After Instrumental-Integrative Dichotomy

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1. INTRODUCTION

Some researchers investigating second language acquisition (SLA) argue that the social milieu of the learners influences individually different variables (attitudes, motivation, and anxiety), which are involved in learning a second language (Gardner & Clement, 1990 ; Gardner, Lalonde & Pierson, 1983). Closely related to the attitudinal research and often an integral part of this research is motivation. Motivation is the most influential non-linguistic factor for second language learning (SLL), preceded only by aptitude. Aptitude refers to the learner's capacity to learn a language, while motivation is related to the reasons for learning it. Dörnyei defined motivation as "the organized patterning of an individual's personal goals, emotions, and personal agency beliefs" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 52). Gardner thought of it as the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus satisfaction with the task of learning the language (Gardner, 1985). While there are many different definitions of motivation, the simple and convincing definition is provided by Gardner & MacIntyre (1991, p. 58) : "the directed, reinforcing effort to learn a language."

The differences tend to affect the type of attitude the individual develops, which in turn affects their motivation to learn the second language (Clement & Kruidenier, 1985 ; Dörnyei, 1998 ; Gardner, 1985 ; 1988 ; Gardner & Clement, 1990 ; Gardner & Lambert, 1972 ; Ramage, 1990). Therefore, researchers concerned with the effect of motivation on L2 learning attempt to identify various and influential factors. The studies of motivation have received much attention since Gardner and Lambert's landmark study, because motivation is commonly thought of as a key to learning regardless of learning contexts. Gardner and Lambert (1959) classified the motivation to learn a second language in terms of two different orientations : 1) integrate and 2) instrumental. Since that study, there have been a number of further investigations conducted to understand the motivational variables and their importance in SLA within different cultural and situational contexts.

Even though many studies on motivation in SLL have incorporated aspects of integrative versus instrumental for over forty years, an alternative motivational framework has been formulated based on a cognitive motivation model. Cognitive motivation is concerned with the measure to which individual involvement in the decision making in one's own learning enhances motivation to learn (Dickinson, 1995). This claim refers to a relationship between individuals' goal-setting and self-determination. Deci and Ryan's (1995) Self-determination theory was the most promising model to understand this relationship.

Initially, Gardner and his associates identified integrativeness and instrumentairty toward

SLL as major variables that influenced the motivational factor in SLA. They depicted how these variables relate to the motivational factor in progressive versions of the Socio-educational model of motivation. Gardner also proposed the Socio-educational model that involves influences of another cultural group on the development of the integrative motivation. The Socio-educational model based on the integrative-instrumental dichotomous formulation inspired many subsequent studies and some of these supported the importance of the integrative motivation over instrumental motivation for successful SLL.

Furthermore, a lot of researches did not support the superiority of integrative motivation. The arguments were that there were ambiguities in definitions between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation (Clement & Kruidenier, 1983 ; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991 ; Dörnyei, 1990 ; 1994 ; Gardner, 1988). According to Crookes and Schmidt (1991), traditional research on integrative versus instrumental motivation in SLL that maintained Gardner's socio-educational framework, failed to differentiate motivation from social attitude. There is no adequate definition of integrative motivation because motivational and attitudinal variables may vary depending on the operational definitions and learning contexts.

While an abundance of literature on language learning motivation has shown the relationship between motivation and SLA, there has been a lack of consensus among language learning motivation profiles. In addition, the traditional research approach to the study of motivation in SLL has the difficulty of generalizing findings across SLL context.

Moreover, Gardner and Lambert's traditional approach to motivation has made it difficult to see the relationship between motivational research in L2 and its connection to other fields such as general and educational psychology. As a result, it is difficult to identify clear implications for effective L2 teaching from the research that is based on the Socio-educational model on motivation. Consequently, Bennett (1993) contended that there was eed for an alternative approach to illuminate and predict how motivation was related to language learning achievement. Recent research on intercultural sensitivity, defined in terms of stages of personal sensitivity growth to the importance of cultural differences and to the viewpoints about culturally different people, has focused on its relationship to intercultural communication competence (Bennett, 1993 ; Chen & Starosta, 1997 ; Wiseman, Hammer, & Nishida, 1989). Based on previous research in this area, Bennett (1993) developed a model that describes the ways in which people understand cultural differences.

In this study, through whirlwind tour of the history of motivational research, several remarkable theories that influence motivation are discussed. It reviews some existing studies that show motivation is a major influencing factor on SLL. It also emphasizes that there are many reasons for people to learn languages and that they do not necessarily have to be instrumental or integrative, but that there are other components such as interpersonal or intercultural sensitivity.

2. EARLIER STUDIES (INTEGRATIVE VERSUS INSTRUMENTAL)

Research exploring motivation to learn L2 dates from the end of the 1950s. Before that

period, ability was thought to be essential, whereas motivation was considered unimportant. First, language researchers attempting to explain how children learn their first language emphasized a certain type of motivation. Gardner and Lambert's (1959) theory suggests that "language acquisition is motivated by desire to be like valued members of the family and, later, of the whole community" (p. 266). Extending this view to the acquisition of a second language (L2), Gardner and Lambert (1959) hypothesized that "achievement in a second language is dependent upon essentially the same type of motivation that is apparently necessary for the child to learn his first language" (p. 267). Therefore, although motivation appeared to be a major factor in SLA, it was [a particular type of]... orientation that apparently provided a strong motivation to learn the other group's language (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 4).

Gardner and Lambert in the late 1960's conducted motivational research on the field of SLA. In their seminal study, two motivational orientations were identified: integrative and instrumental. They were the pioneers who introduced researchers to the terms, integrative and instrumental. The integrative motivation characterizes the learners' desire to identify with members from the L2 community and culture in order to facilitate communication with that group (Graham, 1984). The instrumental motivation signifies the learners' interest in learning L2 for the pragmatic, utilitarian benefit of language proficiency, such as career-based opportunities or advancement at school (Dörnyei, 1990).

Dörnyei (1990) studied the components of motivation with 136 young adult learners of English as a second language (ESL) enrolled in one school in Hungary. Students were evenly classified based on the year of instruction; sixty eight were beginners and sixty eight were intermediate. The purpose of the study was to define the relevance and characteristics of integrativeness and instrumentality, and to try to determine other influencing factors typical in this context. Results indicated that both integrative and instrumental motivation significantly contribute to SLL. Dörnyei's findings indicate that learners with a high level of instrumental motivation and need for achievement are more likely than are others to attain an intermediate level of proficiency in the target language. Nevertheless, in order to attain proficiency beyond the intermediate level, a student would also have to be integratively motivated to learn the target language.

Gardner argued that because language was an integral part of culture, learning was dependent upon the learner's willingness to identify with the culture and incorporate aspects of the culture, including linguistic repertoire, into one's own personal behavior (Gardner et al., 1983).

Belmechri and Hummel (1998) conducted a study with 93 high school ESL learners in a monolingual context in Quebec City. The first purpose of this study was to find out which of the motivation (friendship, travel, knowledge, respect, and prestige) were the most important for these students learning French. Results indicated that the students' orientations were instrumental: to travel in general and to travel to anglophone areas, for school advancement in order to get a degree, in order to make friends, to acquire ideas and understand L2, and to succeed in a future career. Students wanted to learn French to travel and make friends, not for career advancement. These points out that depending on the context, students may be

instrumentally motivated, which means that even though they did not find students to be integratively motivated, they suggest studying that type of motivation in another context. Clement (1980), Dörnyei (1994 ; 1998), Gardner (1985), Gardner and Lambert (1972), Giles and Byrne (1982), Oxford and Shearin (1994), Schumann (1975) and Tremblay and Gardner (1995) found that integrative motivation was related to successful learning of French in some schools in Canada and in some schools in the United States, but instrumental motivation was related to the successful learning of English in the Philippines and other countries outside the mainland. In each context studied, there was a distinct attitudinal basis for the motivation.

3. AFTER INTEGRATIVE-INSTRUMENTAL DICHOTOMY

3.1. Self-efficacy

In the 1970s, there was a "greater focus on human behavior" (Weiner, 1990, p. 620) and attention was beginning to be focus on the self. The new direction competing for a dominant role in the 1970s was "the inclusion of the self" (Weiner, 1990, p. 621). Self-perception was already considered "as a detemimant of prior or future success and failure" (Weiner, 1990, p. 621). With constructs of additional self such as "self-actualization, self-concept, self-esteem, self-determination and self-focus, ... it is evident that the self is on the verge of dominating motivation" (Weiner, 1990, p. 622). In 1977, Bandura published an article proposing a theory of personal efficacy. In this article, self-efficacy is defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193).

Bandura's studies found that people feared and tended to avoid situations in which they perceived they could not accomplish a skill. When forced to perform that skill, individuals tended to be unsuccessful. Bandura found in his original and subsequent studies that self-efficacy influenced human behavior in three ways. First, cognitive decisions with regard to human action are influenced by self-efficacy. People will avoid things they do not feel self-assured in doing. Second, self-efficacy determines the level of energy. People put persistence into a task that engages them. Finally, self-efficacy influences a person's attitude toward a task. People with low self-efficacy tend to believe things are more difficult than they really are and subsequently create a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem.

The construct of self-efficacy evolved out of Bandura's cognitive model of behavior (1986) and has progressed into a theory in its own right (1997). Bandura sought to explain the origins, mediating mechanisms, and impact of beliefs on expectations of personal efficacy. The consequences of one's past behaviors significantly influence future behavior through the informative and incentive values of those consequences.

Macmillan, Simonetta and Singh (1994) developed a measure of student motivation based on the expectancy-value model of self-efficacy. The authors used ability perceptions and self-efficacy beliefs as the expectancy component and the importance of the learning task as the goal value. This Expectancy-value theory posits that goal directed behavior is a function of the expectations that performance is contingent on effort and its performance will determine

the outcome (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000 ; Sheppard & Taylor, 1999). The Expectancy-value theory has its consistent nature with the construct of self-efficacy and the supporting research for another theory. It also maintains that an "individual's choice, persistence and performance can be explained by their beliefs about how well they will do on the activity and the extent to which they value the activity" (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000, p. 68). A strong body of research supports the expectancy-value model of motivation. Eccles and her colleagues (Eccles, 1983 ; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995 ; Wigfield and Eccles, 2000) have conducted these major longitudinal studies investigating how students' expectancies for success, ability beliefs, and task values, change across school years.

3.2. Goal-setting

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) described the action sequence dimension which illustrates the process that learners experience when they engage in goal-setting behavior. Goal-setting appeared to influence students' motivation. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) surveyed 75 Canadian high school students who enrolled in French language courses. A month before the end of the French course, they administered a questionnaire consisting of a French Dominance Language Scale, and a measure of performance expectancy. Three weeks later they had students write an essay in French. Answers to the questionnaire and performance scores were analyzed using the structural equation modeling approach (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995, pp. 512-515). They found that goal-setting is a mediating variable between SLA and motivation. From their results, they concluded "that specific goals and frequent reference to these goals lead to increased level of motivational behavior" (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, p. 515). The result also shows that motivation enhances the L2 learners as a process of goal-directed behavior characterized by choice, initiation, direction, persistence and performance. Initiation implies that individuals make the commitment to implement their chosen set of actions. Direction indicates that individuals are taking certain actions toward some predetermined goal. Persistence, another integral part of goal-directed behavior, refers to the determination that people have to continue implementing their action plans in spite of difficulties and to achieve their goal.

In all of the explanations above, the concept of motivation involves aspects related to goals ; therefore, goal-setting must be a central component of motivation. That is, motivational enhancement interventions should focus on goals and the process involved in their generation, implementation, evaluation, modification, and achievement.

Teachers can also work on enhancing students' self-confidence during the goal-setting process. It focuses on developing students' self-regulatory skills "making students aware and knowledgeable about specific metacognitive skills as well as teaching how and when to use them" (Ames, 1987, p. 131). As students encounter difficulties in implementing their goals and executing their action plans, teachers can work with them to evaluate and modify their strategies.

Madden (1997) identified the components of a goal-setting approach for enhancing student motivation. According to Madden (1997), goal setting for the learner involves the establish-

ment of an objective to serve as the aim of one's actions.   Based on a review of related literature, Madden (1997) outlined the basics components of a goal-setting approach.   Madden (1997) surveyed 126 school teachers.   Seventy-eight of the 126 teachers reported using a goal-setting approach in their classrooms, and described the effects that this approach had on their students.   Madden (1997) concluded that an effective way to motivate students to learn is "the use of individual goal setting accompanied with appropriate feedback and teachers' support."

In the 1980s, issues pertinent to the educational psychologist dominated the field.   Goal-setting was, however, competing for that prime position.   Goal-setting "embraces the linked concepts of ego-involvement, competitive structure, social comparison as the indicator of success and ability attributions (as contrasted with task-involvement, cooperative structure, self-comparison) as the indicator of success and effort attributions" (Weiner, 1990, p. 620).

Covington (2000) discussed the evolution of the construct of goal-setting.   Covington posited that the construct of motivation evolved from being conceptualized as drives to an alternative view of motivation as goals that influence the quality and intensity of behavior. Goal-setting hypothesizes that "learning goals favor deep-level, strategic-processing of information, which in turn leads to increased school achievement" (Covington, 2000, p. 175).   This expansion of the motivational construct provides teachers and program administrators with greater insight into one of its variables that influence students' motivational behavior. Covington's findings have demonstrated students' reasons for choosing to study a second language and their attitudes toward their approach to goal setting.

In a pilot study, Griffee (1994) applied the goal-setting procedures described by Gorsuch (1991) to fifty second-year Japanese university students.   He focused on two questions : (a) "Can Japanese students studying in Japan articulate their own learning goals for a university level, general conversation course?" and (b) "What steps and procedures are helpful or necessary in student goal setting?" (Griffee, 1994, pp. 1-2).   Based on student response, Griffee (1994) concluded that "most Japanese students had some understanding of what goals and objectives are and how they function, that a small minority of students had absolutely no idea of what goals and objectives are and that the Japanese students found the idea of goal setting for a class new, difficult and even painful." (pp. 6-7).   Furthermore, he claimed that students tended to take an excessive amount of time to write unrealistic general goals rather than more realistic specific goals.   In short, it appeared that Japanese students understood what goals were and could set goals if they were inclined to do so.

Griffee's (1994) study centered on the question of the ability of Japanese university students to set goals.   However, this does not seem to be a point of contention in motivation research on goal-setting.   After reviewing studies done the United States, Canada, Australia, the Carribbean, England, Germany, Israel and Japan, Locke and Latham (1994) concluded that goal-setting appears to be applicable in different cultures because "purposeful action is characteristic of all human beings" (p. 16).   The question of whether or not Japanese university students can set goals is not an issue.   A more relevant issue is whether goal-setting influences the motivation of Japanese university students to learn and to improve their academic performance.   If goal-setting has been shown to be effective in enhancing student motivation and

academic performance in motivational studies, it is reasonable to assume that it would be effective in the university context as well.

3.3. The Self-determination theory

Deci and Ryan promoted from the Expectancy-value theory and goal-setting to the Self-determination theory. The types of motivation can be categorized in terms of learners' goal setting for performing an activity that is chosen freely by the individual : intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and amotivation. Extrinsically motivated behaviors are considered to be controlled by external constraints and less self-determined than intrinsically motivated ones.

In addition to intrinsic motivation (IM) and extrinsic motivation (EM), Deci and Ryan (1995) included a third motivational construct in their Self-determination theory, which was called amotivation. Amotivation refers to the situation in which people see no relation between their actions and the outcomes of those actions ; the outcomes are seen as arising as a result of factors beyond their control. Amotivated learners do not see any causal relationship between their behaviors and accompanying outcomes. Because the learners consider the causes of what happens to them as being outside of their control in the amotivated situation, they have no intrinsic or extrinsic reasons for choosing a task, but rather they anticipate stopping their task as soon as possible (Noels et al., 2000). Therefore, amotivated learners experience feelings of incompetence and lack of control.

As Figure 1 indicates, the three sub-constructs of IM are regarded as the most self-determined form of motivation, whereas amotivation is the least or non-self determined. IM, EM and amotivation lie on a continuum of self-determination, from amotivation, through external, introjected, identified, to the three types of IM. As described above, learners' goal setting to perform a task plays an important role in determining motivational patterns in
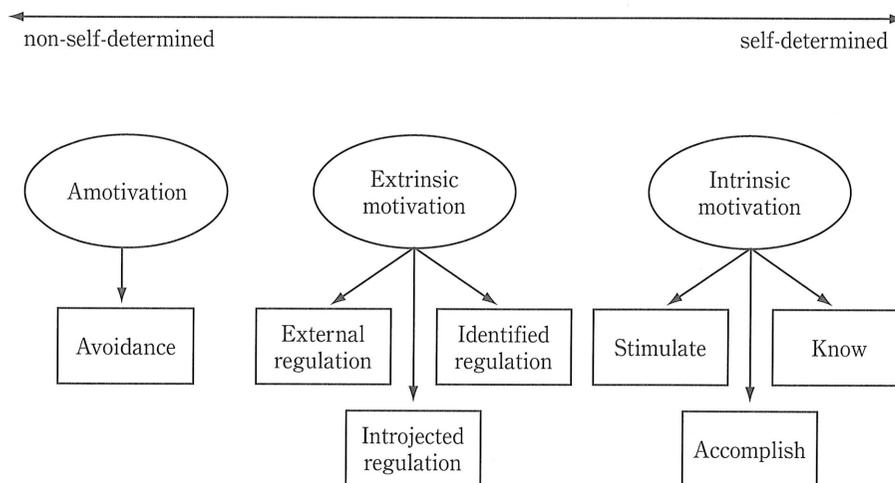

Figure 1. Motivational Sub-constructs Based on the Self-determination theory (Noels, 2001a, p. 49)

achievement situations in the Self-determination theory.

A study of 159 English-speaking students who learned French reported that the IM was positively and highly correlated with the friendship and travel reasons for learning L2 proposed by Clement and Kruidenier (1983). EM was positively correlated with the friendship and travel reasons, but it was not as high as IM. Therefore, the continuum of IM and EM provides a valid psychological mechanism. It is believed, according to Noels et al. (2000), that self-determination and perceptions of competence illustrates and predicts the relationship between motivation and learning outcomes by providing a developmental motivational construct in the learners' social environment than does the simple integrative versus instrumental motivational framework.

Consequently, the nature of students' motivation in the present study is related mainly to pragmatic reasons like getting marketability that is similar to the concept of instrumental motivation proposed by many previous studies (Clement & Kruidenier, 1983 ; Dörnyei, 1990 ; Gardner & Lambert, 1972 ; Shaaban & Ghaith, 2000 ; Wen, 1997). The studies by Shaaban and Ghaith included friendship and travel reasons into their concept of instrumental purposes. Therefore, their concept of instrumental motivation was broader than the one of Gardner and Lambert and the scope of extrinsic motivation for the present study.

Tachibana, Matsukawa, and Zhong (1996) compared students' motivation to learn English between Japanese and Chinese students. Japanese students who had higher achievement were not only self-determined but were more interested in English as a language itself, target culture and people. This interest resulted in an increased IM. Chinese students were, however, more extrinsically motivated towards the study of English, for they thought English would be important and necessary for their future career advancement. Even though their English achievements were excellent, Chinese students believed that more effort would result in a higher achievement, so they were never satisfied with their own scores. The findings with the Chinese students may reflect the values of the Chinese educational system in which memorization is valued and in such a process students have high achievement scores on both high school and university entrance examinations. Deci and Ryan (1985) stated that EM was superior when children were being introduced to learning knowledge and skills, which they had no interest to learn, especially in the education of children. Similarly, in SLL in formal classrooms, it may be necessary to use extrinsic incentives and controlling events to coerce students to learn L2 to develop IM.

3.4. The Socio-educational model

During the 1980's, motivational research in the area of individual differences was rapidly diminishing. From a situational perspective, Pintrich and Schunk (1996) claim that "self-efficacy beliefs... might fluctuate the individual's preparation on any given day, their physical condition, and affective mood, as well as external conditions such as the nature of the task and the social milieu" (p. 93). In fact, the construct of the Self-determination theory is incorporated into both personal and social expectancy." In social cognitive theory, a sense of personal efficacy is represented as prepositional beliefs" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). In short, self-efficacy is

one construct in social cognitive theory and these prepositional beliefs contribute to how people plan goals and execute courses of actions to achieve objectives. In this view, then, perceived competence includes both behavioral actions and socially cognitive skills necessary for performance in a specific domain.

SLL is a process whereby the individual becomes a member of a particular group and the sustaining motivation is one of group or ethnic membership. In the process, interpersonal and social motivation plays an important role. These social needs are known also as secondary or derived drives. To depict graphically the influence of the motivational factor with parallel to the Self-determination theory, Gardner designed the Socio-educational model, which approaches the process of SLA from a socio-cognitive perspective. The model not only illustrates the relationship of the motivational factor with other factors in SLA process but also identifies several motivational variables and how they influence SLL process. Gardner and his associates have provided a description of the sub-components of motivation, some of the major variables that influence it, and the relationship of motivation to other variables in the language acquisition process in the theory (Gardner, 1979; 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In the face of supporting and contradicting evidence of the explanatory power of the Socio-educational model, Au (1988) had meta-analyzed five studies on the integrative-instrumental motivation based on the major propositions stated by Gardner and his associates. They were:

1. The integrative motivation hypothesis-integrative motivation is positively related to SLA;
2. The cultural belief hypothesis-cultural beliefs within a particular milieu could influence the development of the integrative motivation and the extent to which the integrative motivation relates to SLA;
3. The active learner hypothesis-integratively motivated L2 learners achieve high L2 proficiency because they are active learners;
4. The causality hypothesis-integrative motivation is a cause; SLA and the effect;
5. The two-process hypothesis-aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in SLL (pp. 77-78).

Au (1988) then concluded that the model is incapable of generating concrete empirical evidence because there are ambiguities in causal relationships among variables for L2 success and conflicting results from studies have been emerged in different contexts. Indeed, research on the superiority of integrative versus instrumental motivation on SLL has produced mixed findings.

The model has changed from study to study because of changes in the socio-cultural context, variables investigated and other factors. However, "all of them indicate that a prime mediator in the language learning process is motivation" (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, p. 3). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) present a revised version of the Socio-educational model (see Figure 2).
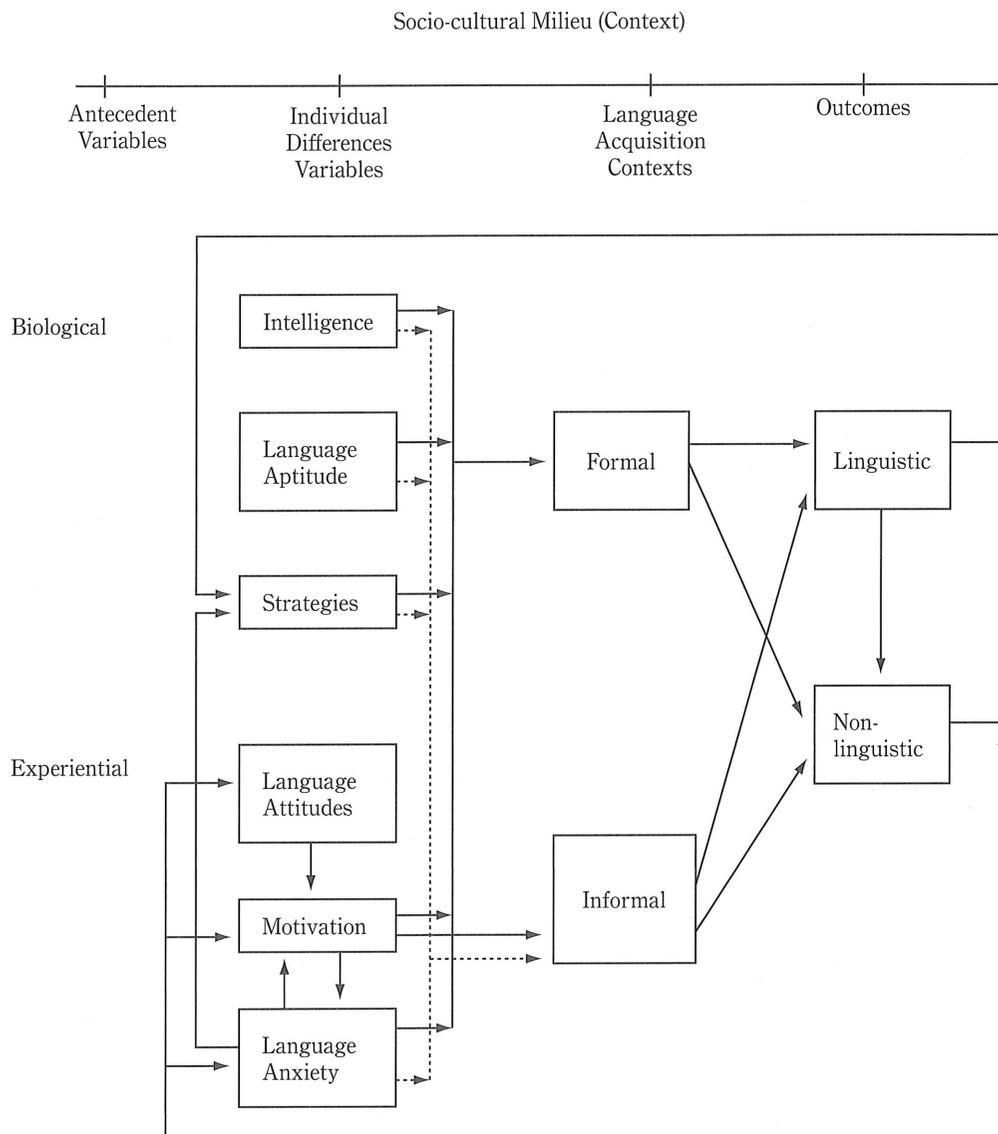
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Socio-cultural Milieu (Context)

Figure 2. Schematic Representation of the 1993 Version of the Socio-educational model of Second Language Acquisition (Gardner &. MacIntyre, 1993, p. 8)

　　　The components of the social-cultural milieu are antecedent factors, individual difference variables, language acquisition contexts, and outcomes.　These six individual difference variables were categorized as either cognitive variables or affective variables (language attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety).　The language learning strategies variable was added as an individual different cognitive variable.　The definition of language attitudes has been revised to include "any attitudinal variables [including intergrativeness and attitudes toward the learning

situation] that might be implicated in the language learning context" (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, p. 9). Motivation has been redefined as the "desire to attain a goal, [the] effort expended in this direction, and [the] satisfaction with the [learning] task" (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993, p. 2).

The integrative-instrumental dichotomous formulation based on this Socio-educational model inspired many subsequent studies and some of these supported the importance of the integrative motivation over instrumental motivation for successful SLL. In a series of articles, Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Oxford and Shearin (1994), and Dörnyei (1994) encouraged Gardner to include other motivation influencing variables in his construct of motivation of his model. Gardner and his associates accepted the challenge and included the direct influential variables of motivation. Although Gardner and Tremblay (1994) acknowledged that "the generalizations and recommendations made in all these articles are insightful and potentially valuable" (p. 362), they also emphasized that these suggestions need to be supported with empirical research. They accompanied the expanded motivational construct with an empirical study to show that there was a direct relationship between these variables and motivation. They initially identified integrativeness toward SLL as major variables that influenced the motivational factor in SLA. They depicted how these variables relate to the motivational factor in progressive versions of the Socio-educational model of motivation. Gardner also proposed the Socio-educational model that involves influences of another cultural group on the development of the integrative motivation.

Accepting this challenge, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) proposed an expanded motivational construct in their 1995 version of the Socio-educational model, accompanied by an empirical study in which they tested their hypotheses.

The expanded motivational construct incorporates goal salience, valence, self-efficacy, and adaptive attributions as motivational antecedent variables into the model (see Figure 3). The first motivation antecedent variable, goal salience, was based on goal setting. To test their hypotheses, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) administered test measures to 75 high school students taking French courses in a secondary francophone school in Northern Ontario. The model confirmed all of their hypotheses. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) also concluded "that higher levels of motivational behavior result when learning is valued" (p. 515). Finally, they claimed that their results supported findings from other studies where high self-efficacy was found to lead to high motivational levels (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, p. 515).

Moreover, the model emphasizes the causal relationships among (1) cultural beliefs arising from a social milieu, (2) motivation as a source of individual differences in SLL, (3) formal and informal learning situations, and (4) linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes. Therefore, the model signifies attitudes toward the L2 community and culture as determinants for success in learning the target language.
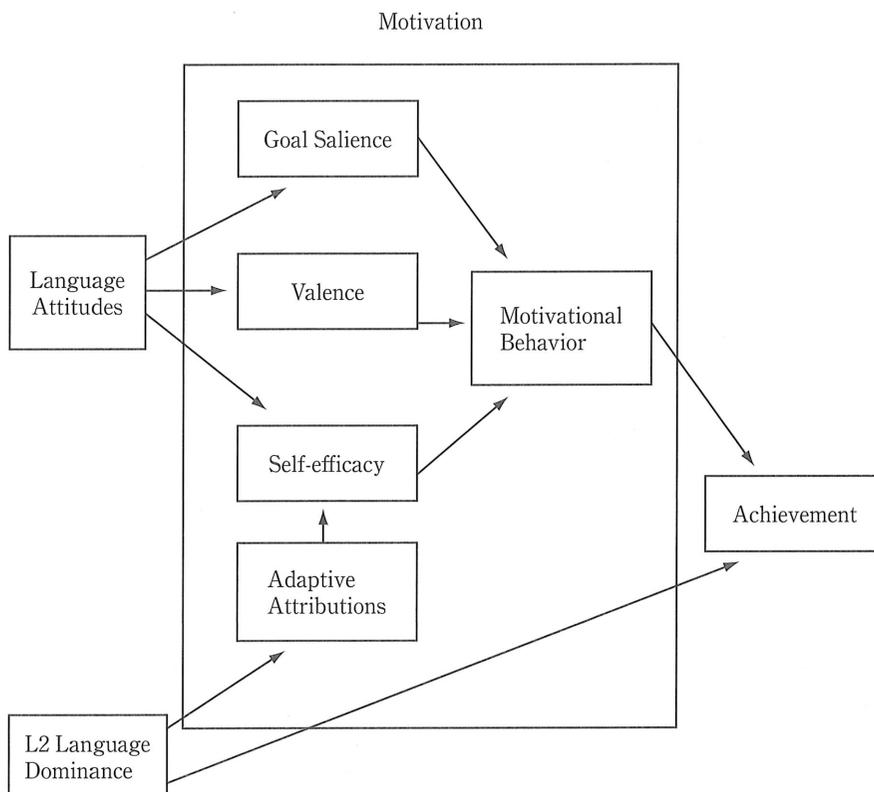
Motivation

Figure 3. The 1995 Version of the Socio-educational model of Second Language Acquisition (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, p. 510)

4. MOTIVATION AND CULTURE

Some L2 researchers have turned their attention to the potential utility of motivation theory derived from The Socio-educational model for understanding SLL motivation; yet, they still have not taken into account the various sub-types of motivation, such as Deci and Ryan's (1995) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, amotivation. Thus, there has been a lack of empirical research on effects of the new constructs of motivation on SLL. Likewise, learning L2 is a social phenomenon and is affected by social and contextual aspects. In addition, intercultural awareness (cognitive domain) and intercultural sensitivity (affective domain) enable language competence and reflect the outcome of language achievement (Kramsch, 1991). Thus, it is important to understand the role of culture in language learning and a relationship between the two constructs.

Recent research on intercultural sensitivity, defined in terms of stages of personal sensitivity growth to the importance of cultural differences and to the viewpoints about culturally different people, has focused on its relationship to intercultural communication competence (Bennett, 1993; Chen & Starosta, 1997; Wiseman, Hammer, & Nishida, 1989). Based on

previous research in this area, Bennett (1993) developed a model that describes the ways in which people understand cultural differences. Bennett considered intercultural sensitivity as a developmental process, in which a person moves from ethnocentric stages to ethnorelative stages. According to Chen and Starosta (1997), the components of Bennett's developmental intercultural sensitivity model are not differentiated from the concepts of intercultural communication competence. This conceptual ambiguity comes from the fact that Bennett's model requires not only the gradual change of attitude and cognition, but the behavioral ability to acquire intercultural sensitivity. Earlier, Wiseman, Hammer, and Nishida (1989) also used the cross-cultural attitude approach to discriminate among cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions of cross-cultural communication. From this approach, intercultural sensitivity may be defined as the ability to develop a positive attitude toward foreign culture.

Robinson-Stuart and Nocon (1996) suggested that the cross-cultural project influenced students' motivation. They employed ethnographic interview on techniques to teach university students to enhance their positive attitudes. The findings indicated that the cross-cultural project improved student attitudes toward the learning of Spanish as well as their understanding of their own culture and the culture of the Spanish community. They further noted that authentic direct experience of the target culture was needed for students' true culture learning. These studies show that there is a relationship among motivation, culture and language learning (Cummins, 1996 ; Dodick, 1996 ; Dörnyei, 1994 ; Ho, 1998). In fact, motivation and culture are considered to be interrelated to some extent. They suggested that SLA takes place in a cultural context. For example, the cultural attitudes regarding the importance and meaningfulness of learning the language may predict the nature of language skill development. However, depending on the cultural attitudes and individual differences such as intelligence, aptitude and anxiety, the achievement level of language proficiency in SLL is different. Thus, integrating cultural components in SLL process, such as showing films, playing music, and inviting native-speaking guests enhances students' motivation to learn L2 (Dörnyei, 1994).

By enhancing students' motivation and promoting positive cultural attitudes towards their target language cultures, teachers are able to empower individual learners through their language instruction methods. Therefore, based on the interwoven relationship between language and culture, it is clear that learners' cross-cultural knowledge and attitudes toward people speaking a target language motivate them to learn L2, or vice versa ; learners' motivation toward learning the target language can enhance their intercultural knowledge and attitudes.

Some present studies explore the interrelatedness among motivation, intercultural sensitivity and English achievement. English achievement was correlated significantly but negatively with amotivation. Wenn (1997) mentions that students' intrinsic motivation and social reasons for learning English, and their intercultural sensitivity are strong determinants of their English achievement. Noel's and other researchers' findings with respect to the significant and positive relationships of SLA to the intrinsic motivation and intercultural sensitivity, support the findings of many studies on the importance of intrinsic motivation and culture to achieve higher L2 proficiency (Noels, 2001b ; Noels et al., 2000 ; Prodromou, 1992 ; Ramage, 1990 ;

Robinson-Stuart & Nocon, 1996). Brown (1994) states that intercultural sensitivity is the emotional side of human behavior involving a variety of personality factors, feelings both about ourselves and about others with whom we come into contact.

5. CONCLUSION

Human behavior is considered too complex to study directly and not subject to experimental manipulation, which means deprivation. Motivation is still complex and has a multifaceted set of variables including pragmatic and social-emotional reasons for SLA. A lot of existing studies found that motivation varied among students in different course levels. L2 learners' motivation toward learning the target language can enhance their intercultural knowledge and attitudes. Therefore, different motivational components may have different characteristics and each may have an effect on language achievement. Their results support the generalization that motivation facilitates learning, and that both instrumentally motivated and integratively motivated subjects learned better than the subjects that were not so motivated. They also show that both integrative and instrumental types of motivation can influence second language learning and that any factor that motivates an individual to learn will result in successful acquisition. Dörnyei (1990) agrees that, besides instrumental and integrative motivation, there are other components that can influence SLL. Dörnyei (1990) also points out that depending on the context, students may be instrumentally motivated and "the absence of an integrative orientation here does not justify its exclusion in the assessment of motivation" (p. 581). This means that even though they did not find students to be integratively motivated, they suggest studying that type of motivation in another context.

It should be noted that intercultural sensitivity focuses on the affective dimension, as a part of intercultural communication competence. Furthermore, it is clear that interculturally sensitive individuals have a positive attitude to motivate themselves to understand, appreciate and accept cultural differences, and to produce a positive outcome from a cross-cultural context.

These review focused on the studies that explored two aspects of the affective domain in the language learning process: interpersonal and intercultural sensitivity. The findings of these studies also provide both theoretical insights and practical implications. Theoretically, these findings may help researchers understand better SLL motivation and the level of intercultural sensitivity among L2 learners. In addition, this study could provide useful information on motivation and culture to language teachers, curriculum developers, and textbook writers. An understanding that motivation and intercultural sensitivity are associated with students' achievement, will allow teachers to facilitate students' motivation and promote intercultural sensitivity to learn L2 better. Furthermore, teachers' recognition of these two affective variables, personal and social factors in language learning, can facilitate effective teaching methods and the development of relevant curricula.

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