it.

4.5.11 Students' impressions of their English course

The three main themes which emerged from the data analysis were the difficult level of the textbook, the lack of interesting topics in the course, and the students' desire to have conversations with native speakers included in their course. Most of the students complained about the difficulty of their course. One female student said that the book which they were studying could be for students at a higher level. The same was stated by a male student who also believed that the book was not suitable for them because of its difficulty.

F5 said:

The way the book was designed, it was not meant to be for us. I mean, its level is too high as if all the students were excellent.

M7 said:

The books we are studying are for those students who speak good English. I think we have to follow the curriculum that is suitable for our level.

Some students reasoned that the difficulty of their course was due to the lack of strong foundations. For instance, one male student pointed out that they were not equipped with a sufficient basis to be able to study their course. Moreover, another female student believed that it would be very helpful if the school would help them revise the things they had learned the year before.

M4 said:

In my opinion, what makes it difficult is the absence of the proper English language foundation. We have reached higher academic levels, but the foundation is not there. What I mean is that at primary level we did not learn English properly. I mean that they did not teach us English correctly.

F6 said:

I suggest they give us one month at the beginning of each year as a revision of what we took the year before to refresh our knowledge and strengthen our basic knowledge.

Students were also not very interested in the course. A female student wished that the course had been more interesting to have as a relaxation session after their pure scientific subjects. Moreover, another female student saw it as boring, and that was because she believed that it contained long and useless topics.

F6 said:

I wish the book was more interesting. We in the science stream have scientific subjects throughout the day. Therefore, we find English language to be the only chance to learn

things outside the science field. I mean things we enjoy. Also, the Arabic language class is the same. Those two classes come to us as a period of relaxation after equations which we learn during the whole day. Also, they help us continue working hard in our scientific subjects.

F2 said:

It is not only that the book is too long, but it contains boring, long, useless topics. For example, when we studied French, there was an excellent book. In the class, we used to take a short lesson followed by many songs and a game or something similar. We didn't study grammar that much. As for English, we are studying it in such way that the lesson is long and boring with a lot of grammar which should be for advanced students. There aren't any activities or anything that would break the routine of our study.

There was a noticeable emphasis among the interviewees on activities such as meeting or coming into contact with native speakers of English. Trips abroad or trips to English-speaking schools in Qatar were suggested by students to reinforce their level of English, and also they wanted to be given the chance to meet foreign students on a weekly or monthly basis to get used to speaking in English to non-Arabs confidently.

F2 said:

There should be weekly or monthly sessions with foreign students and Arab students in order to gain language experience.

M3 said:

I would suggest that they organize trips inside Qatar, where we would have to rely on English completely. For example, to institutes or any similar places where English is the only language spoken, so we could sit with them and benefit from them. For example, Cambridge or Philippines or Pakistani schools.

M8 said:

We should take a group of students abroad in order to encourage them more to learn English. When I was in grade 4, I travelled to the UK via school after the academic

year was over. It was supposed to be for a month, but I just stayed for a week. Really, because of that trip, I loved English language. I think it is a very good idea to take a group of students to attend courses, not even necessarily abroad, but to English speaking places in Qatar where they will be encouraged more to learn the language.

5 CHAPTER FIVE : CONCLUSION

5.1 HYPOTHESES CONCERNING INTEGRATIVENESS

Gardner et al. (2004) note that integrativeness in the socio-educational model is “represented by three scales measuring attitudes toward the language group, interest in foreign language, and integrative orientation. They are considered to be an assessment of a higher order construct identified as integrativeness” (p.5). To check the students’ integrativeness in the present study, the lower-order constructs needed to be tested. This was done by testing the 6 sub-null hypotheses below which represents testing the three scales that constitute integrativeness.

Scale One: Attitudes toward the Language Group:

1. $H_{1.1}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people. This sub-null-hypothesis was rejected.
2. $H_{0.3.1}$: There is no significant relationship between students’ attitudes toward British people and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). This sub-null-hypothesis could not be rejected.

Scale Two: Interest in Foreign Languages:

1. $H_{1.3}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their interest in learning foreign languages. This sub-null-hypothesis was rejected.
2. $H_{0.2.3}$: There is no significant relationship between students’ interest in foreign languages and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). This sub-null-hypothesis was rejected.

Scale Three: Integrative Orientation:

1. $H_{1.4}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their integrative orientations. This sub-null-hypothesis was rejected.
2. $H_{0.2.4}$: There is no significant relationship between students' integrative orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). This sub-null-hypothesis was rejected.

5.1.1 Attitudes toward the language group

When looking at the difference between female and male students in regard to their attitudes toward British people, it can be concluded that the current study found that there was a statistically significant difference between the means of both groups. The t-test also showed that female students' attitudes toward British people (mean=3.2748) were more positive than those of male students. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.1}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people was rejected. For this reason, we can say the data support the alternative research hypothesis that there is a difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people. This finding is in agreement with those of Kiziltepe's study (1997) in Turkey that there was a significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward British people.

In the current study, the p-value in table 4.2 is small ($p < 0.02$) which indicates that a true difference existed between the two groups. The observed difference could be attributed to the strong desire of female students to be exposed to and interact with

other target language groups, and that may be because they had fewer opportunities to do so.

Although differences were found between males and females in only 7 items out of 18 (items 1-5, 7 and 15), the overall difference between the two groups was statistically significant. Also, it is interesting to note that item 8, "British people's heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity", not only received the lowest mean response in both males and females, but of all the items (Table 4.1). It is also interesting that responses to item 8 also had the lowest mean in all of table 4.1. Also, the interview data indirectly revealed the students' disagreement with this item. This was noticed when more than one student expressed their admiration for Arab history:

"The same. I can integrate with them without any problems, but this integration carries certain dangers as well since there are some negative aspects of it. I, as a Muslim, have certain beliefs, tradition and habits that I am proud of and I think some of these would be difficult for them to understand. For that reason, I don't mind participating in events there and mixing with them culturally or socially, but there are some lines I would not cross as an Arab and a Muslim." (F3)

"Our old Arab civilisation and heritage is full of moral and good deeds, but our problem is that we do not read to practice these good deeds and to follow those famous and good figures in our history." (F5)

By the same token, Gardner (2010) believes "that individuals who were high in ethnocentrism or authoritarianism would have difficulty making something characteristic of another group part of themselves" (p.82). Similarly, Gardner (2005) states that learners who see their ethnolinguistic heritage as not a major part of their cultural and national identity are expected to have higher integrativeness. On the other

hand, learners who look at their ethnolinguistic heritage as a major part of their cultural and national identity are expected to have lower integrativeness.

However, female students' attitudes toward the British were more positive than those of their male counterparts. What is interesting about the differences between males and females is that, although the differences in their agreement regarding item 4, "Arabs in Qatar should make a greater effort to learn the English language", and item 5, "The more I get to know British people, the more I want to be fluent in their language", were statistically significant, they both rated these two items more positively than the other items in this scale. The students' awareness of the importance of English and their willingness to communicate more with the British could be attributed to their good relationship with the British in Qatar or elsewhere and their readiness to study English harder.

In response to item 2, "I would like to know more British people", female students showed a higher desire to know more about British people than males, and the difference was statistically significant. One female commented that:

"I do not know much about British people, but I noticed during my summer course at the British Council that they are so friendly, practical people and teach you step by step not like here [her school]. I wish I had more opportunities to meet them more. I cannot wait to go to Britain or America or Canada." (F4)

This result corroborates the findings of Abu-Rabia (1997) whose sample consisted of 25 male and 27 female eighth-grade Canadian-Arab immigrant students. His study revealed that female students were more integratively motivated than male students. The author commented that because of the multicultural policy of Canada, which made

Canadian-Arab immigrant girls feel welcome, they held a higher level of integrative attitudes toward learning the English language.

The results of the present study show that students held a positive attitude toward the British. There are several possible explanations for these results, with items 4 and 5 receiving the strongest agreement among males and females (see Table 4.1). Firstly, the students' believed it was important to learn the English language.

“For sure, it has become a leading language in the world. It is very important because people communicate with each other by means of it all over the world. For example, in India, they have many languages, yet they are using English as a means of communications.” (F5)

Secondly, the students held the idea that the English language is very necessary even if a person is self-employed.

“English has become a dominant language all around the world. For example, I travelled with my father to China to buy car spare parts for his shop. The most common language used there with foreign businessmen was English. I would say, without knowing English, it would be very difficult to manage what you want in foreign countries, especially if you go for business.” (M3)

Furthermore, it can be concluded from the students' answers to item 5, *“the more I get to know British people, the more I want to be fluent in their language”*, that they had a positive experience with British people, and they also held positive perceptions about them.

“The British are friendly and welcoming to all nationalities regardless of their differences.” (M6)

“Cultured and warm people.” (F5)

“Cooperative and helpful people.” (F1)

Moreover, students in Qatar held a positive idea about students who had been to the UK, for example, to study the English language, law, business administration or

engineering. In other words, they had a high opinion of their friends, in their neighbourhoods or schools, who went to study abroad, especially in the UK. Another reason might be the students' high admiration for English literature, especially for Shakespeare. As one student said:

"I know many of the respected figures in our neighbourhood who studied law or business administration in Britain. To have a degree from the UK is really my dream. These people [the British] are years and years more advanced than us; therefore, mixing with them or studying in their universities will benefit me and raise my level socially, culturally and even linguistically. I don't mean only scientifically, but also their literature. If you just mention William Shakespeare to anyone, they will tell you he is the greatest writer that has ever lived!" (M4)

Also, the students' desire to have more chances to meet British people to get to know them more can be explained by the good stories students have heard from each other about the British. It was apparent from the students' strong agreement with item 11 in table 4.1, "The more I learn about the British, the more I like them", that the students are keen to take any opportunity to meet a British person. As stated by one student:

"We have not been given an opportunity to interact that much with British people, but I know one of my friends who says that they are so friendly, and once they trust you, that's it!"(M1)

The low level of agreement among both males and females with item 8, "*British people's heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity*", indicates that the Qatari students felt proud of their heritage and they thought that it does not need to be influenced or enriched by any other culture and heritage. Also, it might be because of what they study in Arabic literature, which is full of noble and patriotic stories about historical Arabs. As one male student commented:

“If they [the British] read our culture, they would come to know that it is a great culture and real Arabs respect their promises even if someone might lose his life, and our literature is full of the same stories, but actually some Arabs, unfortunately, did ruin our reputation.”(M4)

It could also be assumed that the low level of agreement with item 8 may be due to the fact that students in Qatar related the British heritage to the colonial era when Qatar was part of the British Empire. Another possible explanation is that Qatari students might have felt that their Arabic and/or Muslim heritage was richer than that of the British. Another possible reason may be that the “students’ language ego and cultural factors might have prevented them from showing a higher motivation for” this item (Al-Zubeiry, 2012, p.40). In general, however, although here were no significant differences between male and female students for the 11 items 6, 8-15, 17 and 18 out of the 18 items in this scale concerning attitudes toward the British, the overall difference between the two groups was still significant.

On the other hand, no significant relationship was found between students’ attitudes toward British people and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{0.2.1}$ could not be rejected. This supports Kiziltepe’s (1997) finding from a sample in Turkey that no significant correlation ($r=.0223$) was found between students attitudes toward British people and their grades. Moreover, this finding does not contradict Gardner’s (2010, p.211) view that “the socio-educational model does not propose that attitudes toward the target language group are related to achievement in the language”. However, Akram (2015) investigated the factors which affected the motivation of Saudi students in English, and found that there was a significant correlation between attitudes toward

English people and their test scores. The coefficient value was .336 with a small p-value which was less than .01.

In general, the participants in the present study showed positive attitudes toward British people. This finding is in agreement with those of Kiziltepe's study (1997) which also revealed that Turkish students held positive attitudes toward British people, and also the findings of Al Mamun et al's. (2012, p.207) study in which the participants "reported that they like English language and they like those who speak English".

5.1.2 Interest in foreign languages

Turning to the differences between male and female students in terms of their interest in foreign languages, the analysis shown in table 4.6 indicates that females displayed significantly more interest than male students. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{0.1.3}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their interest in learning foreign languages is rejected. This result agrees with the finding of Solak (2012) that female students in Turkey had significantly more positive attitudes toward foreign language learning than their male counterparts ($p=.033<.05$).

The results of this study indicate that males and females held positive attitudes toward foreign language learning with a mean of 3.68. Interestingly, items 1, "If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people", and 3, "I wish I could speak another language perfectly", were the only two items in the scale with average responses indicating strong agreement. This might be because of the students' beliefs that in order for them to integrate with more and varied people, they would have to learn more languages. Other possible explanations for this interest include their desire "to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language

rather than a translation” and their wish to “read newspapers and magazines in another language”. The two extracts from the interviews below may also help to explain the students’ interest in foreign language learning:

“Knowing the language of a foreign country you are visiting is an enjoyable experience and at the same time is important because it enables you to understand what is happening around you there. Also knowing the language of that foreign country can be a great help for you to be able to manage your affairs there, such as looking for a hotel or finding a job or even reading about the history of that foreign country.”(F5)

“I believe that the English language is so important, and also, I don’t see any problem in learning another one or two languages alongside English to be able to communicate with different nations who don’t speak or don’t want to speak in English. This will also be very much hopefully for cultural purposes as well as for learning and obtaining new skills.”(M2)

Surprisingly, it was found that responses to item 8, “*I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required*”, were on average the least positive in the scale for both males and females. Moreover, it was the only item in the scale for which males and females did not differ significantly. Although students expressed a moderate level of agreement with this item, the relatively weak response may reflect the overload that they experienced in their curriculum, or perhaps because they found their course uninteresting. This was reflected in one female student’s extract:

“It is not only that the book is too long, but it contains boring, long, useless topics. For example, when we studied French, there was an excellent book. In the class, we used to take a short lesson followed by many songs and a game or something similar. We didn’t study grammar that much. As for English, we are studying it in such way that the lesson is long and boring with a lot of grammar which should be for advanced students. There aren’t any activities or anything that would break the routine of our study.”(F2)

An unanticipated finding of this study was the high correlation found between students’ interest in foreign languages and their English course scores, and the same was also true of their self-ratings of English language proficiency. These results clearly show that

the students' interest in foreign languages and their indices of achievement were statistically significantly related. Therefore, the sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.3}$ could be decisively rejected. This significant correlation probably occurred because Qatar is considered to be a cosmopolitan country, and many expatriates work there and speak different foreign languages. In fact, expatriates represent about five times the number of citizens of Qatar (Demographics of Qatar, 2015). Therefore, it may be that Qatari students put more effort into learning more than one foreign language besides English so as to communicate with those different groups. As one student put it:

“Of course, other languages aside from English is a great advantage. In my opinion, learning other languages doesn't do any harm. On the contrary, it adds more assets to your knowledge. For example, if you have a foreign visitor in your place who does not speak English or Arabic, what would you do if do not understand each other's language.”(M5)

This supports Tahaine and Daana's (2013) findings that a great majority of Jordanian participants (87.7%) agreed that they were very much interested in learning foreign languages. Moreover, Gardner's (2006) study in Zagreb, Croatia, found a significant correlation between the 319 participating students' interest in foreign languages and their grades. These results support the decision of Gardner and his associates to include the foreign language scale in the AMTB. Gardner (2007) clarifies that in their initial research they:

labelled this component **Integrativeness** and focussed attention on the individual being interested in learning the language in order to interact with valued members of the other community and/or to learn more about that community (i.e., an integrative orientation and favourable attitudes toward the community), but in later research we found that it could also involve an open interest in other cultural communities in general (i.e., an absence of Ethnocentrism and authoritarianism, or the presence of Xenophilic attitudes, etc., which we measured with our interest in Foreign Languages scale [emphasis in original]. (p.15)

However, Akram (2015) did not find a significant correlation between interest in learning foreign languages among the students in his study and their test scores. He presumes that “the possible cause of this is the fact that ‘English is considered to be a more elite and prestigious language than other foreign languages’” (p.84).

5.1.3 Integrative orientation

A statistically significant difference in integrative orientation was found between males and females. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{01.4}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their integrative orientation is rejected. This finding mirrors that of Solak (2012) that female students in Turkey were significantly more integratively motivated than their male peers with a p-value of 0.015. However, this finding differs from that of Al-Khasawneh and Al-Omari (2015) whose study investigated the motivational orientations of 51 gifted Jordanian high school EFL students. Here, no significant difference was found in integrative motivation between male and female students (p-value=.656).

In general, male and female students in the present study had very high integrative orientations. The four items in table 4.7 revealed these high levels of integrative orientation toward learning English. The result show that the students displayed a readiness to participate and mix with the British whenever possible. This supports the findings of Hagler (2014) who investigated the attitudes of 210 Saudi university students and showed that “most participants, regardless of track or gender, believe they should learn about the culture of the West and believe English to be more than just a language to learn for purposes of career advancement” (p.10).

In the present study, the students were keen to learn English. That is why they gave their highest average level of agreement, as shown in table 4.7, to item 1, "*studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English*" (Mean=4.24). The students wanted to study English in order to interact with other people. As two male students commented:

"In my opinion, when I am in the UK, I am going to mix not only with the British but also with people from other countries because the English language allows you to have more friends." (M5)

"Even in your country, if you went to a neighbourhood where you have many foreigners who live there, they would feel relaxed when dealing with you, if you speak good English or know the language of that foreigner you are speaking to." (M7)

Apart from the statistical proof, there was a strong sense amongst the students interviewed that they were open not only to British culture, but to other cultures as well.

Female students displayed a significantly higher integrative orientation than male students, and showed very high integrativeness for all items in the scale. Their highest level of agreement was for item 1, "*Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English*" (Mean=4.54). Furthermore, as shown in table 4.7 female students expressed more positive attitudes toward all four items, and especially item 3, "*Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate British art and literature*", (mean=4.29), compared to males (mean=3.64). Interestingly, although the responses of female students to item 3 were lower than for the other three items they were still much higher than those of males. As shown in responses to item 2, the female students wanted to interact and converse with English-speaking people (Mean=4.51)

significantly more than males (Mean=3.74). This was also evident from their interview extracts, and was clear when one female student stated her opinion strongly:

“Of course, I will socialise with them, it is inevitable to mix, but I would relate it to the language. If you are good at it, you would interact with them directly and mingle with them faster.” (F6)

Another one commented:

“For me and from my experience, the real difference between us and them [the British] is some aspects of the cultural point of view. For this reason, I am going to google their culture in the internet to learn about British life.” (F5)

There are several possible explanations for these results. Firstly, girls might have this stronger desire to mix with people from other cultures because they may want to enjoy the opportunities they have while they are in the UK. Secondly, they may want to understand British culture in order to help them to improve the level of their English. Thirdly, they want to meet more British people and also other people whom they can communicate with in English so as to enrich their cultural knowledge and also as a way to practise their English. However, these findings of the current study and those of Solak (2012) contradict those of Salem (2006) who found no significant sex differences in 147 undergraduate students studying EFL at the American University of Beirut with regard to their integrative orientation.

In the current study, the most interesting finding was that the overall high level of integrative orientation (mean=4.10) was found to be higher than for the other main factors in this study. However, one explanation for this is that it may be due to the fact that the residents of Qatar enjoy “the highest per capita income in the world” (Qatar, 2016, no pagination) and the security that the state of Qatar offers means that most of the basic and important needs in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs have been met. These

factors have also led to more cultural groups from all over the world residing in the country for business reasons or to work there. Therefore, the students feel more openness towards other communities. This is indicated by their strong agreement with item 2, “*Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people*” (mean=4.15). This result is consistent with that of Tahaineh and Daana’s (2013) study in Jordan where this item scored highest in their integrativeness scale (mean=4.09). Moreover, Al-Zubeiry (2012) also found that Saudi students agreed with this item, scoring as an overall mean 3.71 out of 5. However, Al-Tamim and Shuib’s (2009) study of 191 Yemeni students at Hadramout University of Science and Technology focused on instrumental, integrative, and personal motivation, and found that integrative motivation had “the least impact on students’ English language learning” (p.40). However, it should be taken into consideration that this study was only of male students and no females were studying in the department concerned which was the Department of Petroleum Engineering.

On the other hand, the sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.4}$ concerning the relationship between students’ integrative orientation and their indices of achievement in English in the present study was rejected. A statistically significant positive correlation was found between students’ integrative orientation and their English course scores as well as with self-ratings of English language proficiency. These findings of this study are consistent with those of Samad et al. (2012) that there was a significant relationship ($r=.72$) between integrative orientation and Iranian students’ proficiency in the English language.

As for integrativeness, the researcher in this study chose to include it in the correlation analysis because “learning a second language has major implications for individuals, and various attitudes linking them to their cultural background and other cultural communities can be expected to have an effect on their learning of the language” (Gardner, 2010, p.23). Gardner further emphasizes that the support of integrativeness for motivation is enormously important. In the socio-educational model, integrativeness consists of three elements: attitudes toward British people, interest in foreign languages, and integrative orientation.

As it can be seen from table 4.32, integrativeness correlated positively and significantly with the two measures of achievement (grades and self-ratings), leading to the rejection of null-hypothesis $H_{02.12}$. These results are in substantial agreement with those of Gardner and Masgoret (2003) whose meta-analysis showed comparably strong correlations of integrativeness with the two measures of academic achievement. Moreover, our study corroborates Gardner’s (2012) findings with two age samples of students from Poland. Therefore, this finding suggests that Qatari students are demonstrably open to other cultures and languages.

5.2 THE HYPOTHESES OF MOTIVATION.

Gardner (1985a, 2010) describes motivation as a factor which consists of effort, such as the effort the learner would put into the task of learning a language, and want, meaning the learner’s desire and willingness to accomplish his or her goal. Moreover, he points out that, in addition, a positive affect should be associated with learning a second language. So, in summary, motivation is the effort exerted to learn the material, the desire to learn, and attitudes toward learning the target language. In the AMTB (Attitude/Motivation Test Battery), the three components of effort, desire, and positive

affect in motivation are assessed using three scales: motivational intensity; the desire to learn the language; and attitudes toward learning the language (Gardner, 2010). In this study, the students' motivation was assessed by testing 6 sub-null hypotheses concerning the motivation construct. All six sub-null-hypotheses were rejected.

Scale One: Motivational intensity

1. $H_{1.8}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their motivational intensity to learn English (this sub-null-hypothesis was rejected).
2. $H_{0.2.8}$: There is no significant relationship between students' motivational intensity and their English course scores, and between students' motivational intensity and self-ratings of English language proficiency (this sub-null-hypothesis was rejected).

Scale Two: Students' Desire to Learn English

3. $H_{1.9}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their desire to learn English (this sub-null-hypothesis was rejected).
4. $H_{0.2.9}$: There is no significant relationship between students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) (this sub-null-hypothesis was rejected).

Scale Three: Students' Attitudes toward Learning English

5. $H_{1.2}$: There is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward learning English (this sub-null-hypothesis was rejected).
6. $H_{0.2.2}$: There is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward learning English and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) (this sub-null-hypothesis was rejected).

5.2.1 Motivational intensity

This study showed (table 4.15) that the difference between male and female students in their motivational intensity was statistically significant, and the female students' scores (mean=2.19) were on average higher than those of male students (mean=2.07). Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{1.8}$, *that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their motivational intensity*, is rejected. Similarly, Nahavandi and Mukundan (2013), investigated 570 EFL students studying a general English course at Tabriz Azad University, Iran, and "concluded that motivational intensity among females is significantly higher than males" (p.82). Another study by Gökçe (2008) examined the attitudes and motivational intensity of tenth grade vocational high school students in Turkey. He investigated the differences between males and females in regard to their attitudes toward learning English, attitudes toward Anglo-Saxon culture and motivational intensity. The findings showed that females' motivational intensity was significantly higher. The author comments that "according to these findings, female learners not only have more positive attitudes toward learning English and toward its culture, but they devote more attention and effort [motivational intensity] to learning English than their male peers do as well" (Gökçe, 2008, p.56).

It is interesting that responses to the items for the factor of motivational intensity scored the lowest average agreement (mean=2.14) among all of the 11 factors examined in this study. Another interesting finding is that responses to item 1, "*I actively think about what I have learned in my English class: A) Very frequently. B) Once in a while. C) Hardly ever*", with a mean of 1.77, and item 6, "*If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would: a) Definitely volunteer. b) Only do it if the teacher asked me directly. c) Definitely not volunteer*", with a mean of 1.82, not only scored the

lowest in the motivational intensity scale for males and females, but also compared to all other items in this study. This obviously shows how low the students' motivational intensity was in comparison to the other factors. Even the highest average score in the motivational intensity scale, which was for responses to item 3, "*When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I: A) Immediately ask the teacher for help. B) Only seek help just before the exam. C) Just forget about it*", was still in the region of disagreement for both males and females separately and in combination. This confirms that the students, in general, had low motivational intensity. It is difficult to explain this result, but it might be related to the atmosphere in the classroom and the way English lessons were taught. As one student expressed:

"Frankly speaking, I always wait for the English class to finish. It is so boring! The teacher is only reading from the book. There are no activities for students to do or even interesting passages to read."(M3)

This finding is not in agreement with those of Tahaine and Daana (2013) that Jordanian students "were highly motivated and always received the necessary help, backing up and support of their English teachers and they did not delay their English duties as much as possible" (p.171). This could be due to the fact that students in Jordan might be more instrumentally motivated than students in Qatar and that could be attributed to the huge differences in the economic outlook in the two countries which favours Qatar. This compares with this results of a study by Al Mamun et al. (2012, p.200) whose "findings suggest that the respondents were found to be positive toward English, and this could be attributed to the fact respondents were instrumentally motivated toward English".

Interestingly, the students gave items 1 and 6 in this scale the lowest overall scores, and at the same time, males and females did not significantly differ in their responses to these two items. Thus, most of the students, both males and females, hardly thought about what they had learned in their English classes, and only one-quarter of the students volunteered to do extra English assignments.

Responses by male and female students did significantly differ, on average, for six out of the nine items in the motivational intensity scale (items 2-5, 8 and 9). In response to item 5, which asked students how hard they study English, female students scored significantly higher (mean=2.25) than male students (mean=1.99). Therefore, the claim that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their ways of how they study English should be rejected according to this result, assuming that no type one or type two errors are present (see section 3.7 for details).

The significant differences in the motivational intensity scale could in general be attributed to the fact that female students care more about increasing their level of proficiency in English than male students because they have fewer opportunities in the labour market. One girl made this clear by saying that:

“In short, we study English in order to be able to live. Especially, if you are a girl, you do not have as many options as boys. For example, boys can go to the army or join the police, etc.”(F7)

Also, female students put more effort to learning English because they know that the English language is considered by many people to be the *lingua franca* of science. Therefore, they thought that they ought to be good at it. However, although there is a significant difference between the overall scores of male and female students in this

scale, as shown in table 4.15, the main significant difference comes mostly from items 3-5, 8, and 9.

These results also indicate that male and female students did not put enough effort into their assignments; nevertheless, female students showed that they worked harder on their homework than their male counterparts. This could be attributed to the fact that female students were more aware of “the importance of English and its pervasive use in international affairs and as the language of science and technologies” (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009, p.41). This is supported by Joseba (2005, no pagination) who stated that:

In science and technology, a barrier to full access by European citizens is that English has become *de facto* the international language of science and technology ... so there is an obvious pressing need for English at any technical level, and our students are aware of this situation[italics in original].

The students' motivational intensity showed a strong statistically significant positive correlation with indices of achievement in English. Therefore, the sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.8}$ suggesting that there is no significant relationship between students' motivational intensity and achievement in English was rejected with a small p-value ($p .000$). This is an indication that most of those students who held higher levels of motivational intensity were those who had higher levels of achievement in English. This finding corroborates those of Kiziltepe (1997) who investigated the relationship between students' attitudes and motivation. Her study consisted of 308 male and female students from four private schools in Istanbul, Turkey, whose ages ranged from 15 to 18 years old. The analysis revealed that there was a significant strong correlation (at the 0.01 level) between student grades and motivational intensity with a coefficient value of .01820.

5.2.2 Students' desire to learn English

The study revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between male students and female students in their desire to learn English, with the latter scoring, on average, higher. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{1,9}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their desire to learn English was rejected. This finding supports that of Solak (2012) where female students also showed significantly more desire to learn English than their male peers. However, Nahavandi and Mukundan's (2013) study of the language attitudes and motivation of Iranian students who were taking a general English course at Azad University of Tabriz in Iran found that there was no such significant difference between female and male students who were studying English as a foreign language.

Female and male students scored significantly differently in all of the items in the scale assessing their desire to learn English except for items 2-4. Interestingly, responses to those three items were on average the lowest among items in the scale and were in the region of disagreement. As table 4.17 shows, none of the average scores for male students were in the region of agreement. The results thus demonstrate the students' low levels of desire to learn English. The in-depth focus group interviews revealed possible reasons for this lack of enthusiasm, especially their low level of English. Interestingly, a common view amongst the interviewees was that they avoided learning English or mixing with English-speaking families in their neighbourhoods because they felt shy about speaking to them because of the linguistic mistakes they might make. For example, as one interviewee elucidated:

"There are many European families in our neighbourhood, especially people from England, but my English language does not help me. To be honest, I feel shy to speak with them in English because of my level."(M6)

Their overall low level of desire to learn English (Mean=2.21) which is interestingly the second lowest overall mean in this study could be attributed to the fact that they lacked the basic knowledge foundations needed for their English course. As one male student said:

“In my opinion, what makes it difficult is the absence of the proper English language foundation. We have reached higher academic levels, but the foundation is not there. What I mean is that at primary level we did not learn English properly. I meant that they did not teach us English correctly.”(M4)

However, the significant difference between male and female students here may be explained by the fact that females showed a significantly more positive desire to learn English than male students in most of the items in the scale. This might be explained by the fact that female students held more positive attitudes toward British people and saw them as a nationality whose discoveries have influenced science a lot; therefore, they believed that they would benefit more from speaking with them. As one female student said:

“It is a nation that created a system and implemented it according to the book. No honest person would deny their scientific discoveries and their significant contribution to science. It is enough to say Isaac Newton is from there” (F5)

Moreover, this study found that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between the students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement. These results suggest a strong relationship between the students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement. Therefore, the sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.9}$ that there is no significant relationship between students' desire to learn English and their indices of achievement was rejected. This finding corroborates Solak's (2012) analysis of 230 freshman prospective teachers studying at a State University, in Turkey, which also

showed a significant relationship between desire to learn English and academic achievement.

5.2.3 Attitudes toward learning English

The study showed that the difference between the male and female students in their attitudes toward learning English was statistically significant with the attitudes of female students more positive. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{1.2}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward learning English was rejected. This finding mirrors those of the study by Ghazvini and Khajehpour (2011) who investigated the difference between 123 male and female Iranian students from two high schools in east Tehran, where female students held more positive attitudes toward English learning. However, the finding in the current study is not consistent with those of Hussain et al. (2011) who found significantly more positive attitudes toward learning English in male students in Punjab, Pakistan. Meanwhile, Alshaar's (1997) study in Kuwait found no difference between male and female students in regard to their attitudes toward learning English.

Interestingly, males and females were statistically significantly different in their average responses to all of the ten items in the scale, except for item 7, "*I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English*". What is surprising is that this item scored the lowest in the scale on average, by both males and females, although still just in region of agreement. This is an indication that, even in this case, the students still had positive attitudes towards learning English.

This study revealed that students, in general, held positive attitudes toward learning English, and this could be seen when they gave item 1, "*Learning English is really*

great", the sixth highest average score of all of the 127 items in this study. One interviewee answered a question regarding her attitudes toward learning English as follows:

"Yes, I love learning English. To me English language is the most interesting subject in the school. When I am attending English lesson, I really don't feel the time."(F4)

The overall positive nature of the students' attitudes toward learning English (mean=3.81) may be explained by the fact that they believed in the prominent role of the English language in the development of their country and themselves as well. This positive attitude toward learning English is consistent with the finding of Soleimani and Hanafi (2013) that Iranian medical students' attitudes toward English language learning was highly positive.

As for the relationship between the students' English language achievement and their attitudes toward the English language, this study has shown a significant positive relationship. Therefore, from these results, the sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.2}$ which states that there is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward learning English and their indices of achievement was rejected. This positive correlation supports the finding of Akram (2015) that there was a significant relationship between the attitudes toward learning English of 186 Najran University students in Saudi Arabia studying in the preparatory year and their grades. The coefficient value was .299 with a p-value less than 0.01.

However, Gardner (2010, p.23) recommends that, in order to obtain a complete picture of motivation, a researcher is advised to aggregate motivational intensity, the desire to learn English, and attitudes toward learning English, and this aggregate factor is called *motivation*. Therefore, the sub null-hypothesis $H_{0.2.14}$ represents an aggregate of these

three factors which was then correlated with the two measures of achievement used in this study, grades and self-ratings. Statistically significant positive correlations were found between students' motivation and the two measures. Based on these results, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between students' motivation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) was rejected. This supports the results of Masgoret and Gardner (2003) who conducted a meta-analysis of 75 studies and arrived at similar results. This means that the findings of this study are in agreement with Masgoret and Gardner's (2003) hypothesis that motivation is more highly related to second language achievement than integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation. Moreover, the present findings also support those of Gardner's (2005) study in Romania of two age samples of a total of 313 students. The correlation between grades and motivation was strong in younger students (.25) and slightly stronger in older students (.28). Having obtained these consistent results, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) postulate that "it would be expected that more researchers would obtain significant results when investigating the relationship between motivation and self-ratings (or grades) and conclude that the relationship is positive" (p.150). Also, the rejection of sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.14}$ is congruent with Gardner's (2010) view that motivation is the factor which is responsible for achievement in second language learning.

5.3 THE HYPOTHESIS OF INSTRUMENTALITY

The study has revealed that the difference between male and female students in regard to their instrumental orientation is statistically significant. The female students were thus significantly more instrumentally oriented than their male counterparts. Therefore,

this study rejects the sub-null hypothesis $H_{1.5}$ which claimed that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their instrumental orientation. This finding supports those of the study of Hengsadeekul et al. (2014) of 2252 students in Thailand investigating the relationship between various measures of motivational orientation toward the English language learning and students' preference for English-medium graduate studies programmes. Here, it was found that female students "endorsed instrumental goals toward English language learning more than males" (p.40). However, the findings of the present study are not in agreement with those of Salem (2006) who revealed that females and males students at the American University of Beirut did not display any significant difference in their instrumental motivation. Moreover, Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) also did not find any such significant difference between male and female students in Turkey. However, Ghazvini and Khajehpour's (2011) study of a sample of 123 high school students in Tehran, Iran, showed that male students exhibited more instrumental motivation than female students. The same conclusion was reached by Dwaik and Shehadeh (2010) who studied the patterns of motivation among 127 EFL university students in Hebron, Southern Palestine, and found that male students were more instrumentally motivated than females. The authors comment that:

Male students have stronger job oriented focus because they traditionally assume a larger responsibility in family support. Many females in the Palestinian traditional communities work as homemakers, thus abstaining from joining the job market for some time after graduation. Men, however, are not only required to support themselves but they are also expected to support the whole family including younger siblings. (p.347)

It is noticeable that, although the current study and the studies mentioned above were conducted in relatively similar environments in terms of geography, religion, and culture, the findings concerning sex and instrumental motivation differ. This may be

explained by the fact that salaries in Qatar are very high. For example, teachers in Qatar are thought to be among the highest paid teachers in the world by being paid around 12,000 thousand dollars monthly, with zero tax, free electricity and water, medical treatment, and granted land of around 1200 square metres with a loan of 330,000 thousand dollars (at only 1% interest, over 35 years) to build a house on. Moreover, as it can be seen from the results for parental encouragement shown in table 4.13, parents in Qatar, generally, encourage their daughters to study to obtain a degree and also to be successful in English to find a job so as to secure their future.

However, the significant difference in instrumental motivation found in this study could be due to the fact that male students in Qatar have better employment chances than their female counterparts. This was evident when one male student explained his plan for the future:

“If my English has not improved, I will definitely not defiantly go to university. The army or the police give the same salary as or more than other civilian jobs with university degrees. So, why bother.” (M1)

Interestingly, responses to item 1 in the instrumental orientation scale, *“Studying English can be important for me only because I’ll need it for my future career”*, scored the highest on average (mean=4.31) among all of the items in this study for both males and females, which indicates that the students in general held a high instrumental orientation (mean=4.01) toward learning the English language. Also, interestingly, this item regarding future careers also received the highest average response in a study in Japan conducted by Redfield et al. (2009) on 466 Japanese technology majors. It appears from the analysis in the current study that students, both males and females, valued the importance of the English language when searching for a job. For example, one female student related her sister’s story who was looking for a job:

“Yes, but even the Arab countries, including Qatar, have almost become like foreign countries because most job vacancies in Qatar require CVs to contain information about the level of English in reading, writing and speaking. My sister, after her graduation, she went to many job interviewees, all of them without exception were asking for English.” (F1)

The study showed that the students were in general in complete agreement that knowing English would help them in their future in different respects. As one male student added in replying to his classmate’s comment on the importance of English:

“Yes, he is right. Now, 90% of employers require proficiency in English.” (M2)

In general, the student interview data mirrored the responses to the instrumental orientation scale in the questionnaire, both showing that students in Qatar hold a high instrumental orientation in learning English. The same was found among 51 Jordanian high school students studying at King Abdullah School for gifted students in Jordan (Al-Khasawneh and Al-Omari, 2015).

As shown in table 4.9, responses to item 1, *“Studying English can be important for me only because I’ll need it for my future career”*, and item 3, *“Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job”*, received the highest average agreement of all items in this study. For example, Item 3, which states that English language is important for getting a good job, is reflected in one of the students’ quotations:

“As for me, I will strive to become an ambassador. An ambassador must be able to be proficient in more than one language.”(M5)

The interviewees, in general, suggested that speaking skills are the most sought after skill in the job market, even though they did not devalue the importance of the other skills of listening, reading and writing. As one male student said:

“All four are important, but for me, the most important is speaking because he who knows speaking will be able to manage things, and mastering this skill will help him in job interviews. I mean, this would give the company where he wants to work a good impression of himself.” (M4)

The results of the present study corroborate the findings of Abd Aziz (1994, p.97) who found that “the majority of the students responded that speaking skills should be emphasized more compared to other skills”. Furthermore, Al-Buainain et al. (2011) studied the use of and need for five skills in the English language (listening, reading, writing, speaking, and translation) in the workplace. The study sample consisted of 644 employees who had graduated from the University of Qatar. It was found that “speaking is the most used of all of the skills” in workplaces in Qatar (Al-Buainain et al., 2011, p.150). These findings support those of Alshamy (2012) whose study revealed that some students thought that their course did not “give much time to the speaking skill” (p.41).

Turning to the relationship between the students’ academic achievement in English and their instrumental orientation, this study found significant positive relationships with self-ratings of English language proficiency and English course grades. These findings allow us to reject the sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.5}$ that there is no significant relationship between students’ instrumental orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). Therefore, the alternative research hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between students’ instrumental orientation and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) was supported. These findings echo those of Abdol Latif et al. (2011) who found a significant relationship between instrumental orientation and performance in English language among students studying at the Open University of Malaysia (OUM). Also, in Gardner’s (2007) study in Spain of 302 students

in two age samples, fairly strong correlations were found for both the younger and older students. However, this finding is not in agreement with those of Samad et al. (2012) that there was no significant relationship between instrumental orientation and proficiency in the English language.

There is no doubt that instrumental motivation is important in learning a second language. Furthermore, many studies have shown a strong relationship between this kind of motivation and achievement in a target language. Nevertheless, Dörnyei (1990) indicates that:

Learners with a high level of instrumental motivation and need for achievement are more likely than are other to attain an intermediate level of proficiency in the target language. On the other hand, to get beyond this level, that is, to “really learn” the target language, one has to be integratively motivated. (p.70)

5.4 THE HYPOTHESIS OF PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT

The analysis of data in this study revealed that the null-sub hypothesis $H_{1.7}$, that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to parental encouragement, could be rejected. Female students reported statistically significantly higher parental encouragement than male students. This result corroborates the findings of Nahavandi and Mukundan (2013) in their study of 570 EFL students in Iran that female students received more parental encouragement than their male counterparts.

Moreover, male and female students differed statistically significantly in responses to all of the 10 items in the scale (see table 4.13). Therefore, these results support the research hypothesis that there is a significant difference between male and female students in regard to their parental encouragement. This result can be explained by the

fact that families in the Arab world, in general, hold the idea that it is very important for a girl to be more secure. Therefore, a girl should obtain a good degree to be able to support herself and her children in the case of divorce or the absence of the husband. Another reason for girls to have degrees, for some families, might be that it is seen as an advantage or credit for their girls when they want to get married. In other words, when a man decides to get married, it is necessary for some men to choose a wife with adequate qualifications to work and participate in contributing to the family income or at least to shoulder her own expenses.

This study showed that the factor concerning parental encouragement was the second highest (mean=4.05) one in this research, indicating that the students were strongly encouraged by their parents to study English. The students gave item 9, "My parents feel that I should really try to learn English", the highest average agreement in the parental encouragement scale, and second in the entire study. The students, in general, believed that their parents' encouragement was a great help to them. As one female student commented:

"Yes, of course, without my parents' encouragement I would not be able to speak English as good as now. They always stressed the importance of English language. Encouragement is important because it might give you positive energy and it might give you reasons to motivate you to learn English to a huge extent. The family is the one that knows their children's personalities the best; therefore, they can give reasons and push children in a direction that suits their personalities with regard to learning English." (F5)

Interestingly, it was also noticed in this study that the parents' level of English helped. An illustration of this point was given by one female student who imitated her father when he was speaking with his friend in English:

"Of course, the parents' ability to speak English represents a driving force for children to speak and love the language. I still remember imitating my father when he used to speak English with his friends over the phone." (F8)

The same thing was seen with another student who also said that she always wanted to know what her mother and an Indian friend who worked with her used to speak about:

“This [knowing English] surely could be a drive for children to learn English language. My mother had an Indian friend. She used to visit us every week. I always wanted to understand what they used to say and laugh about.” (F4)

These findings reveal the importance of parental encouragement and match those of Muñoz and Lindgren’s (2011) study, which suggest that out-of-school exposure such as watching movies, and parents’ knowledge and use of a foreign language professionally have a significant impact on children’s foreign language achievement.

In general, this study showed that the students perceived significant levels of parental encouragement. Furthermore, the study revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between students’ parental encouragement and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency). Therefore, the sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.7}$ that there is no significant relationship between students’ parental encouragement and their indices of achievement was rejected. This finding is consistent with those of Gardner’s (2012) study in Poland, which found a correlation between older students’ grades and their levels of parental encouragement with a coefficient value of .231 ($p < 0.01$). However, Akram (2015) revealed that parental encouragement did not correlate significantly with the students’ test scores in his study. Also, the study of Atay and Kurt (2010) in Turkey, aiming to investigate the generalizability of the socio-educational model, showed no significant relationship between parental encouragement and the students’ grades, but on the other hand, there was a significant relationship with self-ratings of proficiency.

5.5 THE HYPOTHESES OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE LEARNING SITUATION

Looking at the overall average responses for male (mean=3.00) and female (mean=3.30) students (table 4.19), we can see that the latter is higher. The statistical test revealed a significant difference between male and female students in terms of their attitudes toward their English teacher. Therefore, the sub-null-hypothesis $H_{1.10}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their impressions of their English teacher was rejected. Therefore, the data support the alternative research hypothesis, and this result was not surprising due to the fact that female students are usually more cooperative and friendly with their teachers, which, in turn could have produced a better relationship between them. This positive attitude was noticed in one female's answer regarding their teacher's encouragement:

"To be honest, it is the teacher. For example, last year we were taught by a teacher from Pakistan, and we really enjoyed learning the language because of her approach. There were many scientific terms that were difficult to understand, but really because of her help regarding this issue, we were able to overcome this problem. At the end of each week, we had an open class, and we were able to speak about anything, even outside of the curriculum. She didn't speak Arabic, and she forbade using Arabic to the extent that whoever uttered a word in Arabic was deducted a mark. Despite that, we were achieving high marks and were learning it passionately. I think she was able to understand Arabic, but she didn't speak it with us. She was so friendly!" (F1)

This significant difference could be due to the fact that students in science subjects are especially likely to consult their English teachers regarding scientific terminology, which could create more positive attitudes toward the teacher. As one female science student said:

"There were many scientific terms that were difficult to understand, but really because of her help regarding this issue, we were able to overcome this problem." (F1)

The present finding seems to be consistent with those of Kiziltepe (1997, p.219) that female Turkish students scored “much higher” than their male counterparts ($t = 2.47$; $DF = 305$; $p < 0.014$) in regard to their impressions of their teacher. She suggests that female students scored higher overall in various different factors in her study because they are more ambitious in nature and hard-working, and also parents in Turkey are more conservative toward girls than boys which makes girls more careful in their studies. Furthermore, female students are better able to understand their teachers compared to male students because most teachers in Turkey are women and so female students feel closer to them (Kiziltepe, 1997, pp.235-236). Nevertheless, these findings contradict those of Solak’s (2012) study exploring the role of motivational factors in academic achievement among 230 Turkish students. He found that there was no significant difference ($p\text{-value}=527$) between males and females with regard to evaluations of the teacher.

However, it is also interesting in the current study that there was no significant relationship between the students’ impressions of their English teacher and their indices of achievement. Therefore, sub-null-hypothesis $H_{02.10}$ could not be rejected. These findings are consistent with those of the study conducted by Al-Sohbani (2015) of 75 students in Yemeni rural secondary schools, where there was also no correlation between academic achievement in English and attitudes toward English teachers. However, Kiziltepe (1997) investigated the relationship between students’ grades and their impressions of their teacher, and found a significant correlation with a coefficient value of 3550.

An interesting theme which emerged from the interviews with students was their desire for their English teacher to be a native speaker of the English language. Nearly all

students agreed on this. They held the belief that it was much better for English language skills to be taught by a native English-speaking teacher. As one male student suggested:

“I am suggesting that the teacher should be a foreigner, not an Arabic teacher who always speaks to you in Arabic. Sure, it is better if he was British or American. ... Imagine every day you speak with a native speaker. Especially if he were English, you would hear the real English accent! One hundred percent, it would help us.” (M4)

The results for the theme regarding accents agree with the findings of Chiba et al. (1995) whose study of 169 Japanese university students revealed that students “with leanings toward American or British people, culture, and language are less approving of non-native accents” (p.84). The participants in the current study felt that their English course was the only way in which they could gain exposure to the English language. They did not want to use the Arabic language during their English lessons. These results differ from those of Alshaar (1997) whose study revealed that Kuwaiti students held positive attitudes toward their non-native speaking English teachers. Furthermore, Al Noursi (2013) found that the nativity of teachers in an applied technology high school did not influence students’ attitudes toward learning English. Xiaoru (2008) also found that students in his study had “a clear preference for NST[s] [native speaker teachers] believing that they are more fluent and accurate with a special emphasis on their good pronunciation and sound knowledge of the target language” (pp.80-81). Moreover, these findings are indirectly consistent with those of Al Asmari (2013, p.2288) that Saudi students, “do not like that Arabic is used in their ELT classes”. However, research conducted by Alseweed (2012) in Saudi Arabia revealed that students had positive perceptions about both their native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

One female gave a very convincing argument for having a native English-speaking teacher. Her argument was that males and females needed native English-speaking teachers, but that it was more important for female students. Her point was as follows:

“Considering the fact that we girls do not have as many as opportunities boys do have, I would change most of the Arabic teachers and replace them with English native speakers. It is difficult, but the outcome will be respectable.”(F7)

These desires on the part of students could be attributed to the fact that, although there are many expatriates in Qatar, students seem not to have enough chances to interact with them in order to improve their level of English. This could be because both, the students and English-speaking expatriates are busy with their own responsibilities at school or work or with their families. Having a native speaker of English talking with the students on a daily basis in class should make a significant difference to their level of English speaking skills. This is in line with Albakrawi’s (2014) view that native English-speaking teachers “play a major role in facilitating and improving the learners’ communicative competence” (p.87).

In general, the participants in this study showed fairly positive attitudes toward their English teacher with a mean of 3.21. Similarly, Al-Sohbani (2015) showed that students held a positive attitude toward their English teacher, although their level of English proficiency was low. He explained this contradiction between the students’ positive attitudes toward their English teachers and their poor English proficiency by attributing it to two factors: the English teachers usually make exams easy; and also the students might have rated their English teacher in comparison to other teachers in different subjects (Al-Sohbani, 2015). In accord with the present result, Pineda’s (2011) study in Mexico demonstrated that over half of the 217 students sampled evaluated their

English teacher at an intermediate or high level. The results of the current study are also consistent with those of Alshamy (2012) who showed that almost all (92%) of his Saudi students sample had positive attitude toward their teachers.

Moreover, this study did not find any significant difference between female and male students regarding their impressions of their course. Therefore, the sub-null hypotheses $H_{1.11}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their impressions of their course could not be rejected. The low average responses of both groups indicate that they did not hold positive attitudes towards their course. This suggested that all of the students faced the same problems, as they later explained in the focus group interviews. This is inconsistent with Solak's (2012) finding that Turkish male and female students differed significantly in their impressions of their course, with female students showing more approval.

In the interviews, the students expressed negative impressions of their course. The interviews revealed three interesting themes which they believed to be the causes of the problem. Firstly, they found the course to be difficult. As one male student commented:

"The books we are studying are for those students who speak good English. I think we have to follow the curriculum that is suitable for our level." (M7)

Nearly all of the students claimed that the lack of a prior foundation in learning was the cause of their problem with the course. This is illustrated in a quotation from one male student:

"In my opinion, what makes it difficult is the absence of the proper English language foundation. We have reached higher academic levels, but the foundation is not there. What I mean is that at primary level we did not learn English properly. I meant that they did not teach us English correctly." (M4)

The second theme was their suggestion that they wanted to have conversations with native speakers of English in Qatar. This theme was very interesting in the sense that the students were extremely enthusiastic and it was clear that they were excited about it. One female student strongly suggested that:

“There should be weekly or monthly sessions with foreign students and Arab students in order to gain language experience.” (F2)

Thirdly, the students complained about the course being long and boring. They also wanted their course to have more activities to motivate them to learn. As one female student explained:

“It is not only that the book is too long, but it contains boring, long, useless topics. For example, when we studied French, there was an excellent book. In the class, we used to take a short lesson followed by many songs and a game or something similar. We didn’t study grammar that much. As for English, we are studying it in such way that the lesson is long and boring with a lot of grammar which should be for advanced students. There aren’t any activities or anything that would break the routine of our study.” (F2)

The students’ overall impressions of their course were only slightly positive (mean=2.87). This result supports the findings of Abd Aziz (1994) whose students felt that their English language courses were boring and too long. Moreover, the findings of the current study are consistent with those of Pineda’s (2011) study whose results suggested that students were not satisfied with their course because no activities were included, and as a result of this, the students felt that their course was not dynamic and less attractive. However, the findings of the current study do not match those of Alshamy (2012) who found that 75% of students sampled were satisfied with their course in general.

What is perhaps surprising is that in this study significant correlations were not found between the students’ impressions of their English course and their English course

scores or their self-ratings of English language proficiency. This means that sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.11}$, that there is no significant relationship between students' impressions of their English course and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency), could not be rejected. However, the findings of the current study do not support Kiziltepe's (1997) significant relationship between the students' grades and their impressions of their English course.

Overall, sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.13}$, that there is no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward the learning situation (an aggregate of the course factor and the teacher factor) and their indices of achievement, could not be rejected. No correlation was found between the students' attitudes toward the learning situation and their English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency. This finding is in agreement with those of Gardner's (2007) study in Spain which assessed the applicability of the socio-educational model (AMTB) in a context where English is regarded as a foreign language. He expressed his surprise at these results:

because one would expect that in cooperative classes with an experienced and skilled teacher and good teaching materials, etc., that students would have more favourable attitudes toward the situation and thus would learn more English and thus get higher grades. One could hypothesize any number of reasons for this result, but the simple truth is that we obtain similar results in many of our studies, some of which use grades as the measure of language proficiency while some use other indices of achievement as well. (p.17)

Moreover, Gardner's (2012) study in Warsaw and Pulawy, Poland, also found no significant correlation between attitudes toward the learning situation and grades among older students. However, Gardner (2010) revealed that the correlations of attitudes toward the learning situation with grades were significant among younger and

older students in Brazil. Also, the findings in Croatia (Gardner, 2006) mirror those in Brazil, in that significant correlations were found between both older and younger students' attitudes toward learning situation and their grades.

Despite the differences in results in these studies, Gardner (2007) further concluded that he was convinced that what he did as a teacher and what materials he used were important in his students' training and, in turn, would influence their motivation. Therefore, an increased level of motivation would presumably affect how much students learn. This is in agreement with Maarafi's (2004, i) study in Qatar that "students found teachers to be the most influential factor affecting their motivation". Under these circumstances, Langdrige (2004) draws attention to the fact that the statistical significance of results does not give a cast-iron guarantee that the results obtained are reliable. Furthermore, he urges researchers to examine their findings in relation to the findings of previous studies and also to use their common sense when the findings show significant or even insignificant results. In other words, researchers should not "ignore any finding that is not significant" (Langdrige, 2004, p.123).

5.6 THE HYPOTHESIS OF ANXIETY

It is clear from the results shown in table 4.12 that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female students in regard to their anxiety in class, with males being more anxious. The sub-null hypothesis $H_{1.6}$ that there is no significant difference between male and female students in regard to their English class anxiety was therefore rejected, and the research hypothesis that there is a difference between the two groups is supported. This finding is inconsistent with those of Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) in a study of 383 Turkish students studying the English language in an English preparatory programme at Afyon Kocatepe University, where "female students

experience a higher level of speaking anxiety than male students” (p.659). Moreover, the finding is different from that of Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) that “female students get more anxious than the male students while speaking in English classroom” (p.654). On the other hand, the finding of the current study is in agreement with those of Hussain et al. (2011) in the Punjab, Pakistan, that male students exhibited more classroom anxiety than their female counterparts.

However, from my own experience as a teacher, the difference between males’ and females’ anxiety levels in the current study could be attributed to the fact that girls are more serious about learning English than boys. Another reason might be that boys tend to make fun of each other when, for example, a grammatical, pronunciation or spelling mistake is made. The evidence of male anxiety can be clearly seen in the results for item 2, “I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our English class”. As shown in table 4.11, the average score of male students for this item was the highest for all of the anxiety items ($m=2.99$). One male student made the following comment:

“The most influential and encouraging factor for me is the teacher. Because if he is able to control the class, no one would make fun of others. What confuses me most is my mates because if anyone utters a wrong word; it is finished!” (M4)

Female and male students did not differ significantly in response to item 3, “I always feel that other students speak English better than I do”, and item 4, “I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class”. Moreover, female students showed their highest anxiety level for these two items.

The quantitative findings concerning the students’ anxiety were mirrored in the students’ interview data. One male student explained his anxious feelings during class

activities, when he revealed, and other students said the same, that the difficulty of the course was a problem. As he stated:

“When the teacher calls me out to answer questions in front of my mates, I get confused. Actually, I am not afraid to answer. The problem for me is that I do not know the answer. Although I did my best to concentrate during the lesson, the subject is too hard for me.” (M8)

Moreover, the analysis of the qualitative data in this study revealed that the teacher plays a crucial role in increasing or decreasing anxiety. This is clearly illustrated in the extract below:

“It depends on the teacher. I liked English language because of my teacher who taught me at the primary school; however, the situation changed since last year when our high school teachers’ approach was harsh and difficult and that made me worried more in English classes.” (M7)

Nevertheless, the students’ English class anxiety significantly negatively correlated with their English course scores and also with their self-ratings of English language proficiency. Sub-null hypothesis $H_{0.2.6}$ that there is no significant relationship between students’ English class anxiety and their indices of achievement (English course scores and self-ratings of English language proficiency) was rejected. These findings are in agreement with those of Abdol Latif et al. (2011) that there was a significant inverse relationship between Malaysian students’ performance in English and their anxiety with a coefficient value of $-.391$. Also, these findings corroborate the results of Atay and Kurt (2010) in their study to check the applicability of the socio-educational model in Turkey, where among 130 students who were native speakers of Turkish a significant correlation existed between anxiety and their grades and self-ratings of proficiency: $-.40$ for English grades and $-.71$ for self-ratings.

6 CHAPTER SIX

6.1 IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

One of the issues which has emerged from the findings of this study is that the students in general held positive attitudes toward British people. So, in order to achieve an effective way of teaching the English language in Qatar, teachers should try to maintain this positive attitude. However, although the students held positive attitudes, the results revealed that these attitudes were only moderately positive. Therefore, to maintain and increase these positive attitudes, schools could arrange visits between Qatari schools and British schools either in Qatar or in the UK. Another option, which would be more economical and an easier option to implement, would be to organize network connections between Qatari students and British students in Qatar or in the UK. In a similar environment to that in the current study, Al Asmari (2013) recommended that Saudi students:

Should be convinced of the benefit of practicing the target language in real life setting[s] and be guided to use online sites which provide the facility to chat with their friends from all over the world in the target language. They should create and join special interest groups to compensate for the lack of opportunities to use the target language. (p.2300)

Nearly all of the students in Qatari schools do believe in the stereotype held in most of the Arab world that British English is more grammatical and more correct than American English. This received idea was reflected in the following extract from one female student:

“Regarding the British, they are known for obeying the rules, especially rules related to the language. If we would compare the British and Americans, we could notice that the British do not make grammatical mistakes, nor do they omit letters when pronouncing words which is the case with the Americans.

When listening to any one of them speaking English, I feel that their language is excellent and as it should be.” (F3)

Moreover, it was noticed in the participants' focus group interviews that they had a strong desire to have native English-speaking teachers. They claimed that having native English-speaking teachers would compensate for the lack of opportunities to meet native speakers of English in Qatar. Therefore, it is strongly recommended by the present researcher to supplement the English teaching teams in Qatari schools with English teachers who are native speakers of English or to establish programmes for bilateral cooperation between Qatar and countries where English is the native language. Teachers from these countries could then come to Qatar on regular visits for teaching purposes.

However, selecting native speakers over non-native speakers because they are native speakers of English only is related to an ideology called native-speakerism (Holliday, 2014, 2005). Ruecker and Ives (2015, p.733) urge people to “fight” this decimation, and in relation to this matter, they found that there was “a strong connection between racism and native speakerism” (p.750). To overcome this issue, the researcher recommends that recruitment officials should put emphasis on the teachers' professional credentials rather than their native language or colour. Moreover, Lee (2016) analysed ethnographic and qualitative data from 20 South Korean bilinguals of English and Korean doing their post-postgraduate studies in the USA, and found that they did not perceive ‘native-like English competence’ as their preferred language model. He further points out that policymakers and school administrators should not idealize and impose upon learners “a certain type of language competence and speakerhood” (Lee, 2016, p.83). Moreover, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) claim that when it comes to English nowadays, it is not necessarily related to a specific culture of its native speakers, but

instead, it is “becoming associated with a global culture” (p.30). This reflects the view of Lamb (2004) who proposes the concept of ‘*future self*’ based on his research into the self-reports of Indonesian high-school students. Lamb reported that the students’ motivation was based on a concept of bicultural identity, with an identity of a global citizen on one side, and a national identity on the other. Moreover, as Lamb stated, such students are encouraged “to develop a vision of an English-speaking, globally-involved, but nationally-responsible future self, and which contributes to a high initial level of motivation to learn the language” (Lamb, 2004, p.14). Furthermore, Lamb (2004) adds that people would retain their local identity to help them to interact with their local community, friends or families, and at the same time there will be no contradiction with their ‘global’ selves.

It was noted in both, the quantitative and qualitative findings that the students in Qatar felt proud of their heritage. They gave item 8, “*British people’s heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity*”, the lowest overall agreement in table 4.1, which indicates that they held very positive attitudes toward their own heritage. This was confirmed by the students in their interviews as, for example, one male student asserted that:

“If they [the British] read our culture, they would come to know that it is a great culture and real Arabs respect their promises even if someone might lose his life, and our literature is full of the same stories, but actually some Arabs, unfortunately, did ruin our reputation.” (M4)

Therefore, it is recommended that teachers and educationalists should include Arabic stories in the content of English language courses. This recommendation is also supported by Abu-Rabia (1998) who stated that “the students scored higher on reading comprehension of text from their own (Arab) culture than of text from the unfamiliar (Jewish) culture”. These stories could include information about well-known scientists

and artists from the Islamic and Arabic civilisation, and from British heritage such as, for example, Isaac Newton, William Shakespeare, Al-Khwarizmi, Jabir ibn Hayyan, and Al-Biruni who could all be seen as role models for the students. The students in this study also showed a willingness to communicate with British people and with native speakers of the English language in general. Therefore, educationalists and policymakers should design English lessons in such a way as to enhance the students' interest in the British and other cultures where English is the native language and also to encourage their interest in international affairs and activities in order to reduce the students' anxiety and build confidence in their communication (Yashima, 2002). Similarly, Crystal (2012) states that many people in politics use English as a means of achieving an international voice.

The study showed that the students held positive attitudes toward the English language, as in their quantitative data and focus group interviews they expressed their love and enjoyment of learning English. The quantitative analysis showed that responses to all items in this scale of attitudes toward English were positive. This ought to be a positive signal for educators and policymakers when designing or modifying English courses. Furthermore, the study revealed a significant positive relationship between English achievement and attitudes toward the English language. This provides further support for the hypothesis that students who hold positive attitudes toward a target language will score higher grades in their language exams. However, these findings raise the question of why Qatari students' levels of achievement in the English language are low although they hold positive attitudes toward it.

The study revealed that the Qatari students' integrative orientation was very high, which means that they are learning English in order to integrate with native speakers of

English and to allow them to meet and converse with more and varied people. Students' responses in the questionnaire study suggested that studying English would enable them to understand better and appreciate British art and literature, and a positive association was also found between the students' integrative orientation and their proficiency. This finding has significant implications for developing courses so as to increase the integrative orientation; that is, to create opportunities for students to meet native speakers of English whether in Qatar or abroad. As recommended by Oxford and Shearin (1994, p.24), "teachers can also invite visitors who are native speakers of the L2 to share cultural information and to confirm that the students can really use the language communicatively".

The analysis of data showed that the participants indicated a fairly strong interest in learning foreign languages as such, for example, French, Chinese and Korean. They considered that knowing another language besides English is an advantage which they strongly believed would help them in their future search for a job. Furthermore, their interest in learning foreign languages correlated positively with their English grades. As a matter of fact, this was the highest correlation found in this study. This result suggests that schools should provide the chances for students who are interested in learning other foreign languages as well as English. This result also indicates that students in Qatar are open to other different cultural communities.

It was shown in this study that parental encouragement received the second highest level of support from students among the eleven factors which may help the learning of English. The quantitative results showed that the participants' perceptions of the importance of parental encouragement were very positive. Moreover, the statistical analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between the participants'

achievement in English and the parental encouragement they received. The qualitative data mirrored the quantitative data. Five important themes recurred during the data analysis, which were verbal encouragement, private teaching, help from siblings, the effect of parents' level of English, and extra-curricular activities. These findings from both, the quantitative and qualitative studies have important implications for teachers and those who work in schools and deal with parents to bear in mind the parental influence which could be very effective in strengthening the students' achievement in the English language. For example, it is recommended that parents visiting the school should be assured of the importance of their positive participation whether through verbal encouragement or personal involvement. Even saying positive things about learning English in front of their children can be a form of encouragement. Also, parental involvement could include taking children to bookshops to buy simplified stories or to the cinema to see a film in English and then to talk to them about it. Both these activities are recommended as ways of improving English competence. Parental encouragement could increase their children's proficiency and would further enlighten them about the importance of the English language. The findings of Krishnan et al. (2013, p.869) showed "that among all the factors, parents' encouragement played the most important role in motivating students to learn the English language". Moreover, a study conducted by Alshaar (1997) found that there was a significant positive relationship between the Kuwaiti students' attitudes and their parents' attitudes toward learning English. Therefore, educators, teachers, and the other people working in schools should explain to parents the importance of their valuable role in improving their children's language proficiency.

This study showed that the participants' instrumental orientation was very high. The quantitative data analysis revealed that the highest overall means in this study were carried by two items from the instrumental scale. These two items were item 1, "Studying English can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career", and item 3, "Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job". This illustrates the great importance that students ascribe to the value of the English language. A significant correlation was found between the participants' English achievement and their instrumental orientation, which indicates that the students were studying English for utilitarian purposes. These results provide further support for the research hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between the students' achievement in English and their reasons for learning English. Therefore, it is recommended that both parents and teachers should explain to the students the importance of the English language for their future in order to sustain and strengthen this instrumental motivation. Students should be reminded that "English has become the language associated with technological advances" (Dörnyei 2005, p.97).

This study showed that the highest correlation found in this research was between motivation, measured as an aggregate of motivational intensity, desire to learn English, and attitudes toward learning English and the students' achievement in English (see Table 4.34). In other words, students, for example, who participate in class, put more effort into revising what they have studied in their English lesson, and try to communicate with native speakers of English in their neighbourhoods score higher than students who do not. Therefore, policymakers should "adopt varieties of teaching

methods and techniques to make classrooms activities interesting and also to cater to learners' different preferences and styles" (Saleh, 2015, p.76).

Surprisingly, although the participants' instrumental motivation was high, it was found in this study that their motivational intensity and desire to learn English were much lower (see tables 4.15 and 4.17). This study has also revealed that the amount of effort expended by the participants to learn English was very low. The study has shown that the students' desire to learn English was also very low, which suggests that the students did not want to learn English that much. Asking the participants in depth, in the qualitative phase, about their motivational intensity and their desire to learn English, the study reveals that most of the participants complained about the course that was too hard for them and also very boring. They revealed they avoided speaking with native speakers because they did not want to embarrass themselves due to their low levels of speaking skills in English. They wanted to have bridging courses in English. They also wanted their English lessons to be more enjoyable. These results support the idea that course designers should try to make courses more interesting for students and for teachers too; for example, by making them more practical and including more games in lessons. Schools should give extra lessons for those students who want to strengthen their levels of English. The level of these lessons should be carefully balanced so as to avoid being beyond the students' skills but at the same time still challenging them. Achieving this balance will make courses more interesting and challenging but not too difficult at the same time. If the course is too easy, students will be bored and if it is too difficult, this will eventually cause anxiety (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2011).

The quantitative research in this study revealed that students felt anxious during their English classes. They felt embarrassed to volunteer answers in their lessons, which reflects their lack of confidence in their English. By asking them in depth about this in the interviews, it was found that they thought this anxiety was mainly due to two things. Firstly, the personality of the teacher and his or her way of teaching affected their anxiety, and also, if the teacher allowed other students to make fun of anyone who made mistakes, this made them embarrassed and hesitant to participate in class. Secondly, they believed that the difficulty of the course was one of the main reasons which caused an increase in their anxiety during their English lessons. Moreover, the statistical tests conducted in this study showed a significant negative relationship between the participants' level of English and their anxiety, which means that students who were more anxious were also less skillful in English. These findings suggest that teachers should try to encourage their students to participate in the class regardless of the mistakes they might make. Also, they should try to keep the class on track and not allow students to discourage each other. Moreover, educators should try to bridge the gap between the students' level and that of the course. They should design courses more carefully. In the words of Egbert (2003, p.512), they should establish a "balance between the challenge of the task and the students' skills in the language" in order to avoid anxiety.

Taken together, the findings of this study suggest that all of the attitudinal and motivational variables are essential in the process of second or foreign language learning. Moreover, the relationships between these variables and the indices of achievement showed us the importance of all of these factors. However, from the findings of this study, we can conclude that the aggregated factor which is motivation

(motivational intensity, desire to learn English, and attitudes toward learning English) is the most significant variable which correlates with learners' proficiency in English. This means that motivation is the factor which lies behind the effort exerted by students to learn the target language. It is followed by integrativeness (attitudes toward British people, integrative orientation, and interest in foreign languages) which also supports motivation. In addition, instrumental orientation and parental encouragement play a decisive role in foreign language learning. Although from the quantitative analysis students' attitudes towards the learning situation and English class anxiety were less related to students' proficiency, it was concluded from the focus group interviews that there was a very strong positive relationship between these two factors. However, the main conclusion which can be drawn from this study is that these factors together, rather than separately, contribute to heightening students' foreign or second language achievement.

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APPENDIX ONE

Attitudes and Motivation factors and their relationship to learning English as a foreign language
(Gardner, 1985a, pp.179-184)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to measure the attitudinal and motivational factors in relation to the learning and teaching in the State of Qatar. Your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw at any time. There are no marks for your participation in this study. Your answers will be very confidential and nobody apart from the researcher (me) will look at them. Moreover, your name is not required which means this questionnaire is anonymous. Please, know that by agreeing to fill out this questionnaire is considered as consent from your side to participate in this study. Kindly be informed that your answers will help in improving education in Qatar in general and English language teaching and learning in particular.

Demographic variables:

1. 1. Sex: Male () female ().
2. What was your final score in English last year?%.
3. How would you rate your level of English?
 - a. Excellent: ().
 - b. Very good: ().
 - c. Good: ().
 - d. Weak: ().

Please, circle the number that corresponds with your own opinion. Please, remember that you are to circle one number only. Thank for you participation.

EXAMPLE:

Attitudes Toward Cars	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Mercedes are the best among cars.	<u>5</u>	4	3	2	1

2. Toyota VXR(Land Cruiser) is the best among cars.	5	4	3	2	1
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Part A:

Attitudes Toward British People	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. British people are very social, warm-hearted and creative people.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I would like to know more British people.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Having British people in Qatar add a distinctive flavor to the Qatari culture.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Arabs in Qatar should make a greater effort to learn the English language.	5	4	3	2	1
5. The more I get to know British people, the more I want to be fluent in their language.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Some of our best citizens are graduates from British educational institutions.	5	4	3	2	1
7. If Qatari people lose the connection with the British culture, it would indeed be a great loss.	5	4	3	2	1
8. British people's heritage is an important part of our Qatari identity.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Most British people are so friendly and easy to get along with that Qatar is fortunate to have them.	5	4	3	2	1
10. British people are considerate of the feelings of others.	5	4	3	2	1
11. The more I learn about the British, the more I like them.	5	4	3	2	1
12. British people are cheerful, agreeable and good humoured.	5	4	3	2	1
13. British people are trustworthy and dependable.	5	4	3	2	1
14. I have always admired British people.	5	4	3	2	1
15. British people are very friendly and hospitable.	5	4	3	2	1

16. I would like to get to know British people better.	5	4	3	2	1
17. The British are a very kind and generous people.	5	4	3	2	1
18. British people are sincere and honest	5	4	3	2	1

Part B:

Attitudes toward learning English	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Learning English is really great.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I really enjoy learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
3. English is an important part of the school programme.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I plan to learn as much English as possible.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I love learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I hate English.	5	4	3	2	1
7. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Learning English is a waste of time.	5	4	3	2	1
9. I think that learning English is dull.	5	4	3	2	1
10. When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it.	5	4	3	2	1

Part C:

Interest in Foreign Languages	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Even though Qatar is relatively far from countries speaking other languages, it is important for the Qataris and Arabs in Qatar to learn foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I wish I could speak another language perfectly.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
7. If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English.	5	4	3	2	1
8. I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required.	5	4	3	2	1
9. I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience.	5	4	3	2	1

Part D:

Integrative Orientations	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
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1. Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak English.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate British art and literature.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	5	4	3	2	1

Part E:

Instrumental Orientation	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Studying English can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language.	5	4	3	2	1

Part F:

English Class Anxiety	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our English class.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I always feel that other students speak English better than I do.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	5	4	3	2	1

Part G:

Parental Encouragement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. My parents try to help me with my English.	5	4	3	2	1
2. My parents feel that because English is an international language, I should learn it.	5	4	3	2	1
3. My parents feel that I should continue studying English all through school.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My parents think I should devote more time to my English studies.	5	4	3	2	1
5. My parents really encourage me to study English.	5	4	3	2	1
6. My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English course.	5	4	3	2	1
7. My parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible.	5	4	3	2	1

8. My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me when I leave school.	5	4	3	2	1
9. My parents feel that I should really try to learn English.	5	4	3	2	1
10. My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my English.	5	4	3	2	1

Part H:

Please answer the following questions by circling one of the Alternative letters (a or b or c) which appears most applicable to you.

- I. Example: I actively think about what I have learned in my history class:
- Very frequently.
 - Hardly ever.
 - Once in a while.

I. Motivational Intensity:

- I actively think about what I have learned in my English class:
 - Very frequently.
 - Hardly ever.
 - Once in a while.
- If English were not taught in school, I would:
 - Pick up English in everyday situations (i.e., read English books and newspapers, try to speak it whenever possible, etc.).
 - Not bother learning English at all.
 - Try to obtain lessons in English somewhere else.
- When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I:
 - Immediately ask the teacher for help.
 - Only seek help just before the exam.
 - Just forget about it.
- When it comes to English homework, I:
 - Put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
 - Work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.

- c. Just skim over it.
- 5) Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I:
- a. Do just enough work to get along.
 - b. Will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work.
 - c. Really try to learn English.
- 6) If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would:
- a. Definitely volunteer.
 - b. Definitely not volunteer.
 - c. Only do it if the teacher asked me directly.
- 7) After I get my English assignments back, I:
- a. Always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes.
 - b. Just throw them in my desk and forget them.
 - c. Look them over, but don't bother correcting mistakes.
- 8) When I am in English class, I:
- a. Volunteer answers as much as possible.
 - b. Answer only the easier questions.
 - c. Never say anything.
- 9) When I hear an English song on the radio, I:
- a. Listen to music, paying attention only to the easy words.
 - b. Listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
 - c. Change the station.

I. Desire to learn English: Circle the answer which you think is a appropriate for you:

- 1) During English class, I would like:
- a) To have a combination of Arabic and English spoken.
 - b) To have as much English as possible spoken.
 - c) To have only Arabic spoken.
- 2) If I had the opportunity to speak English outside of school, I would:
- a) Never speak it.
 - b) Speak English most of the time, using Arabic only if really necessary.
 - c) Speak it occasionally, using it whenever possible.
- 3) Compared to my other courses, I like English:

- a) The most.
 - b) The same as all the others.
 - c) Least of all.
- 4) If there were an English Club in my School, I would:
- a) Attend meetings once in a while.
 - b) Be most interested in joining.
 - c) Definitely not join.
- 5) If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:
- a) Would definitely take it.
 - b) Would drop it.
 - c) Do not know whether I would take it or not
- 6) I find studying English:
- a) Not interesting at all.
 - b) No more interesting than other subjects.
 - c) Very interesting.
- 7) If the opportunity arose and I knew enough English, I would watch English TV programmes:
- a) Never
 - b) As often as possible.
 - c) Sometimes.
- 8) If I had the opportunity to see a film in English, I would:
- a) Go only if I had nothing else to do.
 - b) Definitely go.
 - c) Not go.
- 9) If there were English-speaking families in my neighborhood, I would:
- a) Never speak English with them.
 - b) Speak English with them sometimes.
 - c) Speak English with them as much as possible.
- 10) If I had the opportunity and knew enough English, I would read English magazines and newspapers:
- a) As often as I could.
 - b) Never.
 - c) Not very often.

Part I:

MY TEACHER

The purpose of this section of this questionnaire is to show your idea and impression of your teacher last year. Therefore, if you, for example, believe that your teacher is extremely friendly circle number (5), but if you, believe that your teacher is somewhat friendly circle number (4). , but if you believe that your teacher is neither friendly nor unfriendly then circle number (3). On the other hand, if you believe that your teacher is slightly unfriendly circle number (2), but, if you, believe that your teacher is extremely unfriendly then circle number (1), and so on.

For example, if you are rating your impression of horses, some of your concepts about it might be as follows:

	Extremely	Slightly	Neither	Slightly	Extremely	
Friendly	5	4	x3	2	1	Unfriendly
Safe	5	x4	3	2	1	Dangerous
Fast	x5	4	3	2	1	Slow
Useful	5	4	3	x2	1	Useless

Your impression is going to be interpreted as follows: you see that horses are slightly safe, extremely fast, slightly useless and neither friendly nor unfriendly.

My English Teacher last year was:

	Extremely	Slightly	Neither	Slightly	Extremely	
1.Efficient	5	4	3	2	1	Inefficient
2.Sensitive	5	4	3	2	1	Insensitive
3.Cheerful	5	4	3	2	1	Cheerless
4.Competent	5	4	3	2	1	Incompetent
5.Sincere	5	4	3	2	1	Insincere
6.Approachable	5	4	3	2	1	Unapproachable
7.Pleasant	5	4	3	2	1	Unpleasant

8.Capable	5	4	3	2	1	Incapable
9.Fascinating	5	4	3	2	1	Tedious
10.friendly	5	4	3	2	1	Unfriendly
11.Exciting	5	4	3	2	1	Dull
12.Organized	5	4	3	2	1	Disorganized
13.Reliable	5	4	3	2	1	Unreliable
14.Imaginative	5	4	3	2	1	Unimaginative
15.Patient	5	4	3	2	1	Impatient
16.Polite	5	4	3	2	1	Impolite
17.Colorful	5	4	3	2	1	Colorless
18.Intelligent	5	4	3	2	1	Unintelligent
19.Good	5	4	3	2	1	Bad
20.Industrious	5	4	3	2	1	Unindustrious
21.dependable	5	4	3	2	1	Undependable
22.Interested	5	4	3	2	1	Disinterested
23.Considerate	5	4	3	2	1	Inconsiderate

Part J:

MY COURSE:

The purpose of this section of this questionnaire is to show your idea and impression of your course last year. Therefore, if you, for example, believe that your course is extremely efficient circle number (5) , but if you, If you, believe that your course is slightly efficient circle number (4), but If you believe that your course is neither efficient nor inefficient then circle number (3). On the other hand, if you believe that your course is slightly inefficient circle number (2), but, if you, believe that your course is extremely inefficient then circle number (1), and so on.

My English Course last year was:

	Extremely	Slightly	Neither	Slightly	Extremely	
1. Meaningful	5	4	3	2	1	Meaningless
2.Enjoyable	5	4	3	2	1	Unenjoyable
3.Absorbing	5	4	3	2	1	monotonous
4.Effortless	5	4	3	2	1	Hard
5.Nice	5	4	3	2	1	Awful

6.Interesting	5	4	3	2	1	Boring
7.Good	5	4	3	2	1	Bad
8.Simple	5	4	3	2	1	Complicated
9.Agreeable	5	4	3	2	1	Disagreeable
10.Fascinating	5	4	3	2	1	Tedious
11.Valuable	5	4	3	2	1	Worthless
12.Necessary	5	4	3	2	1	Unnecessary
13.Useful	5	4	3	2	1	Useless
14.Elementary	5	4	3	2	1	Complex
15.Pleasurable	5	4	3	2	1	Painful
16.Educational	5	4	3	2	1	Non-educational
17.Rewarding	5	4	3	2	1	Unrewarding
18.Easy	5	4	3	2	1	Difficult
19.Satisfying	5	4	3	2	1	Unsatisfying
20.Important	5	4	3	2	1	Unimportant
21.Pleasant	5	4	3	2	1	Unpleasant
22.Exciting	5	4	3	2	1	Dull
23.Clear	5	4	3	2	1	Confusing

APPENDIX TWO

Focus Group Interview Questions

1. Attitude toward the British people
 1. How do you find the British people?
 2. What do you like about British people?
2. Interest in foreign languages
 1. Do you like learning foreign languages? Which ones? Why?
3. Attitude toward English language
 1. Do you like learning English? Why? How is it important to you to know English well?
4. Integrative orientation
 1. Is it important to you to fit in a foreign society or you would rather stick to your own?(scenario: imagine you are in a foreign county)
 2. What is the benefit of integration?
5. Instrumental orientation
 1. Do you see English language as a mean to achieve something?
 2. What are the benefits of knowing English language?
 3. Do you think English is needed in your field?
6. English class anxiety
 1. How do you see your English class? Does it cause a feeling of anxiety or worry?
 2. Do the students have opportunities to participate actively?
 3. What would you change in your English class if you were given a chance to change?
7. Teacher
 1. Do you think your English teacher is competent in teaching you?
 2. Does s/he encourage students? How?
8. English Course Books
 1. Did you find the English course to be useful to you?
 2. Was it interesting or boring?
 3. What would you change about it?
9. Parental encouragement
 1. How do your parents encourage you regarding learning English?
 2. Is it a constant encouragement?
 3. Do your parents speak English?
10. Motivational intensity
 1. Do you feel you are strongly motivated to learn English?

2. What is the drive of that motivation?
3. What could make your motivation stronger toward the English learning?

11. Desire to learn English

1. Do you have a desire to learn English or you are forced to because of the school requirement?
2. How can somebody be encouraged in order to develop desire for learning English?

APPENDIX THREE

The official written approval from the Supreme Council of Education to conduct the surveys



تسهيل مهمة القائم بالبحث الميداني في المدارس

السيد : مدير المدرسة المحترم

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

نود إحاطتكم علما بأن الباحث / الباحثون المذكورة أسماءهم أدناه ، بصدد إجراء دراسة ميدانية

في مدرستكم وبياناتهم كالتالي :

« اسم الباحث : ناصر فهد ناصر باثل الدوسري.

« جهة البحث : جامعة سنڤرلاند (المملكة المتحدة- بريطانيا).

« عنوان البحث : العوامل المؤثرة في حماس ودافعية الطلاب لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كلفة أجنبية.

« هدف البحث : دراسة دور العوامل الإجتماعية والمدرسية في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كلفة أجنبية.

« عينة البحث : طلاب الثاني ثانوي والثالث ثانوي (بنين و بنات).

عليه ، يرجى التكرم بتسهيل مهمة الباحث ، علما بأن البيانات ستكون سرية ولأغراض البحث العلمي..

مع شكرنا لحسن تعاونكم معنا

عن/ د. عبدالعزيز علي السعدي

مدير مكتب تحليل السياسات والأبحاث