

Florida State University Libraries

Electronic Theses, Treatises and Dissertations

The Graduate School

2004

The Effects of Gender, Major, and a New Socioeconomic Context on the Motivational Orientations of Chadian University EFL Students

Dogossou Houroumtcho



THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

THE EFFECTS OF GENDER, MAJOR, AND A NEW SOCIOECONOMIC
CONTEXT ON THE MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS OF CHADIAN
UNIVERSITY EFL STUDENTS

By

DOGOSSOU HOUROUMTCHO

A Dissertation submitted to the
Department of Middle and Secondary Education
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Degree Awarded:
Fall Semester, 2004

Copyright©2004
Dogossou Houroumtcho
All Rights Reserved

The members of the Committee approve the dissertation of
Dogossou Houroumtcho defended on October 22, 2004.

Elizabeth Platt
Professor Directing Dissertation

William Cloonan
Outside Committee Member

Frederick L. Jenks
Committee Member

N. Eleni Pappamihiel
Committee Member

Approved:

David Foulk, Chair, Department of Middle and Secondary
Education

The Office of Graduate Studies has verified and approved
the above named committee members.

Dedicated to:

My father Allamaye Dogossou Awrengta

My mother Haoua Tchenda Gagué

And

My sister Azleba Dogossou who left this world very
prematurely

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

An endeavor as important as a dissertation completion cannot be possible without the help of many people. I wish to pay my gratitude to the following people who accepted to be part of this challenging but rewarding process. I am particularly indebted to Dr Elizabeth Platt, my major professor, for her invaluable advice and support throughout my time at Florida State University. I would also like to thank Dr Frederick Jenks, for his encouragement and insightful guidance. I am equally grateful to Dr Eleni Pappamihel for her excellent assistance with the statistical and organizational issues in my dissertation. My gratitude also goes to Dr William Cloonan for accepting to be on my committee and for carefully checking the French version of the questionnaire. I am very appreciative of the assistance of Ms. Betty Brown for freely giving her time and talent to help me with the statistical analysis of the data. My many thanks go to the Fulbright Fellowship program and the US Embassy in Chad for making my dream become a reality.

This research would not have been possible without the contribution of some special people in Chad, the site of the study. I am particularly grateful to my friends Dr Massissou Nadab Hathoura, Félix Mbatalbaye, and Besba Tongpa Raoutouin who helped with the collection and shipping of the data for this dissertation. I would like to also thank the students at the University of N'Djaména in the departments of English and Business, and at the School of Engineering for participating in this research. Your collaboration is greatly appreciated.

I do not forget the support of my study group members Teresa Lucas, Semire Dikli, and Zeinab Abu-Samak whose warmth and sense of humor helped me deal with the difficulties of adjusting to a new place and a new educational system.

Finally, but most importantly, I wish to thank my family. I am immensely grateful for the sacrifice of my wife, Rachel Dagué Houroumtcho, who endured the rough constraints of student life with understanding and love. I am also thankful for my children Emmanuel, Josué, Bonté, Sabine, and Yannick who saw in my struggles a source of inspiration for their own educational achievements. Last but not least, I am forever indebted to my father, Allamaye Dogossou Awrengta, and my mother, Haoua Tchenda Gagué, who

knew nothing about school but made sure I got their love
and the necessary help to pursue my education.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables.....	ix
List of Figures	x
Abstract	xi
1. INTRODUCTION	1
The conceptual and theoretical framework	2
Linguistic background of the study	4
Social background and context of the study	5
Problem statement	6
Research questions	10
Purpose and significance of the study	10
Method of study	11
Summary	12
Delimitations of the study	12
Limitations of the study	12
Definition of terms	13
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	14
The language context	14
The oil project: A brief description	27
Human motivation: a Brief Overview of Definitions, Theories and Research	30
Second Language Motivation Research	33
Gender and Second Language Motivation	44
Orientations and Second Language Motivation	45
Summary	46
3. METHODOLOGY	47
Subjects	47
Sampling	50
Variables	50
Instruments	50
Pilot Study Report	61
Data collection	63
Scoring the questionnaire	63
Data Analysis	64
Summary	66

4. RESULTS	67
Motivational Orientations	69
Relations of gender and major on students' expectations of the oil project	72
Effects of gender, major, and oil project expectations on students'	
Motivational orientations	74
Summary	82
5. CONCLUSIONS	84
Summary and discussion of findings	85
Implications	89
Recommendations	90
APPENDICES	93
REFERENCES	121
BIOGRAPHICAL STKETCH.....	127

LIST OF TABLES

1. A comparison of the Socio-Educational Model, Attribution Theory, and Self-Determination Theory	43
2. Crosstabulation of data by major and by gender	68
3. Group statistics of the participants in the study by scale and major	69
4. Descriptive statistics of students' motivational orientations per major	71
5. Descriptive statistics of motivational orientations by gender	72
6. Frequency distribution of the OPE scale between "low" and "high" scores	76

LIST OF FIGURES

1. The socio-educational model of second language motivation	35
2. Self-Determination Theory	41
3. Profile plots of interaction between major and oil project effect on the Amotivation subscale.....	77
4. Profile plots of the interaction between major, oil project effect on the Extrinsic Motivation subscale	78
5. Profile plots of the interaction between major, oil project effect and the External Regulation orientation	79
6. Profile plots of the interaction between major, oil project effect and the Introjected Regulation orientation	80
7. Profile plots of the interaction between major, oil project effect and the Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation orientation	81

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the motivational orientations of Chadian university ESL students and how those orientations related to the subjects' perceptions of the recent oil project in Chad. It is hoped that the results of the study would add to our understanding of the role of external and internal factors that affect second/foreign language learners' attitudes. The study was based in the Self-Determination Theory which, arrays motivation along a continuum from Amotivation to External Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation.

This study used a questionnaire developed by Noels, Pelletier, & Clément (2001) to investigate language learners' motivational orientations and a self-developed questionnaire to assess the perceptions of the oil project underway in Chad by students in three majors: English, Engineering and Business. These subjects were randomly selected from the entire population of students enrolled at the University of N'Djaména and the School of Engineering (*Ecole Nationale des Travaux Publics*) in the three majors cited. These three majors were chosen based on their potential to be employed in the oil industry. Of the 400 questionnaires sent out, 208 were returned and 200 were usable.

The results of the study suggest that the majority of students indicated no sign of Amotivation (89%). Instead, almost 80% showed strong motivation to learn English regardless of the employment situation in the oil project. The one-way ANOVA analyses indicated that there was a significant relationship between the students' motivational orientations and their perceptions of the oil project. The tow-way ANOVA showed an interaction between major and oil project effect when Amotivation, External Regulation, Introjected Regulation and Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation where used as dependent variables.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The importance of motivation in human activity has been recognized in the field of social psychology and education for decades (Noels, Pelletier, & Vallerand, 2000). As far as second/foreign language learning is concerned, motivation is believed to be at least as important as language aptitude in predicting second language (L2) achievement (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Clement, 1990). The topic of motivation became a popular research topic in the field of second language acquisition with the publication of the work of Canadian psychologists Robert Gardner & W. E. Lambert in 1972. At that time, Gardner and Lambert posited two types of motivation in language learning: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation refers to the desire of the language learner to learn the language so that s/he can become a member of the speech community of the target language. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, refers to the situation of those learners who want to know the language so that they can have social benefits such as better jobs, higher salaries, etc. Other researchers developed other theories helping to expand the theoretical framework in L2 motivational research (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

In this study, motivation to learn English as a foreign language was investigated among college-level students in Chad Republic, Africa. Chad is a former French colony where French was kept as the official language of the country. There are over 130 local oral languages other than French and classical Arabic (SIL, 2000). From the independence of the country in 1960 up to 1986, French was the only official language and English was a compulsory subject taught in school from the sixth grade throughout high school. However, the 1986 Constitution made Arabic a co-official language and at the same time, gave students the freedom to choose between English and Arabic as a foreign language. Once chosen, Arabic or English became compulsory for the rest of the student's academic career

throughout high school. Yet, hundreds of students choose to continue to study English as their major in college as witnessed by the steadily increasing number of students enrolled in the English department every year (University of NDjaména, 2003). These students were the main target of this investigation.

For this study, I have chosen to use the self-determination theory. This theoretical framework fits the purpose of this study best because it assesses the explicit reasons why students decide to learn a foreign language. It makes motivation a cognitive decision instead of an affective variable as in socio-educational theory, for example. The target population of this study is a group of Chadian students who have made a conscious decision to learn English against all the odds of history and politics of this French-speaking country in Central Africa. Through this study I have learned what really motivates the students to put their time, money, and energy into the study of English. I have also discovered the role played by the current World Bank-backed oil project in the motivation of students to study English.

The Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

Traditionally, second language motivation has been mainly researched within one theoretical framework: the socio-educational model of Robert Gardner. In this model, Gardner & Lambert (1972) dichotomized motivation and posited that integrative motivation is a better predictor of second language proficiency because only such level of commitment can cause a language learner to put forth the necessary effort. They went so far as to claim that instrumental motivation will never cause a learner to be proficient above the "job-level" language. Since then, many studies have been conducted to assess the claims about the role of integrative and instrumental motivation in second or foreign language achievement among learners. However, the results of such studies have been mixed. Some empirical studies have supported the predominance of integrative motivation over instrumental motivation (Svanes, 1987), whereas others found very little supporting evidence or contradicted Gardner's claims and even found favorable argument for instrumental motivation (Pierson, Fu, & Lee, 1980; Oller, 1981). Dornyei (1990) for example, concludes that instrumental motivation is a stronger predictor of L2 achievement within "foreign language" contexts. The reason

he gives is that students learning a language in a "foreign language" context have too little contact with the target language community to have attitudes against or for the native speakers of the L2, which is the core of integrative motivation. However, Gardner has later argued that those two types of motivation are, in fact, not mutually exclusive. On the contrary, they might work together to help the learner achieve L2 proficiency (Gardner, 2001).

A similar dichotomy to the one above between integrative and instrumental motivation also exists between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan 1985). These scholars suggest, based on their self-determination theory, that L2 orientations can be broadly divided into three categories: intrinsic orientations, extrinsic orientations and amotivation. An important distinction is made between orientations and motivation. Orientation is the initial drive and it takes motivation to carry out orientations. For example, somebody may give reasons for studying a language but may not put forth the needed effort and persistence to actually learn the language (Gardner, 1985; 2001). Amotivation refers to the situation of a learner who feels obligated to learn a language for academic purposes other than his/her major (Noels, Pelletier, & Clément, 2001), and has no other interest in learning it. This framework is explained in more detail in Chapter Two.

Other theoretical frameworks have also been suggested, but have not received as much attention as Gardner's model. The Acculturation Model (Schumann, 1975), the Speech Accommodation theory (Byrne, 1982) and Weiner's (1984) Attribution theory are the most common. However, starting with the work of Crookes & Schmidt (1991) and Oxford & Shearin (1994), researchers in the field of L2 motivation were called upon to expand the theoretical framework beyond the Gardnerian dichotomy of integrative and instrumental perspective on second language motivation. Second language researchers were urged to look into related fields such as educational psychology and social psychology to see what they can offer in terms of theoretical frameworks of SLA motivation. The substance of the call is to avoid the quantitative, questionnaire-based research designs and to move toward more qualitative inquiry. That call seemed to have had a very favorable echo as many SLA scholars proposed and implemented several conceptual frameworks in the study of second/foreign language motivation (Ushioda, 1996a, 2001; Syed, 2001; Williams, Burden & Al-Baharna,

2001). One such different approach to the study of L2 motivation is the Self-Determination model mentioned above and more thoroughly discussed in the following chapter. Another distinction can be made between motivation as personal trait and motivation as social and contextual factor (Julkunen, 2001).

In the context in which I am currently considering motivation, it has to be defined as a social factor more than a personality trait, given the predominant cultural assumptions on the site of my study. It is generally assumed in the Chadian context that the individual exists for the group; personal happiness should take into account the group's happiness (Seeley, 1993). The students are pressured from outside as indicates the External Motivation in Self-Determination Theory. The oil project also presents a rich environment for Extrinsic Motivation. Therefore, the use of the self-determination model is well motivated in this particular context. The following gives a brief background of the students in the study (See Chapter 3 for details).

After seven years of English instruction, the students graduate from high school with different levels of achievement depending on whether they were in the Arts and Humanities section or the Science section. Above all, the proficiency level of the students would strongly depend on their motivation to learn the language. This is because the quality of the instruction and the lack of teaching materials equally affect students. Anecdotal evidence of this is always found in the students' scores on the national secondary school-leaving degree, Baccalauréat (thereafter Bac) where many students from the Science section perform better in English than those in the Arts and Humanities. Such a difference can be attributed, at least partially, to the students' motivation (see the discussion on subjects' background in Chapter Three). The rest can be explained by other factors such as student aptitude.

Linguistic Background of the Study

It would be difficult to fully understand foreign language learning motivation among Chadian learners of English without situating it in a broader linguistic picture. The colonization of Africa and Asia by European countries has created a unique situation in those former

colonies. One of the most visible consequences of that dark phase of human history is the imposition of European languages on the local populations. In fact, the languages of the colonizers have remained as official languages and languages of knowledge transmission in schools in independent colonies. Furthermore, the former colonies, especially in Africa, are to this date, referred to as English-, French-, or Portuguese-speaking, based on the nationality of their former colonizers (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1998; Brock-Utne, 2000). In the literature review, Chapter II briefly describes the language situation in selected countries in Africa and Asia, ending with the linguistic context in Chad and how it relates to the students' motivation.

Social Background and Context of the Study

As of 1999, a new socio-economic context has been developing in Chad. This new environment has to do with the decision of the World Bank to fund an oil project, arguably the most important investment in Sub-Saharan Africa at this time, representing over 3 billion US dollars of investment (Wall Street Journal, June 24, 2003). The oil project is being carried out by a consortium of three companies: the American EXXON (renamed ESSO), Chevron, and the Malaysian Petronas. Apart from their common business goals, these three share a common medium of communication, the English language. This sudden presence of English in a financially critical project is a wake up call for a population used to French, the colonial language that has survived as the country's official then co-official language. Needless to say, the oil project is seen as a major opportunity for the eight million people of this poor country to achieve a minimum level of social well-being. This social relief is expected to happen through the government use of the oil money to increase salaries and create much needed jobs but also through the direct employment of qualified people in the oil project. In this context the ability to perform in English is considered as a huge advantage for employment. Therefore, people would strive to learn English more than before, supporting the instrumental or extrinsic motivation scenario. From a mere academic subject taught in school, suddenly, English has almost become a means of social promotion through better job and better salary opportunities. The popularity of the project among Chadians is reportedly high, but because no investigation has been conducted, there is no empirical evidence to rely on.

Therefore, the present research project included an item (Item OS10) about the extent to which the project is common knowledge among the school population as well as the level of hope it might have created.

Some things need to be born in mind about the particular context of this study as they influenced its design and analysis. The first thing is the rarity of female students at the higher education level in Chad. With the exception of departments such as English, French, and Arabic where a reasonable number of females can be found, the other majors, especially science majors, have very few female students. Although I originally included gender as a major variable, there were too few women responding to the survey to consider gender a major variable except in a few circumstances. The other thing to add about this context is the general lack of a research culture in the university context using students as research subjects. As a consequence of this culture, it was more difficult to make the students understand the importance of such a study for them. This, however, did not influence the design of the study.

Problem Statement

Early in this paper, it was mentioned that the importance of motivation in second or foreign language acquisition has been acknowledged for decades (Noels, Pelletier, & Vallerand, 2000). It is believed to be at least as important as language aptitude for predicting L2 achievement (see Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Clement, 1990 for a review). The learning context of the second language is another important factor in L2 acquisition. Historically, some languages were imposed on people of other linguistic, social and cultural backgrounds as languages of vital information transmission (Philipson, 2000; Hall & Eggington, 2000, Fardon & Furniss, 1994). The consequence of this imposition of those imposed European languages is that they generally face resistance (Canagarajah, 1999; Punchi, 2001). However, the people who were first forced to learn those colonial languages, now voluntarily engage in learning them as weapons against their former masters back in the days of the independence struggle, or for personal and national development today (Katupha, 1994; Malumba, 1993; Alexander, 2000). Because of this historical fact, the motivation to learn another colonial language in a country like Chad has to be understood in light of the

global language picture and the quest for socioeconomic development.

Language Situation and L2 motivation

As mentioned above, the linguistic situation in Chad is characterized by the co-existence of more than one hundred local languages along with French and Arabic, the co-official languages, and English, the foreign language taught as a subject from sixth grade. It is important to remember that even though French is officially downplayed as an associate official language (Constitution 1986), in practice, it is the language of the government business and the only language of instruction in public schools including kindergarten. English is absent from the official discourse on language policy and is only taught as a "langue étrangère" (Malumba, 1993). As for local languages, none of them is taught in the school system at all, not even to develop initial literacy.

Given the linguistic context in Chad as depicted above on one hand, and the difficult socioeconomic situation of the country on the other hand, students could be motivated by what they perceive as an economic asset that comes with the acquisition of the foreign language. Therefore, they would be extrinsically or instrumentally motivated. Presumably, they would have extrinsic motivation because, "both the integrative and instrumental orientations are extrinsic in that the language is acquired to achieve goals" (Noels, 2001). Viewed from this perspective, Chadian learners of English could fall under extrinsic motivation and maybe amotivation but very few were expected to show intrinsic motivation if any. The language picture in the country portrays a considerable socio-economic advantage linked to European languages (Hall & Eggington, 2000). Therefore, it can be presumed that learners in such contexts will strive for a language that brings personal material well-being. Major and gender were also expected to prove significant in students' reasons to learn English as a foreign language (see Chapter 2 for details).

Language Situation and Development

There are several kinds of development that can be situated at the individual's level as well as at the community or national level. In this section I am interested in socio-economic development both at the individual and the national level. Some scholars do not

consider socio-economic development as the only and sufficient form of development (Schumacher, 1973; Bamgbose, 1994). When it comes to the relationship between linguistic picture and development, it has been assumed that multilingualism was a hindrance to development whereas monolingualism was a positive factor. In the same vein, Banks & Textor (1963) went so far as to equate multilingualism with economic difficulty and monolingualism with economic wellness. However, in a study conducted five years later in 141 countries, Fishman (1968b) found no correlation between the linguistic situation in a country and its level of socioeconomic development.

As a contributor in Fardon & Furniss' edited book, *African languages, development and the state*, Bamgbose (1994) also rejected Bank & Textor's claims and suggested that language should never be blamed for a nation's low economic achievement. The problem, therefore, is not so much language as it is literacy. Bamgbose (1994) goes on to claim that it is not so hard to prove the role of literacy in economic development. The world's poorest countries are also the countries with the highest rates of illiteracy whereas "countries with the highest rates of literacy are also the most economically advanced" (Bamgbose, 1994, p. 38).

The consequences of the linguistic map in Chad on the socioeconomic development of its people as individuals and the country as a whole are evident. As in all other former colonies, the institution of European languages as media of knowledge transmission and social and economical status achievement has led to the creation of two categories of citizens: those who speak the European languages and enjoy all the benefits attached to them, and the other less fortunate who did not have the luxury of learning those languages (Malumba, 1993; Alexander, 2000). Conducting the countries' business in colonial languages has favored the existence of a small layer of people generally referred to as *élites* or *les évolués* (Malumba, 1993). These people are the only ones to experience some degree of socioeconomic development. Among those, a new class is emerging; that includes those who learned a second European language, namely English. They are a very small number but have achieved a social status very much envied around the country. This is the case of those who had the fortunate fate of getting a job with American-related agencies such as the US Embassy, the USAID (closed in 1996), Peace Corps

(closed in 1997 but about to reopen soon), and NGOs such as VITA. They represent the category that eventually will fuel the younger generation of Chadians' motivation to learn English. The other group of English speakers who hold government jobs (mostly teachers) are not part of this closed circle described above as they share the same fate with the rest of the civil servants, that of being underpaid.

The language policy in Chad with its promotion of foreign languages in lieu of local languages has created an environment detrimental to national development but not so bad for individual promotion. The vast majority of the Chadian population is caught on the wrong side of the illiteracy wall, therefore unable to tap the resources that would have boosted national development. The acquisition of European languages is discriminatory by nature as it has never been the colonizers' will to teach it to all the population. They wanted a handful of local people to handle second-class jobs while they took care of more valuable business (Canagarajah, 1999). Therefore, at the national level, the linguistic situation in Chad is not conducive to socio-economic development as witnessed by its low *per capita* GDP of \$ 250 (BEAC Report 2002). Development plans are drawn in foreign languages, never translated into local languages to rally the support of the overwhelming majority of the population. However, at the individual level, people do benefit from the acquisition of those foreign languages as mentioned earlier. The only problem is it has been proven elsewhere in Africa that European languages can only achieve horizontal integration (élites among themselves) and not vertical integration that is, élites and the rest of the population (Katupha, 1994; Benjamin, 1994).

As a consequence of this situation, people who want to achieve some kind of well-being have no choice but to learn foreign languages. Just because it does not benefit national development does not mean that individuals will refrain from taking advantage of this linguistic capital. It was French and the question now is whether English is becoming another preferred tool of social promotion and whether Chadian university students perceive it as such. An affirmative answer to the latter question would have consequences for the teaching of English, which, will need to be taught as it is perceived, that is, as a tool.

Research Questions

The following research questions were asked in this study:

- 1) What is the effect of major and gender on the motivational orientations of Chadian university students to learn English as a foreign language?
- 2) What is the effect of major and gender on students' expectations regarding the oil project?
- 3) What is the effect of major, gender, and oil project on students' motivational orientations?

As a result of the fact that so few women participated in the study, gender was altogether omitted as a variable in Question 3.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the reasons why Chadian students choose to continue to learn English beyond the years of academic requirements, which ends at the end of high school. I want to see if there are any relationships between the students desire to learn English and the new economic environment created by the EXXON-led oil project in the country since 2000.

Any study has to benefit the participants and the field in which it is conducted. In other words, it has to make a contribution to interested parties. It is also one of the most difficult objectives to achieve. I claim that my study benefits the students and the educational system of Chad in the following ways. It first benefited the students who were the target population of the study in that it helped them realize what really motivates them to learn a foreign language such as English despite the fact that it is not an important element of the everyday language picture in their environment. In other words, the study showed how the students' perceived benefits of a learning situation might sustain their will to learn. For the educational authorities, the results of such a study may encourage them to create better syllabi and implement better language policies. It showed to a certain degree how important external factors influence the students'

classroom behaviors. For the field of SLA in general, such a study closed a long standing gap, that is, the lack of data on second/foreign language learning motivation from sociocultural backgrounds other than Western and North American contexts (Noels, 2001). Also, L2 motivation has seldom been addressed within the self-determination framework (Noels, 2000). This would be, to my knowledge, the first study to come out of Central and West Africa that investigates the students' motives for studying English as a foreign language based on a perceived extrinsic incentive.

Method of Study

Motivation to learn a second language has from the beginning been studied through quantitative methods. This seems a priori contradictory as motivation is something that can be unstable as well as deeply personal. I did not depart from the majority of the studies in motivation as far as research methods are concerned. I considered a survey of students in the highest institution of education in Chad to be able to generate the necessary data for the study. My target group was students registered at the main university in Chad, the University of Ndjaména, in the departments of English and Business and students at the School of Engineering (ENTP).

The traditional instruments of investigation in second/foreign language learning motivation have primarily been surveys and self-reported questionnaires (Gardner, 1985; Clement & Kruidenier, 1983; Julkenen, 2001). Responding to the call by Oxford & Shearin (1994), more instruments such as loosely structured interviews have also been used, stemming from qualitative perspectives on language learning motivation (Ushioda, 2001).

This study used an existing instrument developed for studying motivation and adapted some items to make them fit the specific purpose of this study. I primarily used adapted questionnaires by Noels, Pelletier, & Vallerand (2000; 2001). The theoretical framework within which this study was conducted is the Self-Determination model (Deci & Ryan, 1985) mentioned above. I was interested in the third stage of self-determination (identified regulation), which is defined as "important to achieve another goal" (Noels, 2001, p. 48). I argue, based on this category of the Self-Determination theory, that the students would determine for

themselves the importance of learning English in this new era to fulfill their main goal of getting a better job.

Summary

In summary, in this section was described a situation where European languages, though spoken by a handful of people, are required for development actions. From undisputed supremacy, the French language in Chad is now facing a slow but firm challenge from English (Suleiman, 1999). The main reason for this emergence of English is of course its general spread as an international/global language (Hall & Eggington, 2000; Alexander, 2000; Malumba, 1993, etc.) but also, I believe, the advent of the World Bank-backed oil project, the biggest in Sub-Saharan Africa (Wall Street Journal, June 24, 2003). Hundreds of high school graduates apply each year to study English in the English department of the main university of the country, University of NDjaména. Others sit for the Teachers' College entrance exam to become middle and high school English teachers. In light of all the above, it was important to find out about their reasons to continue to learn English, another colonial language.

Delimitations of the Study

It was the researcher's decision to limit the present investigation to tertiary level (college level) in Chad only. Even though students now have a choice between English and Classical Arabic as a foreign language to study from middle school throughout high school, English probably remains a mere subject learned for academic requirements more than anything else. A study of middle or high school students' motivational patterns would certainly yield some interesting insights but probably no definite decision as why they would choose to learn English as the major field of study in higher education. This is in tune with Dornyei's (1996) claim that "job-related motives are unlikely to be a relevant concern among school pupils learning foreign languages" (p. 76).

Limitations of the study

Like any study, this one has its limitations. One important limitation for the present study was the fact that it used a questionnaire and was not supplemented by interviews or focus groups for more in-depth exploration of

students' orientations. Likewise, it did not look at motivation for other languages. The study is also limited in that it focused on one specific socioeconomic context and therefore may only be generalizable to countries with similar historical, economic and demographic backgrounds as Chad. Last but not least, the small number of female respondents also proved to be a limitation for this study.

Definition of Terms

Orientations: the reasons that a second/foreign language learner gives for justifying their learning of the language. Orientations are generally distinguished from motivation, which they precede (Gardner, 1985; Noels, 2001).

Motivation: the state of mind, the drive that causes something or someone to do something. The energy source that stimulate someone to undertake, pursue and achieve an activity; here, the learning of the English language. "Motivation refers to an internal process that pushes or pulls the individual" (Ferguson, 2000, p. 1).

Self-determination: conscious decision made to undertake an activity one believes is or is not in tune with one's own best interests. Motivational theory that explains why people choose what they choose to do (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Self-determination theory is a continuum that includes amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation.

Development: in this study, the concept of development is understood as the improvement of social conditions of living at the individual or national level.

Language picture: the language situation, the linguistic map of a country. How the language question is dealt with, under what historical accounts and what language policies are implemented.

EFL students: English as a Foreign Language students. This acronym is used for students who learn English in the context where the language is not the first or official language of the target community.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter I review the literature deemed relevant to the topic of Second/Foreign language motivation. First, a brief overview of the linguistic, social and economic context of relevant places will be presented. Then, I will precisely give an overview of how motivation as an object of research in the field of social psychology and education evolved from human motivation to second/foreign language motivation. This chapter has six sections. The first section deals with the linguistic context in Africa, Chad, and comparable countries in the world. The second section discusses human motivation in general. It reviews the different theories of human motivation and their respective interpretative paradigms. The third section reviews motivation in education, pointing out the most popular approaches. The next section reviews motivation in the field of second/foreign language acquisition and its different models with an emphasis on the self-determination theory. The fifth section will discuss the role of gender in second language motivation. Finally, the last section discusses the role of orientations in L2 motivation.

The Language Context

There are about 6,000 languages in the world. Of all those languages, only 11 have achieved a privilege either as international languages because of their perceived economic or diplomatic importance, or because they have a very large number of native speakers (UNESCO Report, 1999). Some other languages have achieved notoriety because of the historical role of their speakers in enterprises such as the colonization of other people and other languages. English, French, Spanish, Portuguese are the most prominent among those languages. The area of dominance for such languages is the African continent and some parts of Asia. Believed to bring unity (Bamgbose, 1991), the languages of the former colonizers were accepted in lieu of African languages as media of instruction and official languages.

In this section, I will briefly describe the role of those languages where they subsisted as official or co-official languages. I will emphasize the situation in Africa where countries are still known as French- English- or Portuguese-speaking (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1998).

English-speaking Africa

As mentioned earlier, colonization is the reason why some European languages were imposed in Africa as official languages or languages of wider communication. The British system of rule in colonies was different from that of other colonizers especially the French. Known as the "indirect rule and the dual mandate", under the instigation of the famous Frederick Lugard (Pennycook, 2000), the British colonial administration ruled through the existing structures of African local chiefdoms and kingdoms. Initially, they were not in favor of imposing the English language on indigenous people. Actually, in 1925, the British Education Commission for East Africa "recommended the 'promotion' of Kiswahili as a medium of primary education throughout the British East African territories" (Blommaert, 1994, p. 216). However, the end result was that English turned out to be the official language of all the former British colonies and is there to stay. Therefore, in the following lines, I will depict the role of this language in the countries where it is a dominant language, highlighting the situation in Tanzania, South Africa, and Nigeria.

Tanzania. Tanzania is cited as an example of African linguistic nationalism. Under the leadership of Julius Nyerere, a former schoolteacher who became the first president of independent Tanzania, Tanzanians undertook the Swahilization of education and politics. Swahili or Kiswahili was the medium of instruction through high school. After the Arusha Declaration of 1967, Kiswahili was seen as a motor of national development and as the language of liberation and Africanhood. There was an open opposition to English, the language of the colonizer. However, the failure of patriotic programs such as Ujamaa (Freedom) and Elimu ya Kujitegemea (Education for self-reliance) due to economic difficulties prompted a change of attitude towards English which was needed to garner the support of international economic powers such as Britain and the United States (Mulokozi, 1986; 1991). The most visible failure of the Africanization of Tanzanian life through

Kiswahili was the fact that it never got to be introduced in higher education in Tanzania. The war between English and Kiswahili ended in favor of the former language, leaving Kiswahili for social and non-official communication. However, it is the medium of communication in some secondary schools and colleges in Rwanda and Burundi (Ntakirutimana, 2000).

Recent efforts by Tanzanian sociolinguists are aimed at empowering Kiswahili as a "medium of communication in the Great Lakes Region (Kishe, 2003, p. 1). Several measures are proposed to make this language an effective of development. Despite such determination, "[I]t is a reality that the major means of communication in most African states are European languages where they dominate all the formal and technical domains such as government, business administration, science, technology, trade, commerce, international relations and education (Eastman, 1991 as cited in Kishe, 2003).

South Africa. In South Africa, the linguistic situation is different for reasons related to the socio-historical context in which this nation came to exist. As in most countries in Africa, many native languages are spoken in South Africa (about 30 according to Ethnologue.com). However, because of the politics of Apartheid (separate development) instituted by white settlers, Afrikaners, no African language had an official use. Instead, only English and Afrikaans were elevated to the privileged status of official languages. The attempt by the South African Apartheid government to 'develop' African languages met stiff resistance by ANC and South African blacks as the government never really intended to develop those languages into languages of wider communication, but to limit them to use within the African family (Cluver, 1991). African leaders perceived this maneuver by the government as a subtle way to keep black people away from technological and economic advantages that could only come through the official languages. Moreover, this language policy by the South African government was rejected because Africans themselves were not participants in this important decision (Brown, 1988). Linguists are not unanimous about the mother tongue principle. Alexander (1989) and Meerkotter (1985) argue in favor of English as potential for national unity fostering whereas Reagan (1985) claims that the mother tongue principle is beneficial to black South Africans. The situation in post apartheid South

Africa is not very different as far as the relationship between English and African languages are concerned. The Apartheid government, led by the National Party, made a conscious and systematic effort: a) not to teach the official languages (English and Afrikaans) to Africans above the point where they could be able to understand the instructions given by their white bosses; and b) not to allow Africans to mingle and learn each other's languages by 'repatriating' blacks to rural areas, the so-called 'homelands' (Pezzler, 1966).

In post-Apartheid South Africa, however, the language policy has changed considerably; at least in theory. There are now 11 official languages of which 9 are African languages. These are Zulu, Xhosa, Swazi, Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho, Tswana, Ndebele, Tsonda and Venda (Maake, 1994; Ridge, 2000). However, practically, English but also Afrikaans are still the most dominant and one needs to possess a solid command of at least one of them to be successful economically and politically. This is clearly stated in Deisa's (2000) imaginary conversation with an imagined South African audience. In this imaginary dialogue he keeps begging for a better role for African languages and the audience keeps giving reasons why English was the language of choice. Despite the creation of PANSLAB (Pan South African Language Board) whose main objective is the development of multilingualism based on the 11 official languages, African languages have yet to show the popular support needed to change them from their current peripheral use to the status of an official language with all the underlying privileges. Traditionally, there have been struggles between native speakers of English and Afrikaans who view each other's language as the dominating language, up to the 1820s for English and the apartheid era for Afrikaans. Sensing the dominant role of English, Afrikaans speakers side with African language speakers to denounce the hegemony of English (Ridge, 2000).

Nigeria. Nigeria has the largest population in Africa with more than 100 million people. Some 400 languages are spoken in this country, representing 20% of Africa's 2000 languages (Elugbe, 1994). As a matter of fact, Nigeria belongs to what is known as the Fragmentation Belt, "a zone of extreme linguistic complexity stretching from Senegal to Ethiopia" (Dalby, 1977, p. 6 as cited in Elugbe, 1994). Elugbe goes on to explain that the language policy in Nigeria is to encourage multilingualism. Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba, the three major languages of Nigeria are also

recognized by the 1979 Constitution as national languages and can be used along with English in conducting business in the National Assembly. At the educational level, students are allowed to be taught in their mother tongue or the language of the immediate community and at a later stage, English (Elugbe, 1994). At the Junior Secondary School level (Middle School), students are taught a language of their own area in addition to one national language. At Senior Secondary School level, equivalent to American High school, any Nigerian language is recommended as one of the core subjects to be offered. In practice, however, "English which remains the official language, allows Nigeria to communicate with the outside world and, above all, remains (along with Nigerian Pidgin) the only neutral language to which all Nigerians can relate" (Elugbe, 1994, pp. 64-65)

In the rest of English speaking Africa, with the exception of Tanzania, English is the unchallenged official language, endorsed by the different constitutions of those countries.

French-speaking Africa

Contrary to the British, the French exercised direct rule in their colonies, which they call '*Territoires d'Outre-Mer*'. The French never made a secret of their intention to assimilate the colonized, indigenous people. This state of affairs is encapsulated in the following words by Pierre Alexandre (1972 as quoted in Igue & N'Oueni, 1994):

Only one language is taught in the schools, recognized in law courts, and used in administration: French, as defined by the opinions of the Academy and the decrees of the minister of public education. All other languages belong to the realm of folklore, dancing around the maypole, and riding hobbyhorses are signs of disintegration of the French Republic (p. 56).

As already mentioned for South Africa in English-speaking Africa, French-speaking Africa has its exception in the group of Arab countries known as Maghreb which include Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria. Maghreb countries are less linguistically diverse than the rest of Sub-Saharan Africa which comprises all the other Francophone countries of Africa.

Maghreb (Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). In the first group of countries, Maghreb, French is not officially the official language but Arabic, "linked to the assertion of Arab-Islamic identity" (Gill, 1999, p. 123). Official speeches praise Arabic or bilingualism but no practical provisions were made to accommodate even the highly Arabic-educated citizens of those countries (Gill, 1999). Arabic became a synonym of tradition and French was equated to modernity. To put it in the words of Gill (1999), the populations of these countries had to come to the sad deduction that "if French had to be kept on as the key to social progress, Arabic must stand for the past, for nostalgia, for a warm but backward-looking sense of authenticity" (Gill, 1999, p. 125).

Benin. In another Francophone country of Africa, Benin (formerly Dahomey), the linguistic situation is no different from the other French-speaking African countries. Benin has fifty languages of which the most popular are Fongbe, Dendi and Mina, which were already lingua franca before the colonial period (Igue & N'Oueni, 1994). The Beninois military regime of 1972 had the merit of adopting a language policy which was in favor of African languages (Igue & N'Oueni, 1994). Different departments and ministries were created in rapport with the new intentions of giving African languages a significant role in the development of the country. Unfortunately, the authors conclude, "yet the results obtained some twenty years later clearly indicate that the advance of French - as both the official language and the only language accepted in public life - has been little affected" (Igue & N'Oueni, 1994, p. 58).

Zaire. Zaire, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) of today, is one of the very few Francophone countries on the African continent to be colonized by French-speaking Belgium. The second largest country in Africa after Sudan, Zaire/DRC has 219 languages. Other sources mention higher numbers (Mulamba, 1993). Of those, 218 are living languages and 1 is extinct. The diversity index is 0.92 (SIL, 1999). This means that the DRC is a highly multilingual country. Although national languages such as Lingala, Kongo, Luba-Kasai, and Congo Swahili are spoken by the majority of people, none of them became an official language. However, unlike many other African countries, national languages are

taught as subjects in public schools, including at the university level. There too, French is declared the '*mal nécessaire*' (necessary evil) (Nyembwe, 1987), the official language of the country and only the mastery of this medium opens the door to much needed salaried employment.

English is not in the official language debate in the country. It is taught in secondary schools as a subject and is used as a medium of instruction in the English departments at universities and in higher education professional institutions. However, it is slowly but surely emerging as a serious challenger to French (Mulamba, 1993). The degeneration of the socioeconomic situation in Zaire pushes French-educated intellectuals into the arms of English, which, they hope, will open for them the doors to better opportunities in neighboring English-speaking countries, namely, South Africa.

Comparable parts of the world

Under this section, I will overview the language question in countries which had similar fates as African ones on the linguistic plane. These will be India, Sri Lanka, and Cambodia.

India. India has one of the largest populations in the world. Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Panjabi, Sanskrit, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu and Urdu are national languages. English has the status of Associate Official language (SIL, 1999). It is the most widely spoken second language (Hohenthal, 2003). The principal official language of India is Hindi which is spoken by more than 250 million people. As in most Third World countries, the language situation in India is very complex. 58 languages are taught in schools. Indian students are trilingual by the time they leave school, speaking Hindi, English and a third language which could be the mother tongue or the regional language. India's constitution guarantees the right of all citizens to communicate in their own language with any governmental agency (Bonvillain as cited in Hohenthal, 2003). English is not the only European language spoken in India. Portuguese and Russian are spoken by a good number of people. However, none of them is nearly as popular as English. The relationship between English and the local languages is generally peaceful. Hindi speakers are among those who oppose English because they see it as a threat to

the dominance of their own language. The speakers of other Indian languages, however, welcome English as a neutral medium of communication among the 16 states/regions of India. The same people who support English also oppose Hindi as the principal official language. That is why there is no single national language in India (<http://www.abhishek.mybravenet.com>). Despite its less official status, English remains a powerful medium of communication in India. It is also the language of socioeconomic promotion, "a window on the world, and a link language" (Kachru, 1986c, p. 136). Therefore, English is in good shape in the old and on-going opposition between Orientalism¹ and Anglicism in India (Hohenthal, 2003).

Sri-Lanka. Sri Lanka is another developing country on the Asian continent with a language situation similar to those described in this section. English was introduced in Sri Lanka when the country became a British colony in 1815. English was the official language there until the independence of the country in 1948. The then socialist government of independent Sri Lanka chose local languages as official ones (<http://www.lonelyplanet.com>). Therefore, Sinhala and Tamil became official languages of Sri Lanka with the medium of instruction in schools usually being one or the other language. English is taught as an optional subject in Years 4-5 and as a compulsory subject in Years 6-11. Although English serves as a link language or lingua franca, the mass of the population does not use it as a medium of communication in its normal daily activities. No other European language is disputing supremacy over English in this Asian island (<http://www.ibe.unesco.org/International/Databanks/Dossiers/isrilank.htm>).

I would like to end this general overview of language situation in select developing countries with the case of Cambodia. There are 6 languages listed for the Ethnologue Report on Cambodia (SIL, 2000). The official language is Khmer, also known as Cambodian. French was the dominant European language until the 1990s when English emerged as a challenger.

¹ Orientalism: Trait, quality, culture, or life style of Eastern people.

² Anglicism: This term is routinely opposed to Orientalism. It depicts the life style of the British, especially the adoption of the English language as language of wider communication.

Thomas Clayton (Clayton, 2002) gives a sound description of language policy in Cambodia. No conflict between the local languages is reported in the study. However, a clear animosity between supporters of French and English as media of instruction is perceptible at the higher education level. Clayton reported the case of the students at a technical college who were demonstrating to have the right to be instructed in English instead of French. Some students went so far as to use the money paid by the *Cooperation Francaise*, the French aid fund to pay for English courses in private institutes (Clayton, 2002). The students in that institution of higher education were claiming the right to receive education in English based on their perceived usefulness of this language (Hall & Eggington, 2000). Being surrounded by all English-speaking countries, those students felt that they had a better chance of getting a good job with a sound knowledge of English than French. This is a proof of how social environment influences students' motivation to learn or dislike a foreign language. This conflict between French and English in Cambodia is emblematic of the struggle between these two languages in my native Chad, even though probably to a greater degree.

Chad

Chad is a vast territory of 1,284,000 square kilometers situated in the center of Africa. On this big piece of land lives a rather small population of about eight million people (World Bank Report, 2000). The linguistic situation in this Sub-Saharan African country is complex to say the least. One hundred and thirty two languages (SIL, 2002) co-exist along with French, the colonial language, Arabic, a co-official language and English, a foreign language taught as a subject in school from the sixth grade.

Role of French and mother tongues. In a country where being illiterate means not being able to write or read in French, the literacy rate is very low (11% according to SIL, 1999). The practical consequence of this situation means that the vast majority of Chadians (80%) speaks and uses only a language other than French, i.e., a native language. This situation is similar in Africa in general as testified by Broke-Utne (2000). Broke-Utne goes on to deplore that in spite of the fact that the overwhelming

majority of African do not speak the colonial languages, "[Y]et one talks about English-speaking, French-speaking, and Portuguese-speaking Africa, according to the language of the former colonizer spoken only by a small elite" (p. 240). This situation is not very different in Chad where French is the official language of the country and no national language is taught in school in any form.

With its status of official language, French is used for all official and legal purposes. It is the medium of instruction from kindergarten to college except in English departments in the University of NDjaména, the Teachers College (ISSED), and Islamic higher institutions where English and Arabic are media of instruction respectively. French is present in all aspects of public life such as signs on buildings and traffic signs. The supremacy of French is further equated with social and economic success as only the mastery of this medium of communication in its oral and written forms can guarantee lucrative employment in government administration and private agencies.

The dominance of French in all aspects of official life in Chad has its origins in political and social conditions. Malumba (1993), depicting a similar situation in a country with the same colonial history as Chad, The Democratic Republic of Congo, contends that French was promoted instead of local languages to avoid conflict over the choice of any given local language. The multiplicity of national languages pushed the African elite of independence to invariably choose the language of the colonizer as the official one. The choice of a neutral language was supposed to strengthen the fragile unity of emerging African states. Needless to say, the choice had the unconditional political and financial blessing of the colonial power, France. Socially, French was the only way to become a valued member of a restricted circle of an envied group. The socio-economic success that would come with speaking and writing French convinced even the strongest skeptic that it was the right choice.

Contrary to the situation in some countries like Tanzania or DRC where national languages are promoted, at least in theory, there has never been a debate on the promotion of national languages in Chad. In a 1978 issue of the oldest Catholic-financed magazine in the country - Tchad & Culture - the military government of President General Felix Malloum briefly debated the possibility of

introducing Chadian languages in school. The debate did not go beyond the first hurdle, which was the choice of the alphabet. This project had a very short life just as its authors who disappeared with the collapse of the military regime in February 1979 in a brutal civil war.

Although not actively promoted, the native languages are present in every informal aspect of social and economic life. The most spoken Chadian languages are the Chadian vernacular Arabic or Arab Schuwa, and the Sara language with its different dialects (Ngambay, Mouroum, Mbay, etc.). These two languages share the country geographically. Arabic is mainly spoken in the Islamic North and Sara in the South. However, in reality, Arabic is spoken in the South, even though in a slightly different variety for trade reasons. Most merchants are Moslems, Arabic speakers who exported the language to the South as they settled there for business. Today, this language can be said to be the lingua franca of Chad. It is important to add that it was the 1986 Constitution that made Arabic the co-official language with French. In everyday official life, however, this has not altered the supremacy of French.

The English Language in Chad. Chad was colonized by the French but English-speaking missionaries were present in the country as early as the 1920s. However, it was not until 1960, the time of independence of the country, that English was introduced as a foreign language in schools from the sixth grade and up. Students take four hours of English per week between grades 6 and 9. In high school (or lycée), students receive English instruction proportionately to their section. In the Arts and Humanities section, students continue to get four hours of English instruction per week. In the Science section, they receive three hours weekly and the Math section only has English twice a week.

At the college level, two types of English instruction are given. Quantitatively and qualitatively, the English language instruction offered in the English departments of the University of NDjaména and the Teachers College, also known as the Institut Supérieur des Sciences de l'Éducation (ISSED), is the most important. In those departments, English is the medium of instruction and all students are English language majors. The second category of English language instruction at the tertiary level is given to all

other majors. It is generally closely tailored to the high school method. The instructors invariably use English and French, code-switching at any time. Students in those programs receive one to two hours of English per week and they take it only as a graduation requirement.

The general socioeconomic situation of the country makes it very hard to teach foreign languages in general and English in particular. Books are not the same across schools or even sometimes within the same school. There are very few books and they are generally only used by the teachers who make summaries for students to copy in notebooks. No language laboratories are available at the secondary level to help students practice English. Therefore, the students depend almost solely on the teacher's performance, which, in turn, is greatly dependent on his/her initial training. The teachers who have been selected through high stakes tests to enter Teachers College are generally better prepared. However, the majority graduate from the university and have little experience with teaching methods. In such conditions, the emphasis is on reading, writing, and grammar to the detriment of oral/aural skills. The consequence of this instructional deficit is reflected in the students' very poor command of English, especially conversational skills among all students including English majors. Needless to say, teacher performance plays an important role in student motivation. Williams, Burden, & Albaharna (2001) found that in a culture similar to the Chadian context, Bahrain high school students see inadequate teaching methods as the first reason for their failure.

Nonetheless, the English language is slowly but surely gaining value as a useful "cash language" (Wolfram, 1999). The reasons for this rise in power for English is due to its role as international language (Hall & Eggington, 2000) but also due to the local opportunities for social well being (Malumba, 1993). Depicting the role of English in Democratic Republic of Congo, a country with similar historical background as Chad, Mulumba contends that English is emerging as a serious challenger to French.

In Chad, the opportunity for using English to improve one's social and economic status is no longer only abroad as it used to be but right inside the country. This opportunity is the oil project. Before the oil project, the visible consequence of knowing the English language was the

handful of lucky people who got jobs with American related agencies such the US Embassy, USAID (closed in 1996), Peace Corps, and NGOs such as VITA (an American nongovernmental agency which funds small development projects). Even the teachers who are hired by the Government and do not enjoy much social welfare are envied because of the somewhat special relationship they have come to experience with native speakers and occasional opportunities to make some extra money using their knowledge of English. The situation as described may represent a good chance for students to be motivated to study English for instrumental reasons.

In summary, the language question in Africa and Asia follows a typical pattern: a colonial language imposed during the colonization era survives either as the official language or as a link language with a socioeconomic power beyond all other languages. In Africa, with the exception of Tanzania and Somalia (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1998; Roy-Campbell, 2001) all African countries have accepted the language of the former master as official language and medium of instruction. In some cases, Chad for example, it (French) is used exclusively from kindergarten and in some other cases, later in the schooling process (Zaire/DRC, Nigeria, etc.). In countries like Zaire/DRC, the language policy is characterized by a contradiction between the official discourse which preaches the promotion of African languages whereas in practice, the popularity of European languages remain unaffected (Malumba, 1993; Suleiman, 1998).

The language question in Africa is also marked by two more conflicts: on one hand, the opposition between nationalists who want the African languages as languages of instruction all the way and the 'realists' who think only European languages have the dual benefit of ensuring unity among Africa's numerous ethnic groups and open doors to the outside world (Mazrui, 2001). On the other hand, there is the internal conflict between the always numerous local languages. In the first opposition (European languages versus local languages), the recent history of language policy in Africa obviously supports the 'realists' position exemplified by the overwhelming role of the European languages on the official plane. The most damage that European languages cause to African languages is they destroy them slowly but surely (Toffelson, 2000). As for the opposition between African languages, it has done them no good but has paved the way for the supremacy of colonial languages. Because language is so related to social and

political power, Africans are generally opposed to the idea of having one indigenous language emerge as the national one. Fearing ethnic violence, the governments of various African countries settled for European languages (Mazrui, 2001; Roy-Campbell, 2001). Unfortunately, even in the countries which made a conscious effort to promote local languages, one comes to the conclusion that

[K]nowledge of English (or French/Portuguese), it is realized even not acknowledged explicitly by the elites, constitutes cultural capital which demarcates the class boundaries between the tiny upper layer of people who are more or less proficient in these European languages and the vast majority of mainly rural... people who either do not know these languages at all or have only a very inadequate grasp of them (Alexander, 2000, p. 171).

In Asia, most countries (see above) that were colonized like in Africa have managed to use local languages for official business and even for instruction for most cases. However, with the spread of English (Kachru, 1983), those languages are having a hard time keeping up with the demand of their speakers who easily revert to English for access to wider technological and scientific knowledge. Nonetheless, in all former colonies, the language situation is dramatically complex. More than a simple linguistic question the language debate is economical and political, squeezed between the deep blue sea of financial scarcity to fund nationalistic language policies and the devil of social dispute about which language(s) to promote. Beyond all the apparent explanations, the literacy in language policy suggests that there are reasons why some languages spread easily, dominate others, and are the choice of many learners (Kachru, 1983, 1986; Ricento, 2000; Hall, 2000, etc.). This is the frame within which I would like to investigate Chadian students' motivation to learn English.

The Oil Project: a Brief Description

Oil had been discovered in Chad in the mid sixties under the first president of Chad, Francois NGarta Tombalbaye. However, due to intermittent civil war and insecurity, and political calculations, it was not until the late 1990s that conditions were met to start exploitation of this precious resource. The event of the

oil project is believed to be a motivating factor to learn English for the participants in this study. The following lines describe it briefly. After months of controversial and contradictory debate among Chadians for and against the exploitation of the oil, the World Bank gave its political and financial support to the project on June 6, 2000 (www.worldbank.org). Upon agreeing to a 3.7 billion US dollar contract with the two US companies (EXXON and CHEVRON) and the Malaysian PETRONAS, the World Bank allowed the project to become a reality. According to the consortium, 300 hundred wells will eventually be drilled to exploit the estimated 97 million barrels of oil reserve at the frequency of up to 250,000 barrels of crude oil per day over 25 years.

The official name of the project is "The Chad-Cameroon Petroleum Development and Pipeline Project". It is also sometimes referred to as the "Doba oil project" from the name of the closest biggest town to the oil fields. After about three years of intensive labor, the consortium began pumping the oil through the 600-mile pipeline from the Doba oil fields, in the south of Chad, across the Cameroonian forests to the coastal city of Kribi where it is carried away in tankers to the international market. The official ceremony to launch its exploitation was held on October 10, 2003 under the presidency of Present Idriss Deby, thus vaulting Chad into the select circle of oil producers.

This oil is exclusively meant for exportation and therefore will never be seen or used in Chad. However, the potential for motivating people and raising hopes is very real. Even though the experience of other neighboring countries of Chad producers of oil is not very encouraging due to mismanagement of the oil money, the Chadian case has some exceptions that sometimes quiet the most vocal opponents to the project. In fact, in an unprecedented decision, the Chadian government agreed to relinquish the management of the oil revenues to a board of trustees composed of Chadians and expatriates. A law passed by the Chadian parliament specifies that 80% of the oil money go to construction of roads, health and education facilities. An additional percent is kept in an account for the future generations, 5% goes to the oil region and the government has only 5% to spend for itself.

On paper, it looks perfect and adds to the optimism of people as to the beneficial role of the project to their

social well-being. Despite the measures and precautions taken to use the oil revenues in a transparent and efficient way, many in Chad remain skeptical. They justify their skepticism by the fact that the current government has never been a model of stewardship in managing the meager resources of the country. Political opponents of President Deby and the oil project claim publicly that this oil project will bring nothing but doom to the Chadian population. Mr. Ngarlejy Yorongar, the most vocal of the opponents bluntly affirms that "twenty years ago, the Chadian people lived in mud houses, twenty years later, they will still live in mud houses" (Author's translation) (www.izf.net).

Despite the dissatisfaction of some part of the population, the oil project is welcomed by most Chadians and the economic world as a "necessary evil" and raises a lot of hope. The project rationale reads, "This project could transform the economy of Chad... By 2004, the pipeline would increase Government revenues by 45-50% per year and allow it to use those resources for important investments in health, education, environment, infrastructure, and rural development, necessary to reduce poverty" (www.worldbank.org/afr/ccproj/project/pro_overview.htm). In the words of the project's Country Director, Mr. Ali Khadr, Chad is a desperately poor country and "the opportunity that oil income potentially affords to improve Chadians' lives is one that... had to seized" (<http://web.worldbank.org>). During the fourth quarter of 2002, some 5,917 Cameroonians and 6,181 Chadians were hired and trained. This alone represents a big source of employment. To date, no Chadian company comes close to such hiring capacities. Over the 25 years that the project is believed to last, it is expected to generate \$2 billion for Chad and \$500 million for Cameroon. Above all, the most beneficial aspect of the project is its potential to generate employment by increasing the Government's hiring capacity and by attracting foreign investments.

This new economic dawn for the populations of Chad raises a lot of expectations and this hope is probably shared by the students and interested parties who would prepare to be part of this history in the making. One of the major purposes of this investigation, therefore, is to find out to what extent the oil exploitation plays a role in the motivation of Chadian students to study English.

Human motivation: a Brief Overview of Definitions, Theories and Research

Motivation lies at the very center of psychology. The branch of psychology that treats of this particular issue is named motivational psychology (Weiner, 1992). The core goal of motivational research seems to learn "why human and subhuman organisms think and behave as they do" (Weiner, 1992, p. 1). In other words researching motivation means searching for the cause of specific actions, that is why people initiate, choose, or persist in specific actions in specific circumstances (Mook, 1987). Jones (1955) adds that motivation is about why "behavior gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism when all this is going on (p. vii).

In the field of motivation research, two metaphors suggested by the French philosopher Rene Descartes and the English biologist Charles Darwin serve as backdrop to the different theories. Descartes (1596 - 1650) came to be associated with what was known as Cartesian dualism. He claimed that the mind and the body coexist and influence each other in the course of actions and decisions. Man was believed to be Godlike, that is, having some of the attributes of God. Descartes posited that only man possesses intelligence and rationality. Subhumans (animals and other living organisms) are machines. They only possess the body and do not have the mind. Charles Darwin on the contrary, claimed that men also have something of the machine. He posited that mentally, men were not that different from animals. The difference may be that of quantity but not that of kind or quality (Weiner, 1992). The positions of those two thinkers laid the ground for the study of human motivation. They became known as the Machine and the Godlike metaphors respectively. To put it in Weiner's words, "what Darwin accomplished for motivational psychologists was to provide altered ways of thinking about the nature of being. His contribution provided a foundation for the study of motivation (Weiner, 1992, p. 11). The notion that man has some aspect of the machine gave rise to psychoanalytic, sociobiological, drive, and Gestalt theories. On the other hand man as Godlike spawned the expectancy-value and attributions theories of motivation. Since then, human motivation has been studied along these two conceptual lines (Mook, 1987).

Motivation in Education

Motivation was not only the priority of clinicians but also that of educators. Based on the premise that there is a direct relationship between motivation and learning and performance, motivation researchers spent a great amount of time looking for answers to the basic issue "why some students perform well and others do not seem to perform so well" (Pintrich, 1996). Theories and hypotheses are proposed that help link research and education (Suppes, 1974).

Motivation in education was mainly researched within the cognitive approach (Ames & Ames, 1984). Motivation was seen as a trait of the individual's personality. The sources of motivation were believed to be internal. More recent research however, considers motivation as a result of the environment (McGroarty, 2001; McInerney & Van Etten, 2001). Motivation research paradigms in education include correlational, experimental, qualitative, laboratory and field. Commonly studied indexes of motivation comprise choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and achievement (Pintrich, 1996). Pintrich also proposes the most common ways of assessing motivation. They are direct observations, ratings by others, self-reports that include questionnaires, interviews, stimulated recalls, think-alouds, and dialogues.

Historical perspectives on motivation in education.

Early psychologists, based on the philosophies of Plato and Aristotle, equated motivation with two closely related concepts: volition and will (Pintrich, 1996). Will was defined as the reflection of an individual's desire, want, or purpose. Volition was the act of using the will. Volition became famous through the works of the German psychologist, Wilhelm Wundt, who studied it using the introspection method as early as 1879. Other than those early views of motivation that included also instincts, seven theories were proposed and used in studying motivation. They were Freud's theory (Weiner, 1985b), conditioning theories (Pavlov, 1927; Thorndike, 1913), drive theories (Woodworth, 1918; Hull, 1943; Mower 1960; Miller, 1948), purposive behaviorism (Tolman, 1932), arousal theories (James 1884; Lange, 1885; Schacter, 1964), field theory (Lewin, 1935), cognitive consistency theory (Heider, 1946; Festinger, 1957), and trait and humanistic

theories (Allport, 1937). The first four theories of motivation (Freud's theory, conditioning theories, drives theories, purposive behaviorism, and arousal theories) reflect the Machine metaphor of motivation as suggested by Darwin. Field theory, cognitive consistency theory, and trait and humanistic theories are rooted in the 'man as Godlike' metaphor of Descartes.

Three metatheoretical models or paradigms were used to channel the study of motivation. Such grouping was necessary to put some order in the diversity of theories of motivation which, at times, seem confusing (Pintrich, 1996). These paradigms were known as the mechanistic model, the organismic model, and the contextual model (Overton, 1984; Lerner, 1986). The mechanistic model is based on the assumption that "the laws of natural science (physics and chemistry) are the basic laws in the world and ultimately everything is reducible to them" (Pintrich, 1996, p. 58). The mechanistic model includes those four theories mentioned above under the 'machine like' category. The mechanistic model implies continuity. The organismic model rejects the assumptions of the mechanistic model and contends that "changes in organisms often are qualitative and cannot be reduced to previous behavior" (Pintrich, 1996, p. 61). The organismic model is discontinuous in that it posits that changes occur suddenly and do not smoothly derive from earlier behaviors. Trait and drive theories fall under this paradigm which is a product of the Darwinian conception of motivation. The third paradigm includes arousal theories and represents a compromise between the mechanistic and organismic perspectives. This view accepts the organismic patterns of change but insists that environmental conditions play a greater role than admitted in the organismic model. In other words, the changes in behavior will not be displayed if the environment is not conducive to do so. This is where the Self-Determination theory belongs. It has the advantage of recognizing that individual, internal drives must combine with environmental influences for motivation to be take place.

Recent views on motivation in education. More recent views of motivation in education are expectancy theory, self-efficacy, attribution theories, goal orientation, social cognitive theory, achievement motivation, and intrinsic motivation which includes perceived control,

self-determination and emergent motivation (Pintrich, 1996). A very recent but very relevant view of motivation is the sociocultural perspective (McInerney & Van Etten, 2001). This view of motivation research seeks to add the sociocultural dimension that has been missing in previous views of motivation which were mainly cognitive or behavioral (Rueda & Moll, 1994).

Second Language Motivation Research

Student motivation has constituted a central topic to educational psychology over decades (Ball, 1984). It is obvious that student motivation heavily influences student achievement, which is the tangible reflection of the degree to which a student is motivated. Student motivation research did not exclude second language acquisition as foreign languages are part of the subjects taught in school. Motivation in second language acquisition was popularized early in the second half of the twentieth century by the works of two Canadian psychologists, Robert Gardner and W. E. Lambert. These two names remain familiar today through their theoretical framework, the socio-educational model, and their famous distinction between integrative and instrumental motivations (Lambert, 1955, 1956a, 1956b, 1956c; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, Gardner, 1958a). Since then, other theoretical concepts and frameworks have been developed (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). In this section, I will review the main theoretical frameworks in second language motivation including the socio-educational model, attribution theory, and self-determination theory. This survey will also include the different instruments used in empirical investigations.

Gardner's Socio-educational Model

The socio-educational model of second language acquisition developed from three historical antecedents (Gardner, 2001). The first one was the work of Arsenian (1945) who discussed the relationship between language and acculturation. The second influence came from Markwardt (1948) who identified five motives as important to second language learning. A first group composed of three motives that he called practical included assimilation of an ethnic minority, trade and commerce, and scientific utility. The second set included two motives he termed non-utilitarian and self-cultural development and maintenance of ethnic

identity of a minority group. A case study by Nida (1956) singled out the importance of self-identity and affect in second language learning. The third antecedent of the socio-educational model came from a study by Whyte and Holmberg (1956). They identified four factors. Three of those factors were contact (with the local community), Variety of experience (using the language) and Ability (language aptitude). The fourth factor, which was also the most important in their view, was Psychological Identification. If the language learner identifies himself/herself with the target community, he/she has a better chance of learning the language as opposed to those who do not.

Having evolved from this background, the socio-educational model was used for the first time for empirical investigations in the mid 1950s (Gardner, 2001). Basically, the model posits four categories of variables that influence second language achievement. They are Group Specific Attitudes, Course Related Characteristics, Motivational Indices, and Generalized Attitudes (Gardner & Smythe, 1975). Four years later, Gardner (1979) suggested a modification of this model to categorize four groups variables he named Social Milieu, Individual Differences, Second Language Acquisition Contexts, and Outcomes. Over the years, the model has been modified constantly and in its most recent version was published in Gardner (2000). This last version "shows that two classes of variables, Integrativeness and Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation are two correlated variables that influence Motivation to learn a second language, and that Motivation and Language Aptitude have an influence on Language Achievement" (Gardner, 2001, p. 4). The model is represented in Figure 2.1 below.

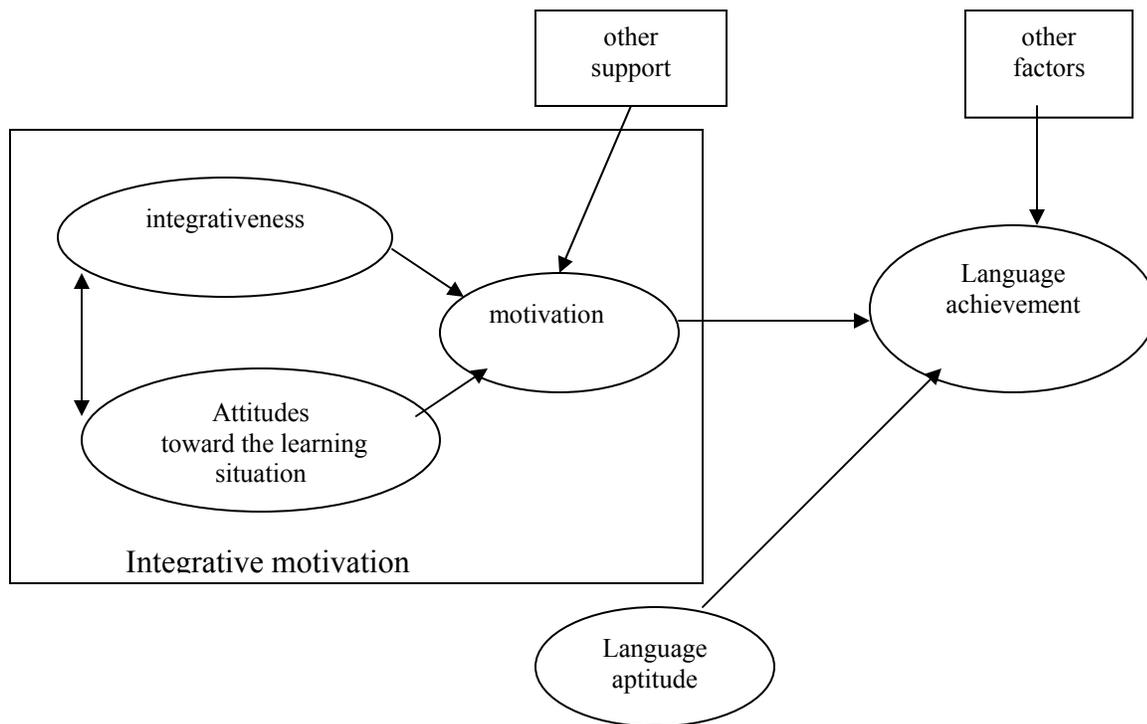


Figure 2.1: The socio-educational model of second language motivation. Adapted from Gardner (2000).

Gardner's socio-educational model is also known for its use of questionnaire called the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The AMTB was developed for the first time in 1975 by Gardner and Smythe. It has eleven sub-tests that can be grouped in five categories: Integrativeness, Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation, Motivation, Instrumental orientation, and Language Anxiety (Gardner, 2001). This instrument, as well as the socio-educational model itself, have been used in a number of studies on second language motivation. Gardner (2001) presents a table of the different topics studied using the AMTB ranking from 1978 to 1999 (p. 10).

The socio-educational model came under attack by scholars in second language motivation. The model was criticized for favoring integrative motivation over instrumental (Dornei, 1990). There may be other reasons or orientations for students to learn the language besides the two mentioned above such as fascination with aspects of the language (Oxford & Shearin, 1994), interest and curiosity

(Crookes & Schmidt, 1991), self-determined goals, and many more. It is significant to know that the socio-educational model has been tested only in the bilingual context of Canada with native English speakers learning French (Gardner, 2001) and may not be valid for other sociocultural contexts.

Attribution Theory

The originator of the attribution theory of motivation is Bernard Weiner. He was a strong advocate of behaviorism as witnessed by his abundant work in this approach of psychology. Behaviorism can be traced back to the mechanistic theories that, in turn, have sprung from the Darwinian concept of human psychology (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Coming from a social cognitive approach, Weiner's (1985a, 1986) theory "is concerned with an individual's cognitive representation of his or her environment - that is, perceptions, inferences, and interpretations of social experience as determinants of achievement strivings" (Graham, 1994, p. 31). Attribution theory is based on three major components: causal attributions, attributional antecedents and causal consequences. Causal attributions deal with people's perceived causes of success and failure. However, because perceived causes of success or failure vary among individuals, this theory focuses on causal meaning (Graham, 1994). Causal attributions also have three underlying properties (locus, stability, and controllability) regrouped under the term causal dimensions. Locus is about identifying the cause as either internal or external to the individual. Stability has to do with whether a cause is constant or fluctuates over time, and controllability or responsibility is concerned with whether a cause is or is not influenced by volition.

In the culture where attribution theory was first developed (the Western culture), effort and ability are the most dominant perceived causes of success and failure. In terms of second language learning, that would mean that aptitude and motivation are key variables in language proficiency. Graham (1994, p. 33) designed an eight-cell matrix that explains the relationship between causal dimensions (locus, stability, and controllability) and the perceived causes (effort and ability). Effort, for example, is perceived as internal, unstable, and controllable. Therefore, if a failure is ascribed to lack of effort, it is something that can be changed if the individual is

willing to. Ability, on the other hand, is internal, stable and uncontrollable. Thus, if an individual attributes his/her failure to ability, he or she feels it is beyond his/her personal control. In attribution theory, the distinction between causes is central as each dimension is related to a particular set of psychological consequences (Weiner, 1986, 1992).

In attribution theory, students use a self-reflective process to identify in their past or present experience the causes of their current behavior or outcomes. Those informational cues are referred to as attributional antecedents and they influence causal attributions (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Attributional antecedents refer to a condition that was there before a behavior occurred and that is believed to have caused the current condition (causal attribution). Attributional antecedents are to causal attribution what orientations are to motivation. Graham (1990) also identified attributional cues usually contained in teacher messages. After a failure on a task, especially an easy one, depending on whether the teacher expressed anger or pity (Weiner, Graham, Stern, & Lawson, 1982; Graham, 1984), praise or blame (Weiner & Kukla, 1970; Nicholls, 1978), help or neglect (Schmidt & Weiner, 1988; Graham & Baker, 1990), the students infer from teacher feedback that their failure was due either to low ability (pity, praise with no blame, help), or lack of effort (anger, blame, neglect).

Attribution theory also investigated causal consequences, that is, the consequences of causal attributions. Dependent on whether individuals attribute causes of failure to themselves or others, they accept different consequences (Weiner, 1990, Dodge, 1993). Causal responsibility as the attributional theorists named it, has strong implications for aggressive children behavior (Dodge, 1993). Kenneth and his colleagues were able to document that aggressive children hold others responsible for all their actions (especially ambiguous actions such as spilling milk or being pushed while waiting in a line) and automatically think they did it on purpose. Such children have biased responsibility attributions which lead to aggressive retaliation on their part.

In second language motivation, attribution theory has been used to determine students' perceived cause of success or failure. In a certain sense, all motivation theory and

therefore all second language motivational theory has some sort of causal attribution implications. People attribute their success or lack thereof in language learning to all kinds of causes (Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams, Burden & Al-Baharna, 2001). However, although very pervasive in education, attribution theory has been only moderately popular in second language learning studies and seems to be a preference of sports psychology (Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001). The reason for this lack of influence is not clear in motivation research literature. However, it may be due to the fact that SLA motivation researchers were simply too busy with the then popular paradigm, Gardner's socio-educational theory. Attribution theory is nonetheless cited as one of the valid alternatives to the dominance of Gardner's socio-educational model (Dornyei, 2003). There seem to be two main kinds of studies done in the attribution perspective in the academic domain. The first category seeks to attribute success and failure in language learning to age, gender, general behavior, family influence, teacher influence, and like or dislike of a subject area (Little, 1985; Vispoel & Austin, 1995 & Williams & Burden, 1999). The second category focuses on the role of culture in causal attributions. Studies that have investigated this aspect of attribution theory include Fry and Ghosh (1980), Miller (1984), Power & Wagner (1983) and Kivilu, Rogers (1998) and Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna (2001). In addition to those two main categories, another set of studies has explored the differences in perspective between students' attributions and those of their teachers (Bar-Tal & Guttman, 1981; Karniol, 1987, Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001).

Of all those studies above, only two (Williams & Burden, 1999 and Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001), were done in SLA, confirming the scarcity of attribution theory in this field of study. Using British secondary school students, Williams & Burden (1999) found that as they progressed in their learning of French, students were increasingly attributing the causes of their success to internal (effort, aptitude) as well as external reasons (help from others). On the other hand, external factors such as difficulty of task, distraction by others, poor teaching, and lack of concentration, were blamed for failure. In their second study, Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna used secondary students and teachers in Bahrain. The main finding of that study was that students' reasons for wanting to do well in English were by far attributed to

instrumental factors. Attributions for failure were largely believed to be internal, in keeping with Islamic culture expectations, and in contradiction to the prominent notion of "self-serving bias" in the attribution literature. Self-serving bias postulates that individuals are motivated by a need to enhance self-esteem and tend to ascribe success to internal factors and failure to external ones (Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Within the Self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation describes the "inherent pleasure and interest" one takes in a voluntarily chosen activity (Noels, 2001, p. 45). Intrinsic motivation has at least three components: Intrinsic-Knowledge, Intrinsic-Accomplishment, and Intrinsic-Stimulation (Vallerand, 1997). Intrinsic-Knowledge is related to feelings of pleasure that come from developing knowledge and satisfying one's curiosity about a topic area. Intrinsic-Accomplishment is the sensation of satisfaction that comes from surpassing oneself and mastering a difficult task. Here the emphasis is on the process, not the end result. Finally, Intrinsic-Stimulation refers to the enjoyment of the beauty of the experience, for example, the sound, rhythm of the new language, excitation resulting from being a bilingual, etc.

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to the accomplishment of the task, not for the pleasure it gives, but for how instrumental it is to help one achieve one's ultimate plans or goals. This type of motivation also has sub-components: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation. These four subtypes rank the causes of motivation from loosely to totally external. As the name suggests, external regulation refers to the situation of a second language learner who is learning the language only because of an academic requirement or to avoid losing a job or for some other totally external reason. Introjected regulation refers to the situation of a student who "performs a task because of some internally governed system of rewards and punishments" (Noels, 2001, p. 48). In the identified regulation phase, the learner engages in the activity because he/she knows its value as a means to achieve another goal. The fourth level of extrinsic motivation is almost like intrinsic motivation. It is a phase where external reasons for learning a language have

been evaluated, internalized and harmonized with one's other values and needs (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 1995).

The third category of the Self-Determination theory is amotivation. Actually, it is the opposite of any other kind of motivation. Amotivated students feel that what is happening to them is beyond their control. This is particularly the case of those students who are required to take foreign language courses as part of a degree requirement. These learners do not value the activity and do not believe it will lead to a desired outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000). They would quit at the first opportunity to do so. To conclude this section, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation in the self-determination theory can be seen as the counterpart of integrative and instrumental motivation in the socio-educational model respectively.

Made popular by the research of Deci & Ryan (1985), self-determination theory (SDT) is part of the organismic perspective in empirical psychology as opposed to mechanistic theories. Mechanistic theories derived from the Darwinian perspective on humans as being moved by drives and "tend to view the human organism as passive, pushed around by the interaction of physiological and environmental stimuli" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 3). Organismic theories, on the hand, seem to have spawned from Descartes view of human motivation and "tend to view the organism as active, that is, as being volitional and initiating behaviors" (p. 4).

Historically, the premises of self-determination behavior were written about by very early psychologists such as William James (1890) and Woodworth (1918). They suggested the existence of intrinsic motivation, which is one of the two components of self-determination theory along with extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Originally, self-determination was conceived as freedom from control and was believed to be necessary condition for intrinsic motivation. DeCharmes (1968), from the ideas of whom Deci & Ryan developed their theory of self-determination, proposed that

Man's primary motivational propensity is to be effective in producing changes in his environment. Man strives to be a causal agent, to be the primary locus of causation, for or the origin of, his behavior; he strives for personal causation (as cited in Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 30).

Here is the diagram of the self-determination theory as conceived by Ryan & Deci (2000) and adapted for use by Noels et al. (2001).

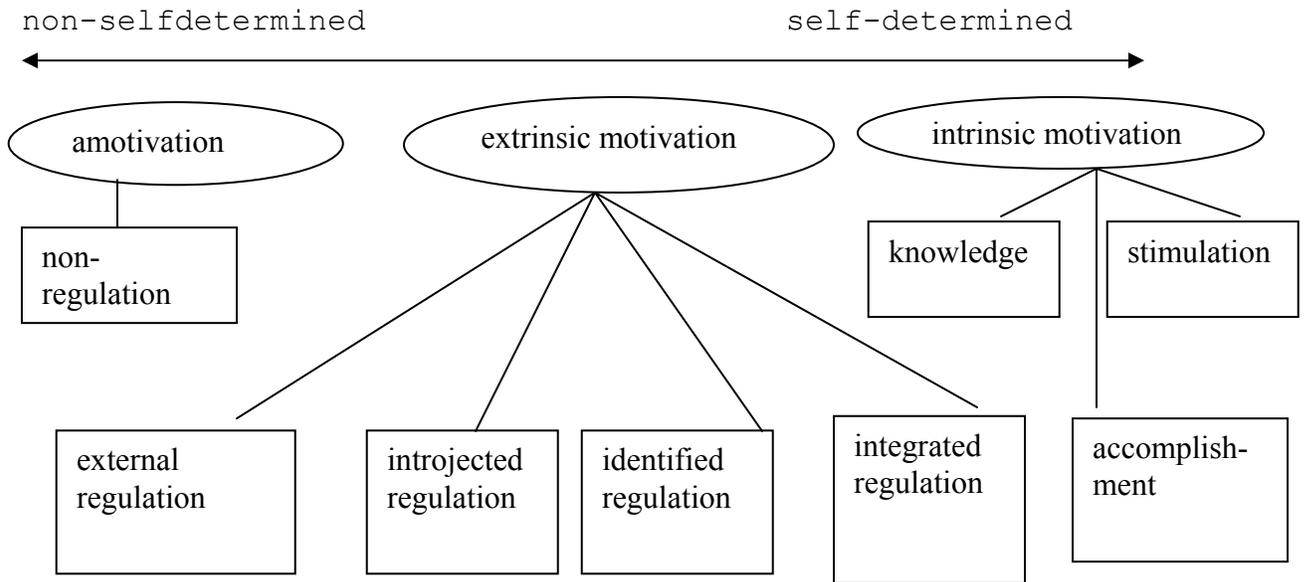


Figure 2.2: Self-Determination Theory. Adapted from Noels et al. (2001).

Self-determination as a theory of motivational psychology was used extensively in clinical psychology and education research with practical implications (Ryan & Deci, 1985). The studies, all grounded in cognitive psychology, explore the role of self-determination in human behaviors. The following are samples of such research activities.

Studies by Glass and Singer (1972) and Miller (1980) showed that when people have or can gain control over inhibiting events in their environment, they perform more effectively than when they believe they cannot. Pennebaker, Burnam, Schaeffer, & Harper (1977), for example, reported that the lack of perceived control over outcomes led to more reported physical symptoms. Schulz (1976) found that a sample of aged people who were given greater opportunities to control outcomes was judged as becoming more psychologically healthy and less physically ill, with lower mortality rate than a control group.

Greater internalized motivation has been associated with greater use of medications among people with chronic illnesses (Williams, Rodin, Ryan, Grolnick, Deci, 1998), and better long-term maintenance of weight loss among very obese patients (Williams et al., 1996). Williams, Freedman, & Deci (1998) found improved glucose control among diabetics and Ryan, Plant, & O'Malley (1995) found greater attendance and involvement in an addiction-treatment program. In a recent article, Ryan & Deci (2000) concluded that "social environments can facilitate or forestall intrinsic motivation by supporting versus thwarting people's innate psychological needs" (p. 71).

In the realm of education, self-determination theory has yielded a number of important findings. Studies using extrinsic motivation found, for example, that the more students were externally regulated the less they showed interest, value, and effort toward achievement. They also tended to deny responsibility for negative outcomes, blaming others such as the teacher. In contrast, identified regulation was positively related to more interest and enjoyment of school (Ryan & Connell, 1989). Other studies showed that more autonomous extrinsic motivation was associated with more engagement (Connell & Wellborn, 1991), better performance (Miserandino, 1996), lower dropout rates (Vallerand & Bissonette, 1992) and better teacher ratings (Hayamizu, 1997).

In second language learning motivation, SDT has not been very much applied even though cited as one of the most influential alternatives to the established socio-educational model (Dornyei, 2003). Under the leadership of Kimberly Noels, SDT now has a thin but important layer of literature to count on. Such literature is mainly comprised of the works of the most noticeable researcher of SDT in second language motivation research over the past four years (Noels, 2001a; 2001b; Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999, 2001; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000). In their first study using SDT in second language motivation, (Noels, et al., 2000) investigated 159 English psychology students learning French as a second language. The results of their analyses suggest that learner motivation can be validly assessed using the intrinsic and extrinsic subtypes outlined by Deci & Ryan (1985). The study concludes that the findings are consistent with the predictions of SDT that "the more internalized the reasons for L2 learning, the more comfortable and persevering

students claimed to be" (p. 76). In their state-of-the-art article published in Dornyei's *Motivation and second language acquisition*, Noels (2001) concluded that SDT constructs, which lie on a continuum from amotivation to intrinsic motivation, can be combined with integrative orientations. Such a combination would provide a systematic framework of organizing orientations in a comprehensive fashion and also suggest "the psychological mechanisms by which motivation may be enhanced or frustrated in different contexts" (p. 62).

Table 2.1: A comparison of the Socio-educational Model, Attribution Theory and, Self-Determination Theory

Theoretical frameworks	Originators	Role of the individual	Role of the environment	Source of motivation
Socio-Educational Model (Social Psychology)	Robert Gardner	Fundamental and irreplaceable	Important but not as important as the individual ("You can't motivate a rock")	Internal and external but more internal than external
Attribution Theory (Cognitive Psychology)	Bernard Weiner	Fundamental. Individual's perceptions drive his motivation	Important. Helps to explain causal attributions	Exclusively internal
Self-Determination Theory (Motivational Psychology)	Edward L. Deci & Richard M. Ryan	Central. Pre-set goals drive individual's motivation	Individual's perceived control over environment is motivating. The individual and the context are mutually influential	Both internal and external. The individual internalizes external sources of motivation. Motivation lies on a continuum

As can be seen in the table above, Self-Determination theory offers a more complete explanation of how human motivation works. It gives a central role to the individual who has preset goals that drive his or her motivation. The role of the environment is of crucial importance. Above all, SDT posits that the individual and the context are mutually influential. In SDT the source of motivation is both internal and external. External causes become internalized by the individual and they work just like

internal (intrinsic) motives. Finally, the authors of SDT array motivation along a continuum as opposed to a dichotomy.

Gender and L2 Motivation

Research in second language acquisition has shown that individual differences exist between females and males. These differences were believed to favor females, at least on verbal tasks (Maccoby Jacklin, 1979; Tittle, 1986). Clark & Trafford (1995), for example, contend that modern languages seem to be perceived as a "traditionally 'female' subject" (p. 315). The same beliefs exist within the Chadian society where women and children are supposedly more apt at learning languages. Motivation being an important factor in second language acquisition as it is, one would expect the same female advantage in second language motivation. According to Worrall & Tsarna (1987), language teachers, regardless of their gender, tend to have higher expectations of girls than boys, giving them preferential treatment when it comes to career advising and encouragement. Dornyei & Clement (2001) in a large-scale study of 4765 school children students found significant mean differences between boys and girls, sometimes exceeding .50. One of the findings of this study regarding gender was that some languages are more gender-friendly than others. Italian and French for example were overwhelmingly chosen by girls as opposed to boys.

Despite such studies and others such as the one by Gardner (1985) who reported several studies that found positive attitudes among girls than boys, the L2 motivation literature is not unanimous about empirical evidence of gender effects. Researchers who included the gender variable in the L2 motivation studies did not find substantial results (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2002). In a study of 268 Canadian junior high school French immersion students, MacIntyre, et al. (2002) found "no significant effect of sex" on L2 motivation. Similarly in a study of 195 immersion and nonimmersion programs, Baker & MacIntyre (2000) found only "a marginally significant effect for gender" (pp. 84-85). Even the study by Dornyei & Clement (2001) mentioned above concludes that "English appears to be gender-neutral".

In spite of this somewhat inconclusive role of gender in second language motivation, the case in Chad may be different for cultural reasons. Traditionally, more girls major in English than boys, claiming aspirations for working as bilingual secretaries. The situation may have become more conducive to such attitudes given the opportunity of employment for French-English bilinguals in the new era of the oil project in this country.

Orientations and Second Language Motivation

The term 'orientation' has often been used in the L2 motivation research interchangeably with the term 'motivation'. In reality, these are two different albeit related terms. Orientations are classes of reasons for learning a second language. An orientation is what fuels a learner's motivation. Gardner & Lambert (1959) used it to describe the reasons a learner gives for undertaking the study of a second language. Gardner & Lambert (1959) posited two types of orientations: integrative and instrumental. Since then, several studies have been designed which have challenged Gardner's view and proposed more reasons why learners elect to learn a second language (Clement & Kruidenier, 1983; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Noels, 2000; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Noels, 2001).

Clement & Kruidenier (1983) in their study of 871 Quebec City Grade 11 students found four categories of orientations common to all participants: instrumental, friendship, travel, knowledge. It is often suggested that the instrumental category corresponds to Gardner's instrumental orientation and that the last three roughly match the integrative orientation in Gardner's model (Noels, et al., 2000). Conducting a study similar to the one described above in the same environment (Quebec City), Belmechri & Hummel (1998) found five categories of orientations among high school participants: Travel, Understanding/School (instrumental), Friendship, Understanding, and Career (Instrumental). As can be seen here, some of the categories are the same as the ones described by Clement & Kruidenier (1983). The Understanding/School orientation differs from Career (Instrumental) orientation in that it refers to finding a job in terms of stable and enjoyable employment as opposed to the financial aspect of the job (Career). Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000) replicated Clement & Kruidenier's (1983 and 1986) studies and found that the

same orientations were present in the responses of 159 psychology majors learning French as L2.

Summary

In this chapter, six major sections are included. In the first one about the linguistic context in Chad, Africa and the comparable parts, I explored and explained the relationship between those different contexts and the role of language in development and how it relates to motivation. The section explains how the languages of the colonizers imposed themselves as languages of social promotion in former colonies. The next section described the socio-economic and linguistic context of the study with an emphasis on the eventually motivational role of a billionaire oil project in Chad. Then, in the section on motivation, a historical overview has been given as to explain how this field of Psychology evolved through the ages to be where it is today. That section set up for the significance and justification of the three main theories used in studying second language motivation and discussed in the third section. They are the Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985), the Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1986), and the Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). A chart was drawn to show the relationships between these three and justify the use of self-determination theory in this study. The context of this study calls for the use of SDT because it is the only framework that best captures the influence of the environment on the learners' orientations. The last two sections reviewed the literature about the role of gender and orientations in SLA. In fact, the whole chapter describes the background necessary to justify this study of students' orientations in an English as a Foreign Language context.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, I describe the participants in the study as well as the methodology and the instruments of data collection. In this survey study, two separate questionnaires were constructed for use. Most items on the first questionnaire were borrowed or adapted from an existent scale (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 2001). All the items on the second scale were generated by this researcher. The questionnaire was translated into French to accommodate non-English majors and give them a better chance to respond to the items. As a matter of fact, the questionnaire was given only in French. This was to prevent any extraneous factor (English proficiency) from interfering with the subjects' responses. In the Self-Determination Theory, which is the theoretical framework of this study, language learners can be either amotivated, extrinsically motivated or intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). SDT also posits that external motivation is mediated by environmental factors to become internalized and act the same as intrinsic motivation.

Subjects

The subjects in this survey study come from different social, economic and educational backgrounds. They are males and females studying at the University of NDjaména, in the departments of English and in two other majors where English is taught as a minor. These include the departments of Business, and L'Ecole Nationale des Travaux Publics (ENTP), the School of Engineering. These majors were selected based on the potential that their graduates have to be employable by the oil industry. It is important to note that in Chad, the professional schools exist totally separate from the university system. Before entering any of these institutions of higher education, students would have had to overcome a thirteen-year long educational journey replete with nationwide exams. In the following section, I have described the social and educational backgrounds of

the students to explain its washout effect. In other words, although the students in this study come from varied socioeconomic backgrounds, by the time they reach college, socioeconomic factors should not play a significant role because all students reaching this high level have made similar achievements. They may, however, be considered as educational elites. Therefore, although the socioeconomic status may play a role in the students' motivation to learn English, it was not a variable in this study. Similarly, although the rural/urban dichotomy is an important one, it is beyond the scope of this study and is not a variable to be considered here. In the next two sections is a rationale for excluding these variables.

Social Background

Socially, the students differ as much as their geographical locations. Some grew up in rural areas where they studied in very small classes, sometimes having for a classroom only the shade of a tree. Those students have had no exposure to television and frequently have little access to radio. Movie theaters and libraries are also unknown to them. They possess almost no books and their learning comes exclusively from the teacher on whose notes they depend heavily. Sometimes they walk up to 15 miles to and from school every day. The second category of students come from urban centers where most of the commodities described as lacking in the countryside are present but are not guaranteed to every single student. However, students can borrow books from libraries, watch television and go to movies. In some cases, students make friends with English-speaking expatriates, and that could be an advantage for practicing their English. Economically urban students are better off compared to most of their rural peers. Most live in families with salaried parents or relatives and do not have to depend on cash crops like their counterparts in the rural areas do. However, the rural/urban difference is ameliorated by the leveling effects of the Chadian educational system as described below.

Educational Background

Before they are admitted into college, students go through three school cycles, elementary and secondary levels. The elementary education often includes kindergarten and six grades known as Cours Préparatoire 1ère Année (CP1), Cours Préparatoire 2ème Année (CP2),

Cours Élémentaire 1ère Année (CE1), Cours Élémentaire 2ème Année (CE2), Cours Moyen 1ère Année (CM1) and Cours Moyen 2ème Année (CM2). At the end of elementary school, students must pass a national exam, the Certificat d'Etudes Primaires Élémentaires Tchadien (CEPET) to move on to middle school or *collège*. In middle school, there are four grades: Sixième (6ème), Cinquième (5ème), Quatrième (4ème), and Troisième (3ème). On completing 3ème, the last year of middle school, students take another mandatory national exam in order to be admitted into high school or *Lycée*. This last cycle of secondary education has three grades: Seconde (2nde), Première (1ère) and Terminale (T). From Première, the second year of high school, students are required to choose a section according to their intellectual abilities. They can choose to be in a "science" section, which includes Math, Physics, Chemistry and Biology majors or pursue a "literary" section, which accommodates Modern Languages and Social Science majors. Upon graduation from high school with the third mandatory national exam, students are now cleared to apply for university admission.

In light of the description given above of the socioeconomic situation of students in cities and those in rural areas, one might think of the latter as being immensely disadvantaged compared to their urban counterparts. When it comes to higher education admission, this is only partially true for at least two main reasons. The first reason has to do with the fact that this social imbalance, luckily for the rural students, does not make a big difference in terms of school achievement because the educational system here does not factor into school programs so much of real life. Therefore, urban students have a hard time transferring what they learn in daily life into school work. The second reason is related to the sameness of nationwide standardized exams. To date, all the students in all parts of the country sit for the same exam on the same day. Independently of the success rate for rural and urban students on these national exams, all the students have the same basic knowledge by the time they get to college. When we add that higher education is free from the second year and the government pays a stipend to each student, it would be hard to consider students in the Chadian tertiary education as elites based on socioeconomic status.

Sampling

Probability sampling was used in the selection of the participants in the present study. Given the relatively small number of students in all three majors, I took a census, that is, included all the target population of all three majors as a sample. Therefore, each student in all the three majors was given a questionnaire to fill out in their own time, outside the classroom. I avoided using group administration because of the high risk of contamination associated with this method (Dornyei (2003)). When filling in questionnaires in a group, such as a classroom, students tend to talk to each other and copy one another's responses.

For the pilot study, simple random sampling was used to select about fifteen students from each group (all selected majors). A list of all students enrolled in the three departments listed above was obtained. Then, a random table method was used to select students in the study. Every tenth student was chosen to be included in the survey. The goal was to have a balanced design, i.e., an equal or at least proportional number of participants in each group.

Variables

For simplicity and clarity's sake, the design of this study included and investigated the following variables. Three independent variables: oil project effect, major (with three levels), and gender (two levels). The study was an attempt to determine how these influence the dependent variable, which are motivational orientations. In question number two, the students' expectations of the oil project became a dependent variable.

The Instruments

Two scales were used in the present study. The first scale was a slight adaptation of Noels, Clement & Pelletier's (2001) Language Learning Orientations Scale - Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation (LLOS-IEA). Only wording changes were made in order to clarify the items and make them more reader-friendly. The second scale was an instrument developed by the researcher to specifically account for the effects of the oil project

on the orientations of students to learn English. In other words, the scale attempted to measure the students' expectations of the oil project.

The adaptation of an existing scale and the addition of a newly developed one resulted in a data collection tool that accurately reflected the reality of the Chadian context where the present survey study was conducted. The adaptation was in line with Dornyei's (2001) claim that "[U]nfortunately, there are no universally applicable, standardized L2 motivation tests" (p. 189). He goes on to explain that the lack of standard L2 motivation questionnaires is due to "the prominent social dependability of L2 motivation". In other words, every questionnaire in L2 motivation research has to be rooted in the social environment of the participants. The two scales together have thirty items (20 items for the LLOS-IEA and 10 items for the Oil Project Effect Scale). The LLOS-IEA has seven scales including Amotivation (Items 1 and 2); External Regulation (Items 3, 4, and 5), Introjected Regulation (Items 6, 7, and 8); Identified Regulation (Items 9, 10, and 11). These scales make up Extrinsic Motivation. Intrinsic Motivation includes Intrinsic motivation-Knowledge (Items 12, 13, and 14); Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment (Items 15, 16, and 17); Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation (Items 18, 19, and 20). The remaining items belong to the oil project effect scale. However, in the actual scales given out to subjects, the items will be scrambled so as not to have a leading factor on respondents. All the items will be Likert-type items. Here are the two scales followed by their French versions.

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic information

1. I am a: Female Male

2. Major/Department: _____ 3. Year: _____

Section I: Language Learning Orientation Scale - Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation (LLOS-IEA; Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 2001)

Instructions: Please read each statement below carefully and circle the number in front of each statement that most corresponds to your reasons to learn English.

- 1 = Does Not Correspond At All
- 2 = Corresponds Very little
- 3 = Corresponds a Little
- 4 = Corresponds Moderately
- 5 = Corresponds a lot
- 6 = Corresponds Almost Exactly
- 7 = Corresponds Exactly

Why are you learning English?

1. I cannot come to see why I study English, and frankly, I don't care. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Honestly, I don't know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying English 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Because I have the impression that it is expected of me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. In order to get a more prestigious job later on 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. In order to have a better salary later on 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. I show myself that I am an educated person because I can speak English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because I would feel ashamed if I could not speak English with my colleagues at school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Because I would feel inferior if I did not know English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Because I chose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Because I think it is good for my personal development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Because I chose to be the kind of person who can speak another international language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about the literature of English-speaking nations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring the knowledge about the English-speaking community and their way of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in studying in English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. For the excitement I feel when hearing English language spoken	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. For the excitement feeling that I experience while speaking in English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. For the pleasure I get from hearing English spoken by native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section II: The Oil Project Effect Scale

Instructions: In the section below, please read each statement carefully and circle the number in front of each statement that most corresponds to your perception of the relationship between the oil project in Chad and your reasons to study or not to want to study English.

- 1 = Does Not Correspond At All
- 2 = Corresponds Very little
- 3 = Corresponds a Little
- 4 = Corresponds Moderately
- 5 = Corresponds a lot
- 6 = Corresponds Almost Exactly
- 7 = Corresponds Exactly

1. The oil project in Chad has a lot to do with my decision to learn English now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would not be studying English today if not for the oil discovery in Chad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. English is now more useful in Chad than it was before the oil project	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Knowing English gives me a good chance of getting a job in the oil field	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even if I don't get a job in the oil project, I need to learn English because more English-speaking people will come to Chad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I put more effort in studying English now than before the oil project	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. As a result of the oil project in Chad, I have a more positive attitude toward English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The oil project made me aware of the importance of English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My knowledge of English will be a determining factor in getting a job in the oil project	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. I know about the oil project and its potential for employment

FRENCH VERSION

QUESTIONNAIRE

Données démographiques

1. Genre (Encerclez, SVP): Féminin Masculin
2. Filière: _____ 3. Année: _____

Section I: Echelle d'Orientations en Apprentissage des Langues - Motivation Intrinsèque, Motivation Extrinsèque, et Amotivation (LLOS-IEA; Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 2001)

Instructions: Lisez attentivement les énoncés suivants et encerclez le chiffre qui correspond au degré d'exactitude entre chaque énoncé et les raisons pour lesquelles vous étudiez ou n'aimeriez pas étudier l'Anglais. Veuillez utiliser l'échelle ci-dessous.

- 1 = Ne Correspond Pas du Tout
- 2 = Correspond Très peu
- 3 = Correspond un peu
- 4 = Correspond Modèremment
- 5 = Correspond beaucoup
- 6 = Correspond Presque Exactement
- 7 = Correspond Exactement

Pourquoi apprenez vous l'Anglais?

1. Honnêtement, je ne sais pas; j'ai réellement l'impression de perdre mon temps en étudiant l'Anglais.

2. Je n'arrive pas à comprendre pourquoi je dois étudier l'Anglais, et franchement, je m'en fous.

3. De façon à obtenir un emploi plus prestigieux.

4. De façon à obtenir un meilleur salaire plus tard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Pour les avantages que je peux retirer de mon admission dans la communauté anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Pour me prouver que je suis un intellectuel parce que je parle l'anglais	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Parce que je me sentirais coupable de ne pas parler une langue internationale comme l'Anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Parce que j'aurais honte de ne pouvoir parler à mes amis anglophones en Anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Parce que je pense que c'est bon pour mon développement personnel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Parce que j'ai choisi d'être le genre de personne qui parle plus d'une langue étrangère.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Parce que j'ai choisi d'être le genre de personne qui peut parler anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Parce que j'aime le sentiment d'apprendre de nouvelles choses sur les pays anglophones et leur mode de vie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. Pour le plaisir d'accroître mes connaissances en littérature anglophone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Pour la satisfaction que j'éprouve à découvrir de nouvelles choses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Pour le grand plaisir que j'éprouve lorsque j'entends une langue étrangère	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Pour le plaisir que je ressens lorsque j'entends l'anglais parlé par les anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Pour le plaisir que je ressens lorsque je parle anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Pour le plaisir que je ressens lorsque je comprends une phrase difficile en Anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Pour le plaisir que je ressens lorsque je me surpasse dans mon étude de l'Anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Pour la satisfaction que j'éprouve quand je suis dans le processus de résoudre des exercices difficiles en Anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section II: Echelle de l'Effet du Projet Pétrolier

Instructions: Comme dans la section précédente, lisez attentivement les énoncés suivants et encerclez le chiffre devant chaque énoncé qui correspond à votre perception de l'importance du projet pétrolier au Tchad et son influence sur votre motivation à apprendre l'Anglais. S'il vous plait, utilisez la grille ci-dessous:

- 1 = Ne Correspond Pas du Tout
- 2 = Correspond très peu
- 3 = Correspond un peu
- 4 = Correspond modèrément
- 5 = Correspond beaucoup
- 6 = Correspond Presque Exactement
- 7 = Correspond Exactement

1. Ma décision d'étudier l'Anglais a été influencée par le projet pétrolier au Tchad. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Je n'aurais pas envie d'étudier l'Anglais aujourd'hui si ce n'était pas à cause du projet pétrolier au Tchad. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. L'Anglais est aujourd'hui plus utile au Tchad qu'il ne l'était avant le projet pétrolier. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Connaître l'Anglais me donne une meilleure chance d'avoir un boulot dans le secteur pétrolier. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Même si je n'obtiens pas un boulot dans le projet pétrolier, j'ai toujours besoin de connaître l'Anglais parce beaucoup d'anglophones viendront au Tchad. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Je m'efforce plus à étudier l'Anglais aujourd'hui plus qu'auparavant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. A cause du projet pétrole au Tchad, j'ai une attitude plus positive à l'égard de la langue anglaise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Le projet pétrolier m'a fait prendre conscience de l'importance de l'anglais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Ma connaissance de l'Anglais sera un facteur déterminant pour travailler dans le secteur pétrolier au Tchad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Je suis conscient(e) du projet pétrolier et de son potentiel pour l'emploi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PILOT STUDY REPORT

Introduction

Before collecting data for this research, I set out to conduct a pilot study to test the validity and reliability of the two scales to be used in the study. They are the Language Learning Orientation Scale - Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation (LLOS-IEA) by Noels, Clement, & Pelletier (2001) and the Oil Project Effect Scale (OPES) designed by myself. The goal of the pilot study was to collect 60 questionnaires from four majors: English, Engineering, Business, and Chemistry/Geology.

After preliminary contacts were made with the different chairs of the majors involved in the study, I prepared sixty questionnaires to be filled out by students independently as opposed to group administration. The first difficulty came when I learned that the Chemistry/Geology major does not offer English classes. As a matter of fact, the only department in the entire *Faculté des Sciences Exactes et Appliquées* (The College of Exact and Applied Sciences) is the department of Computer Sciences (*Département de Maths Informatiques*). The department has a total of nine students. Since this was a pilot study, and given the similarity of the subjects in the Computer Sciences with the ones selected in this study, I decided to use them in the pilot study.

Therefore, I handed out nine questionnaires to the students in the Computer Sciences major, fifteen to the Engineering students, fifteen to the Business students and fifteen to the English students. However, because the professor who administered the questionnaires for Business and English majors is the same, I ended up with 19 filled questionnaires for the English majors and 11 from the Business students. Ten questionnaires were collected from the Engineering majors as well as the Business subjects. Eight more were gathered from the Computer Sciences students for a total of 47 returned questionnaires. Of those 47 participants, there were only 10 females. There was no female participant among the Engineering and Computer Sciences majors.

All the returned questionnaires were coded as follows and entered into an Excel spread sheet. The first digit represented the major (1 = English; 2 = Engineering; 3 = Business; and 4 = Computer Sciences). The second two digits stood for gender (01 = male and 02 = female). The last set of two digits was for the respondent's order. One questionnaire from the Computer Sciences subjects was discarded as the participant missed the entire Oil Project Effect scale. Therefore, I was left with 46 questionnaires. Of this total, 31 subjects completed every single item on the LLOS-IEA and 41 people did the same on the Oil Project Effect scale. The data were entered in SPSS 12.0 and gave the following reliability coefficients (See output in Appendix).

Cronbach's Alpha for the LLOS-IEA was .794. A similar reliability coefficient was reached in the OPE scale at .776. Even though the ideal Cronbach's Alpha is .80 or higher (Dornyei, 2003), these two reliability coefficients can be considered as "Acceptable" (George and Mallery, 2003). This is a good reliability coefficient when we consider the rather small sample sizes in the pilot study.

A look at Chronbach's Alpha "If Item deleted" column reveals two items that, if deleted, the reliability coefficient of the scale could be at .801 in each case. These are Item 4 (I show myself that I am an educated person because I can speak English) and Item 17 (Because I would feel inferior if I did not know English) on the LLOS-IEA scale. Similarly, the OPE scale output from SPSS shows two items that, if deleted could cause the reliability coefficient of the scale to go up at .787 for Item 1 (The oil project in Chad has a lot to do with my decision to learn English now) and .781 for Item 5 (Even if I don't get a job in the oil project, I still need to learn English because more English-speaking people will come to Chad). As can be seen for both scales, no single item significantly changes the reliability rate of the scales so that it needs to be deleted. Even the two items in question seem to be almost neutral and their presence or absence would not affect the reliability substantially.

Conclusion

46 subjects participated in this pilot study, which aimed at 60. The two scales involved in the pilot yielded internal consistency coefficients of .794 and .776

respectively. The LLOS-IEA is a validated scale and was assessed for its context validity. The newly developed Oil Project Effect scale proved valid and reliable as shown by its Chronbach's Alpha of .776. Therefore, no item will be deleted from either scale as no item proved openly problematic. The two scales will be used as is to collect data for the present study about the effects of a new socio-economic context, major and gender on the motivational orientations of Chadian university EFL students. Minor changes were done on the questionnaire layout such as bolding the item numbers so as to make them more visible to the participants. Some typographical errors in Items 2 and 16 of the LLOS-IEA scale were corrected. However, the concern that this pilot study revealed and that is worth considering is the inexistence of English language instruction in Chemistry/Geology majors. As a result, this major was dropped and the study, henceforth, included three majors: English, Engineering, and Business.

Data collection

The data for the pilot study was collected in late May of 2004 by myself as I was in Chad for a brief sojourn. The instruments described and presented above were used. Given the linguistic and cultural differences between the place where the adapted scales were first developed (Canada) and Chad, the context of application of the questionnaire, a pilot test was necessary to address the issues of internal reliability and construct validity. After analysis of the results of the pilot test, the adjusted questionnaire was sent back for a data collection from a bigger sample of about 200 students enrolled in the three departments of the University of NDjaména (See Sampling) and the school of Engineering. My two research assistants were clearly instructed not to included students who participated in the pilot study.

Scoring the Questionnaire

Both scales in the questionnaire were scored according to the following preset measures. The LLOS-IEA as well as the Oil Project Effect scales were scored based on a seven-point scale that ranks from "Does not correspond At All" = 1 to "Corresponds Exactly" = 7 (Noels, et al., 2000; 2001). Any item that averaged 3 or less is considered "low" and any item averaging 4 or more was considered "high". First some background information is needed to explain the

results of the analysis. All the items on the Oil Project Effect Scale are positively worded towards the relationship between the English language and the oil project in Chad. Therefore, a high score (4 or more) on these items means a higher degree of agreement by the subjects on the positive role of the oil project in motivating them to learn English.

Data Analysis

The data thus collected were analyzed in the following steps. In the first step, reliability analyses were conducted. This was to test both scales' internal consistency or reliability. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency was therefore calculated for the ten items in the "Oil Project Effect" scale and the twenty items in the LLOS-IEA scale. Both scales yielded Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .69 for the LLOS-IEA scale and .78 for the Oil Project Effect scale.

The procedure described above was only used in the pilot test. In the study itself, however, descriptive statistics was used first. The means, standard deviations, and ranges were calculated for all subjects as the assumption of normal distribution was made. Therefore, for each of the scales, a high score on each item classified the subjects under the appropriate construct. This descriptive analysis was applied to Question 1 (What is the effect of major and gender on the motivational orientations of Chadian university EFL students?) and Question 2 (What is the effect of major and gender on students' expectations regarding the oil project?). Descriptive statistics was followed by a one-way ANOVA and correlations to assess any effects or relationships between major and gender as suggested in questions 1 and 2. Finally, a two-way ANOVA was conducted to assess the effects of major and the oil project effect on the orientations of Chadian college students to study English (Question 3: What is the effect of major, gender and the oil project on the students' motivational orientations?).

Choice of statistical tests

I opted for parametric measures such as ANOVA against a non-parametric equivalent such as Chi-square because of the assumption of normal distribution based on the sample size. In fact, the assumption of normality is robust in this study as the sample includes the whole population of

the English majors and relies on random sampling of the subjects from the other majors for a total of 200 subjects. It is generally considered a serious mistake to use a non-parametric procedure when normality can be assumed (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

Green, Salkind & Akey (2000) contend that the three basic assumptions for using two-way ANOVA are:

- 1) The dependent variable is normally distributed for each of the populations. It is the case in this study as the dependent variable (motivational orientations will presumably vary according to each subject).
- 2) The population variances of the dependent variable are the same for all cells.
- 3) The cases represent random samples from the populations, and the scores on the dependent variable are independent of each other.

According to Hatch & Lazaraton (1991), "[T]he advantage of using a Factorial ANOVA is that we can look not only at the effect of each independent variable but also the interaction effects in the combination of different independent variables" (p. 370). All these analysis were using the SPSS 12.0 statistical program. The assumptions for using factorial ANOVA include all the ones made to use ANOVA.

After the collection of data, however, some problems that were feared early in this dissertation became a reality. In fact, it was feared that there would be too few females, especially in Business and Engineering majors. There was also concern about a particularly low return rate for the survey. Students in Chad are not used to any kind of study in general, let alone survey studies. It is generally admitted that adults are difficult to survey for diverse reasons (Dornyei, 2003). It was indeed difficult to obtain data from college students in Chad for all those reasons but also because of the lack of addresses where the questionnaires could be sent or returned to.

Sure enough, the main roadblock was the lack of females in the samples. There were only 12 females out of 102 subjects in the English major, 5 out 53 in the Engineering major, and only 2 females out of 45 subjects in the Business major for a total of 19 females in the study. A rule of thumb is to have at least 20% of females in each, which this sample is far from reaching (Hatch & Lazaraton,

1991). As a result of the lack of sufficient female subjects, the initially proposed statistical analyses were altered or replaced by others. One-way ANOVA, t-tests, and correlations replaced two-way ANOVA in Questions 1 and 2. Factorial ANOVA was dropped and a two-way ANOVA was used in Question 3.

As stated earlier, the advantage of two-way and factorial ANOVA over simple or one-way ANOVA is to find eventual interactions between two or more independent variables on a dependent one. Although the gender variable could not be validly used in those two analyses mentioned above, it was used as a separate variable in one-way ANOVA, t-test of independent samples, and correlations analyses. The latter tests were appropriate to analyze the data because they provide significant information within a sample. One assumption underlying Pearson correlation is that the data are measured as scores or ordinal scales that are truly continuous. The other assumption is that the scores on the two variables are independent (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). The data in this study met both assumptions. One-way ANOVA was able to compare the means by major and relate them to the students' motivational orientations. The correlational analyses allowed a search for any relationships between the majors and the motivational orientations on one hand, and between the majors and their perceptions of the oil project on the other hand. The frequency tables of the t-test were useful in interpreting the percentages of subjects who selected or did not select a given item or items.

Summary

In summary, Chapter 3 presented the participants in the study and gave the demographic variables that were chosen to be included in this study. The chapter also briefly discussed which variables were not considered in the present study. The different ways the sampling, scoring, and analysis of the data were done were outlined. A rationale as to why these were done so and not otherwise was also included for each of them. Finally, the chapter provided a rationale for excluding gender in Question 3 and substituting other statistical analyses for the ones that were initially proposed for use in this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter will report the results and findings of the study about Chadian University EFL students who participated in this investigation. The chapter will have three sections to correspond with the three main research questions in the study. Different statistical procedures including independent sample t-test, One-Way ANOVA, Two-Way ANOVA and correlations were used to analyze the data collected for this study. Overall, it was found the following: a) the English major was significantly different from the other two on Amotivation; b) scores on Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation were significantly related to the students' expectations of the oil project except for the business major; c) the subjects equally endorsed Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation; d) the subjects claimed that they would still be learning English even if there was no oil project in Chad; e) finally, there was an interaction between major and expectations of the oil project on select motivational orientations. Some results that were interesting but did not reach statistical significance will be briefly mentioned for future research purposes. The details of all these findings are reported in the following sections.

The two instruments used in the study (LLOS and OPE) were administered to students from three majors at the University of N'Djaména and at the School of Engineering (ENTP). The questionnaires were randomly given to all the students in the above mentioned majors. 110 responses were collected from the English majors, 53 from the Engineering majors and 45 from the Business majors. Of this total of 208 questionnaires collected, 8 were disregarded because they were missing vital information such as gender. Those respondents did not indicate their gender and since this had been one of the variables in the study, their answers could not be used in the analysis. Therefore, the total of responses used in this study is 200, down from 208. All 8 questionnaires that were disregarded were from the English majors. Of all the participants who responded, there were

181 males and 19 females as shown in the frequency distribution of the data in the table below. The Row percentages indicate the percentage of males and females within the major whereas the Column percentages compare the proportion of males and females in the major against the whole sample.

Table 4.1: Crosstabulation of data by major and by gender.

			GENDER		Total
			Male	Female	
GROUP	English	Count	90	12	102
		Row %	88.2%	11.8%	100.0%
		Column %	49.7%	63.2%	51.0%
		Total %	45.0%	6.0%	51.0%
	Engineering	Count	48	5	53
		Row %	90.6%	9.4%	100.0%
		Column %	26.5%	26.3%	26.5%
		Total %	24.0%	2.5%	26.5%
	Business	Count	43	2	45
		Row %	95.6%	4.4%	100.0%
		Column %	23.8%	10.5%	22.5%
		Total %	21.5%	1.0%	22.5%
Total	Count	181	19	200	
	Row %	90.5%	9.5%	100.0%	
	Column %	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	Total %	90.5%	9.5%	100.0%	

The first thing that is noticeable when looking at this table is the small number of female participants in the students despite the fact that gender is one of the variables. The situation, unfortunately, reflects closely the composition of the student population in the University of N'Djaména. The pilot study revealed a ratio of four males to one female and it was believed that the trend would be carried in the study data. Obviously, it was not the case. Another fact that stands out is the higher number of English major respondents as opposed to the other two majors: Engineering and Business. In fact, we can see that more than half of the respondents (51%) are English majors. This percentage is also reflective of the demographics of the university as a whole, where there are more students registered in the department of English than in those other two. The following table shows the different groups

involved in this study and the descriptive statistics on the two scales.

Table 4.2: Group statistics of the participants in the study by scale and major.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LS_MEAN	English	102	4.1614	.78375	.07760	4.0075	4.3154
	Engineering	53	4.3727	.71656	.09843	4.1751	4.5702
	Business	45	4.0222	.63457	.09460	3.8316	4.2129
	Total	200	4.1861	.74204	.05247	4.0826	4.2896
OS_MEAN	English	102	4.4412	1.08983	.10791	4.2271	4.6553
	Engineering	53	4.8384	1.09086	.14984	4.5377	5.1391
	Business	45	4.4956	1.30714	.19486	4.1028	4.8883
	Total	200	4.5587	1.14907	.08125	4.3985	4.7189

Motivational Orientations

The first question of the study was "What is the effect of gender and major on the motivational orientations of Chadian university EFL students?". To answer this question, however, it was necessary to first find out into which of the three broad motivational orientations categories (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) did Chadian university students who learn English as a foreign language fall. To accomplish this goal, I used SPSS 12.0 to run a one-way Analysis of Variance. The SPSS output (see table 4.3 below) shows a low average mean of 1.68 for all the three groups (English: 1.35; Engineering: 2.20; and Business: 1.81) on the Amotivation subscale. The deduction that can be made from this statistic is that most students, regardless of their major, reject amotivation, that is, they do not feel like learning English is useless. Reasons for such a feeling are further discussed in Chapter 5.

In the meantime, it was worth considering in more depth the two items included in the Amotivation subscale of the questionnaire (Item 15: I cannot come to see why I study English, and frankly I don't care; and Item 18: Honestly, I don't know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying English). These two items have the lowest mean across the three groups of students with

M = 1.35 for English majors, M = 2.20 for Engineering majors, and M = 1.81 for Business majors. The English majors' mean is significantly different ($p < .001$) from the other two majors. The results of post hoc Scheffe and Duncan tests attest to this fact. In fact, 77.6% (Item 15) and 75% (Item 18) of all the subjects scored the lowest possible score of all the items on the LLOS-IEA scale (See Appendix). Such a low score is expected in English majors as shown elsewhere (Noels et al., 2001) but very uncharacteristic of the other two majors where English is an academic requirement and not a willful choice.

The Extrinsic Motivation subscale was operationalized by the following items: items 1 (Because I have the impression that it is expected of me), 3 (Because I chose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language), 4 (I show myself that I am an educated person because I can speak English), 12 (Because I think it is good for my personal development), 14 (Because I would feel ashamed if I could not speak English with my colleagues at school), 16 (In order to get a more prestigious job), 17 (Because I would feel inferior if I did not know English), 19 (In order to have a better salary later on) and 20 (Because I chose to be the kind of person who can speak another international language). The Intrinsic Motivation subscale is composed of all the other items remaining on the LLOS-IEA scale except for Items 15 and 18 which belong to the Amotivation subscale. These two categories of motivation failed to be significantly different from each other in all three groups. However, a look at the group statistics shows the Engineering majors with a slight advantage over the other groups on the Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation subscales as in the table below.

Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics of students' motivational orientations per major

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
AMOTIVAT	English	98	1.3520	.85618	.08649	1.1804	1.5237
	Engineering	53	2.2075	1.52364	.20929	1.7876	2.6275
	Business	45	1.8111	1.31551	.19610	1.4159	2.2063
	Total	196	1.6888	1.22791	.08771	1.5158	1.8618
EXTMOT	English	102	4.3652	.85472	.08463	4.1973	4.5331
	Engineering	53	4.3906	.76804	.10550	4.1790	4.6023
	Business	45	4.1062	.90483	.13488	3.8343	4.3780
	Total	200	4.3136	.84771	.05994	4.1954	4.4319
INTMOT	English	102	4.5592	1.13522	.11240	4.3363	4.7822
	Engineering	53	4.8446	1.09265	.15009	4.5434	5.1458
	Business	45	4.4296	.77038	.11484	4.1982	4.6611
	Total	200	4.6057	1.05858	.07485	4.4581	4.7533

In EFL contexts, students are expected to be more instrumentally motivated, that is, more extrinsically motivated than integratively or intrinsically motivated (Dornyei, 1990). The results of this study, however, show almost equal means on both Extrinsic Motivation (English = 4.36; Engineering = 4.39; Business = 4.10) and Intrinsic motivation (English = 4.55; Engineering = 4.84; Business = 4.26).

To answer Question 1 (What is the effect of gender and major on the motivational orientations of university EFL students to learn English as a Foreign Language?) effectively, a two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) would have been used. However, the sample did not have enough female subjects to run such an analysis. Therefore a one-way ANOVA was used instead to assess the effect of the major on the motivational orientations of the subjects. The English majors scored significantly different from the other two majors on the Amotivation subscale of the LLOS as shown in Table 4.3 above.

It was not possible to investigate the effect of gender per major. However, a two-tailed t-test was run by gender to assess any influence it has on the motivational orientations of all subjects as a group (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Descriptive statistics of motivational orientations by gender

			N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AMOTIVAT	GENDER	Male	177	1.7147	1.25870	.09461
		Female	19	1.4474	.88026	.20194
EXTMOT	GENDER	Male	181	4.2988	.87253	.06485
		Female	19	4.4547	.55534	.12740
INTMOT	GENDER	Male	181	4.5848	1.05781	.07863
		Female	19	4.8047	1.07372	.24633

In conclusion, other than the Amotivation category where English major was a clear factor, neither gender nor major significantly affected students' motivational orientations in the other two majors as seen in the Tables 4.3 and 4.4 above.

Question 2: What is the effect of gender and major on the students' expectations regarding the oil projects? Very similar to Question 1, this question would have necessitated the use of a two-way ANOVA to investigate the effect of the two independent variables (gender and major) on the dependent variable which is the students' expectations regarding the oil project. Again, the lack of sufficient female subjects made it impossible to run this analysis. I opted for a correlation analysis through the computation of Pearson's Product-Moment correlation coefficient to explore any relationship between major then gender and the students' attitudes toward the oil project. The results yielded some interesting findings.

Before exploring the relationship between students' gender, major, and their expectations of the oil project, we needed to find out those expectations. Therefore, descriptive analysis was needed to calculate the subjects' scores on the OPE scale. Frequency tables were drawn for all the items in the scale (see Appendix). The overall mean of the scale is 4.55 and the standard deviation is 1.14. Other than the first item (OS1) and the second item (OS2) with means of 2.99 and 2.15 respectively, all the other items yielded means higher than the scale mean.

The overall group results show that more than 62% of the subjects did not think that their decision to study

English had anything to do with the oil project (Item OS1). This result is understandable considering the fact that all of those students started to learn English in their first year of middle school. About 80% of the students claimed that they would still study English even if there were no oil project in Chad (Item OS2). This finding was probably related to their response to Item OS1 above. However, 75% of the subjects in the study believe that English was more useful today in Chad than before the oil project (OS3). Accordingly, more than 90% of the subjects stated that even if they didn't get a job in the oil project, they still needed to learn English because more English-speaking people would be coming to Chad as a result of the oil industry (Item OS5).

I next conducted a correlational analysis to check any relationship between each major and the students' perceptions of the oil project as measured by the OS scale. The Pearson Product-Moment correlation in SPSS 12.0 was used. Overall, the two scales were significantly correlated ($p < .05$) when comparing English ($r = .29$) and Engineering ($r = .46$). Both scales were significantly correlated to Extrinsic Motivation with $r = .78$ (LLOS-IEA) and $r = .34$ for the Oil Project Effect scale for all the subjects. The scales also had significant correlations with Intrinsic Motivation. However, as could be expected, the Amotivation subscale was not significantly related to the OPE as shown by their very low correlation coefficient of $r = .16$.

In regard to major, with a correlation coefficient of $r = .30$ and $r = .46$ respectively, the English and Engineering scores on the LLOS-IEA were significantly related to their scores on the OPE scale ($p < .01$ and $p < .001$). The English and Engineering subjects who were amotivated tended to score lower on the OPE scale and those who are motivated on that scale tended to score higher on the Oil Project Effect scale. In other words, those subjects in English and Engineering saw the oil project as a source of motivation to study English. This feeling was supported by high percentages on behalf of the subjects in those two groups. In fact, 85% of the subjects in the Engineering group agreed that they put more effort in studying English now than before the oil project (OS6) and 83% reported that they knew about the oil project and its potential for employment (OS10). This percentage was 76.4% and 71.2% respectively for the English majors. In the English major, for example, the correlation between the OPE

scale and the Amotivation subscale was negative ($r = -.07$). This statistic means that the lower the subjects scored on the Amotivation subscale, the higher they scored on the Oil scale.

It must be noted that only 68.5% of the subjects in this study believed that their knowledge of English was a determinant factor in getting a job in the oil project (OS9). This relatively low percentage compared to the overall percentage of the subjects who admitted putting more effort in studying English (78.6%) and acknowledged the potential of the oil project for employment (78%) may have a sociocultural explanation. In fact, the popular saying that goes, "It's not what you know but who you know" is even truer in Chad. Therefore, Chadian university students believe that they need to do their best to qualify for jobs in the oil industry. Yet, they feel that the determining factor in getting a job in that field may lie somewhere else, in the hands of somebody with more social power. However, 75.5% of the subjects agreed that knowing English gives them a good chance of getting a job in the oil industry (OS4).

As far as gender was concerned, males' scores on the OPE were significantly related on the Amotivation and Extrinsic motivation subscales with p values of .04 and .001 respectively and a correlation coefficient $r = .15$ and $r = .33$. The relationship on the Intrinsic subscale was not significant. This makes good sense because those intrinsically motivated do not need an external source of motivation such as the oil project. The female scores were only significantly different for the Extrinsic motivation subscale with a correlation coefficient $r = .69$. As would be expected, the females who scored high on the Extrinsic motivation subscale also scored high on the oil project scale.

Question 3: What is the effect of major, gender, and the oil project on the motivational orientations of the students?

This question was an attempt to explore the combined influence of the three independent variables (major, gender and the oil project) on the motivational orientations of the students to learn English as a foreign language. Therefore, I conducted once again a correlational analysis of the data to investigate any relationship between the students' gender, major, attitudes towards the oil project

and their motivational orientations. Since the relationship between gender, major and the students' motivational orientations has already been explored when answering Question 1, only the relationship between the students' perceptions of the oil project and their motivational orientations was investigated here in Question 3. However, these perceptions were also explored by gender and major. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to assess the interaction of major and the oil project effect as measured by the OPE scale. The results are described below.

The Pearson Product-Moment correlation was calculated in SPSS Version 12.0. I was primarily interested in the Extrinsic Motivation subscale. According to the SDT literature, students who scored high on that subscale would also be more interested in situations like the oil project in Chad. A look at the SPSS output for all the groups revealed a correlation coefficient $r = .34$ between the scores on the Extrinsic Motivation subscale and the OPE scale. This relationship may seem low but it was in fact significant at the .001 p level. Taking a step further, I explored this relationship at the major and gender levels.

At the major level, one could notice a higher correlation coefficient ($r = .42$) for the English majors. This relationship was significant at the .001 confidence level. Another interesting result in the English major group was that there was a negative correlation between the Amotivation subscale and the OPE scale. This clearly showed that this particular group of students was less amotivated and more extrinsically motivated by the perceived benefits of the oil project. Their Amotivation mean (1.35) was the lowest and their Extrinsic mean of 4.36 was the second highest after the Engineering major.

In the Engineering group, a positive correlation could be seen between the Extrinsic subscale and the OPE scale as witnessed by the correlation coefficient of $r = .44$, significant at the .001 p level. It is the only significant relationship for the group among all three categories of motivation (Amotivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Intrinsic Motivation).

Overall, the subjects' perceptions of the oil project bear some relationship to their motivational orientations. As seen in the results of the correlational analysis above, their scores on their perceptions of the oil project are

significantly related to their scores on the motivational orientations, which in this case, is the Extrinsic motivation.

I took a step further and broke down the two constructs of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation into its different components. External Motivation is composed of External regulation, Introjected Regulation, and Identified Regulation. Intrinsic Motivation, on the other hand, comprises Intrinsic motivation-Knowledge, Intrinsic motivation-Accomplishment, and Intrinsic motivation-Stimulation. I then ran a t-test of independent samples to look for any differences among the means by major and gender. The results failed to reach statistical significance except for the Intrinsic motivation-Accomplishment ($p < .05$). However, some patterns resulted that will be reported towards the end of this chapter.

Finally, a two-way ANOVA was run between the independent variables: major and oil project effect and the students' motivational orientations as measured by the LLOS-IEA scale. Gender was dropped from this analysis for the same reasons already stated. For the oil project effect to be an independent variable, it had to be categorized into "low" (3 and less) and "high" (4 and more). Thus, for the whole sample, 56 subjects had "low" scores and 144 people had "high" scores (See Table 4.5 below). In other words, 28% of the subjects scored "low" and 72% scored "high". Each of the seven subscales of LLOS-IEA was used as a dependent variable. As can be seen in the table below, about one third of each group scored "low" on the Oil Project Effect scale.

Table 4.5: Frequency distribution of the OPE scale between "low" and "high".

		OS GRP		Total
		Low	High	
GROUP	English	31	71	102
	Engineering	10	43	53
	Business	15	30	45
Total		56	144	200

The analysis first included the three categories of motivational orientations (Amotivation, Extrinsic

Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation). Next, the components of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation were also entered as dependent variables in the two-way ANOVA. The results at the univariate level of the three categories show that there is a significant major-by-oil project interaction ($\lambda = .861$) that determines the motivational orientations of students on Extrinsic Motivation. There is a similar interaction between major and oil project expectations on the Amotivation subscale ($\lambda = .623$). No interaction was found for Intrinsic Motivation. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 below show those interactions. At the six components' level, an interaction was noted for External Regulation ($\lambda = 1.000$), Introjected Regulation ($\lambda = .596$) and Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation ($\lambda = .596$). Figures 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 show the different interactions at the subconstructs' level. All those interactions were significant at $p < .001$ except for the Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation which had a p value of $.05$.

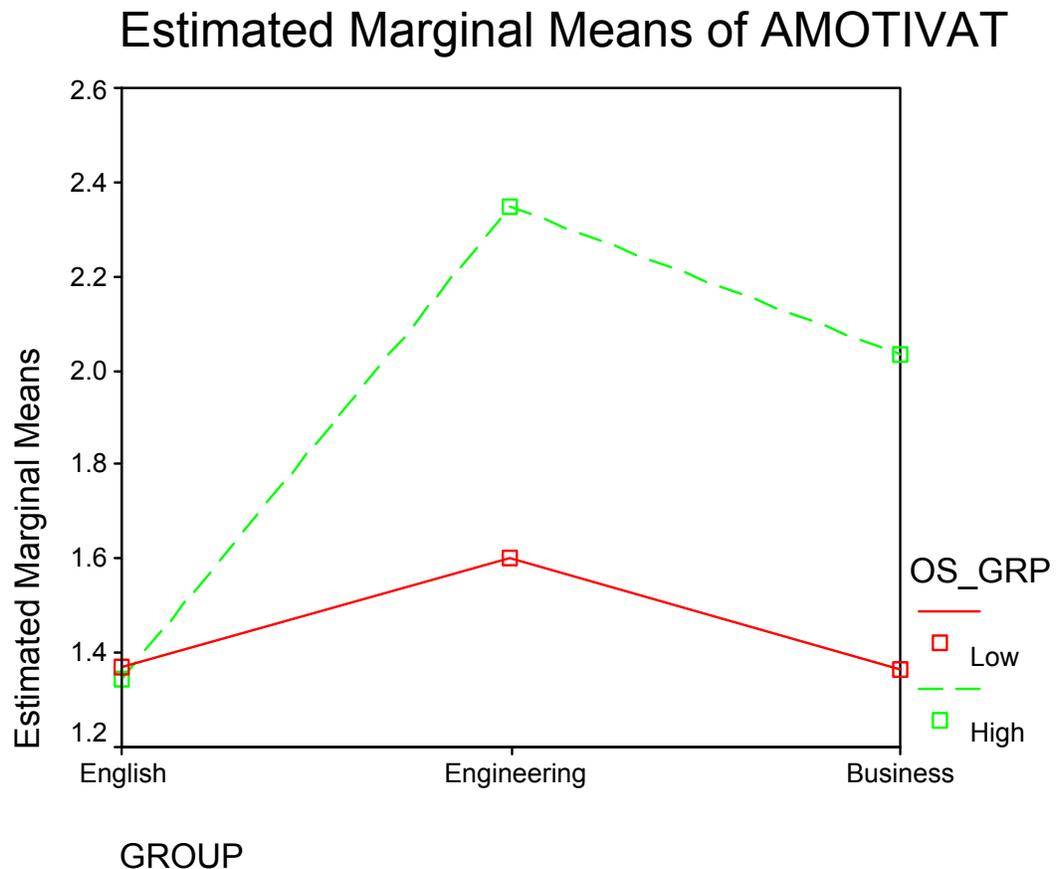


Figure 4.1: Profile plots of interaction between major and oil project effect on the Amotivation subscale.

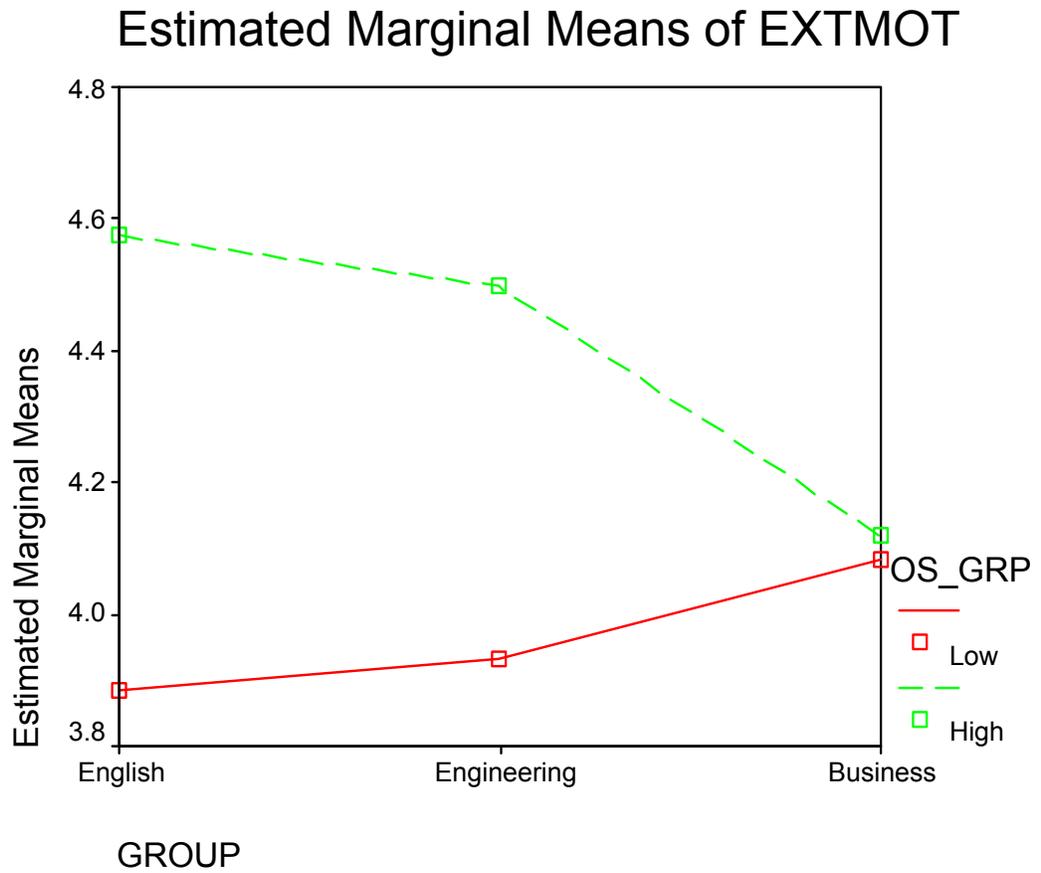


Figure 4.2: Profile plots of the interaction between major, oil project effect and the Extrinsic Motivation subscale.

Estimated Marginal Means of EXTERNAL

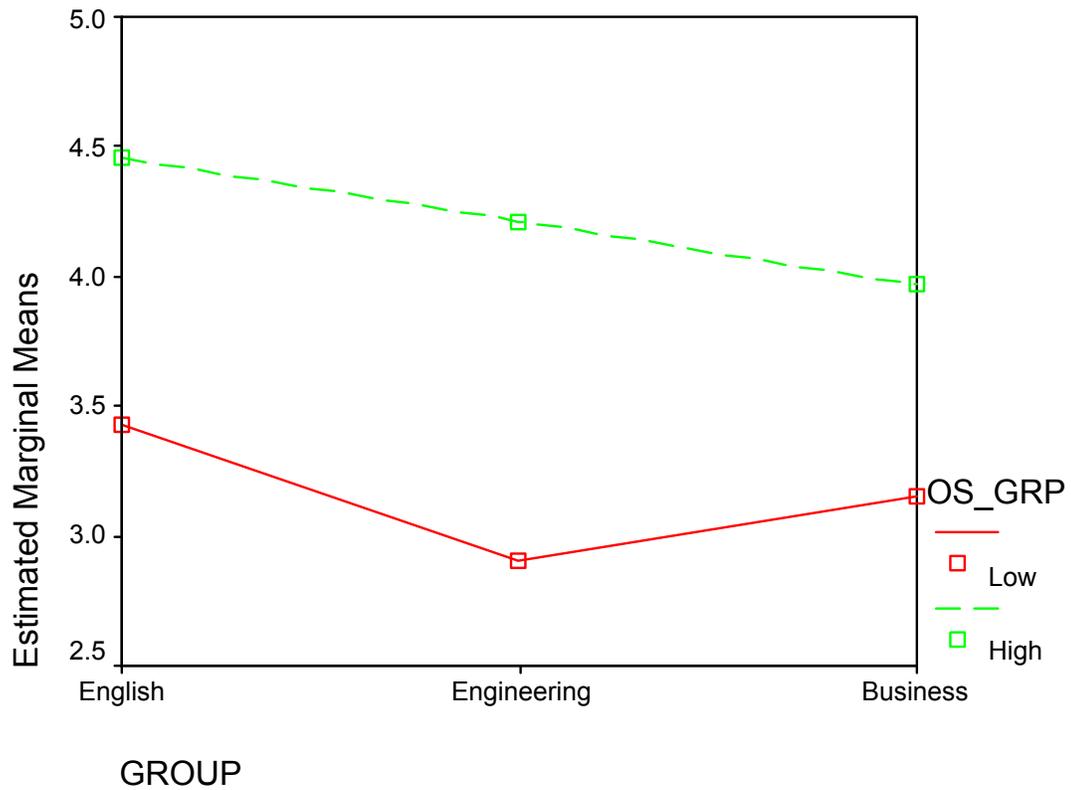


Figure 4.3: Profile plots of the interaction between major, the oil project effect and the External Regulation orientation

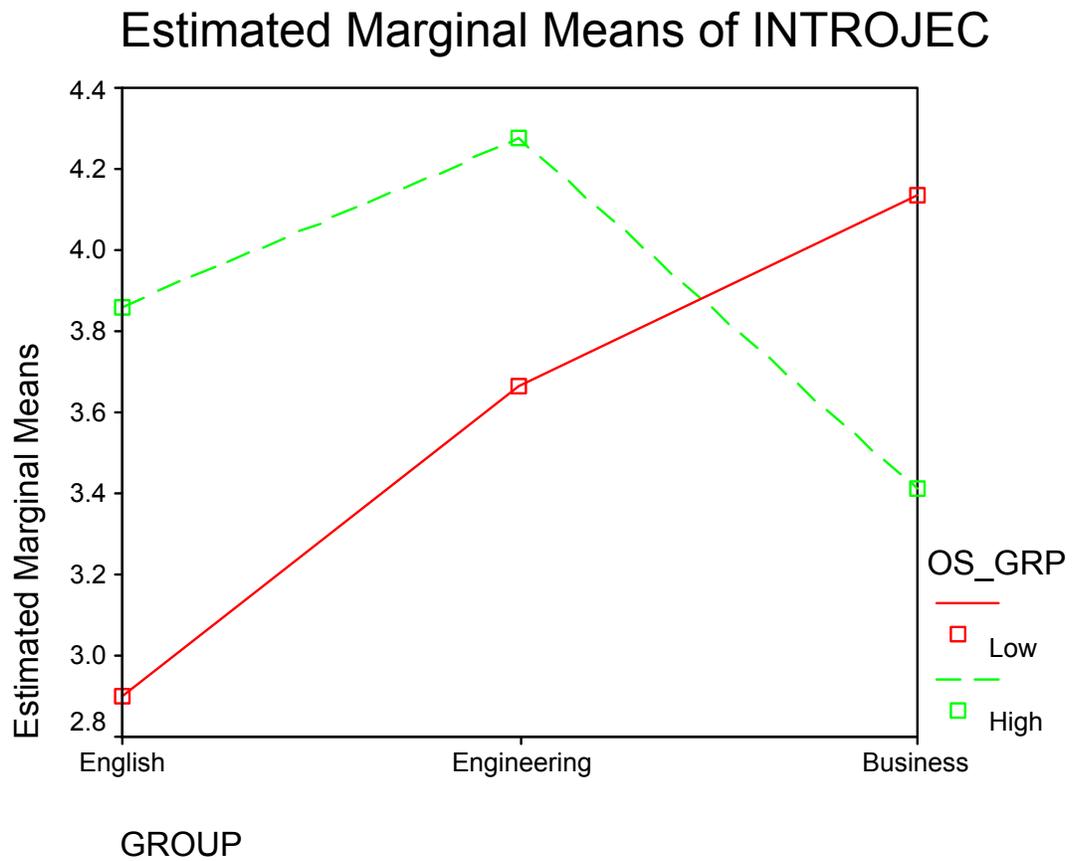


Figure 4.4: Profile plots of the interaction between major, the oil project effect and the Introjected Regulation orientation

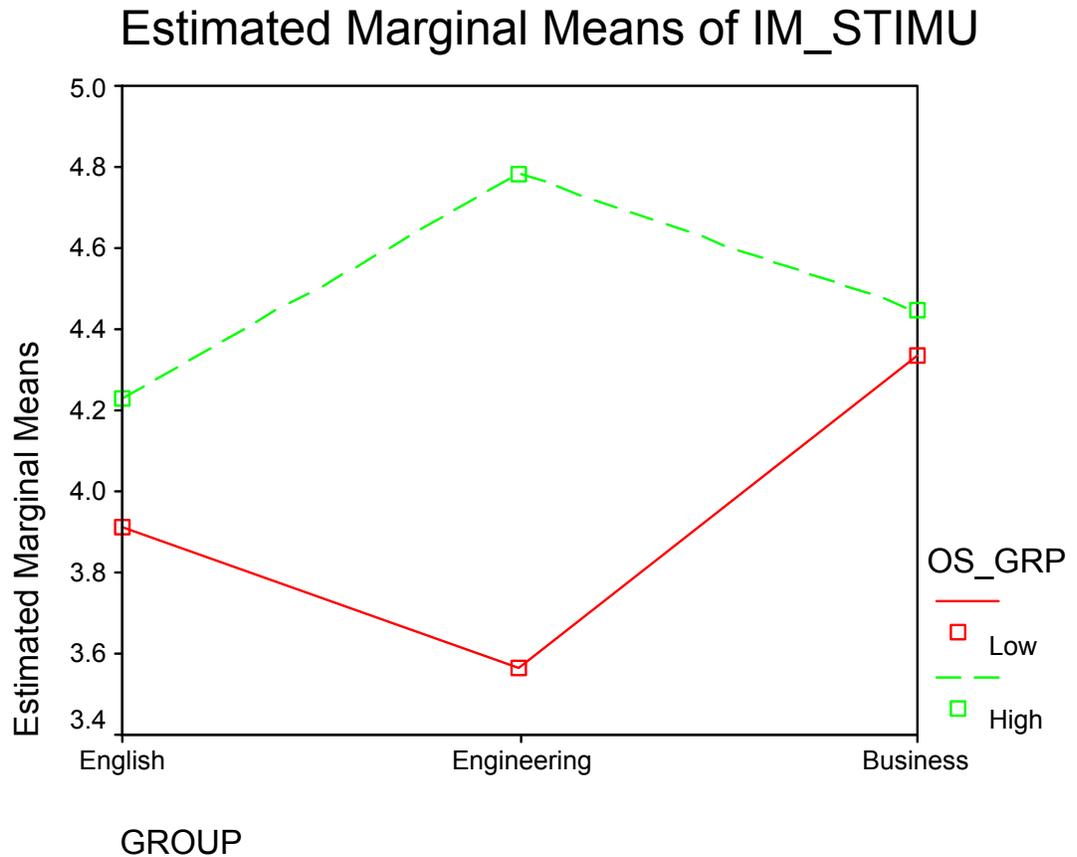


Figure 4.5: Profile plots of the interaction between major, the oil project effect and the Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation orientation.

The results of some analyses did not reach statistical significance but are intriguing enough to be reported here for future investigation. In Business, for example, the scores on both scales failed to be significantly related. The Business majors' results, even though they failed to reach statistical significance, were very interesting in regard to future research. 84.5% of these subjects acknowledged the potential of the project for employment, but only a little more than 71% agreed that they were putting in more effort in studying English than before. Similarly, only 66.7% of the Business subjects recognized that their knowledge of English was a determining factor in getting a job in the oil sector (OS9). The Business major group had the lowest correlation coefficient of all three groups at $r = .14$. This finding could be explained by the fact that Business majors may not be motivated by the oil

project because their major was in demand before the oil project and they don't think it was going to change. As a matter of fact, their Extrinsic and Intrinsic means were the lowest of all three majors and their Amotivation mean is the second lowest. In other words, the oil project does not seem to have an effect on the Business majors' motivational orientations.

The Engineering majors, once again, had the highest means on all the components of the two categories of motivation except for Identified Regulation where they were surpassed by the English majors but without reaching significance.

On the gender variable, the females scored higher than the males on all the sub-constructs except on Identified Regulation (Female Mean = 5.06; Male mean = 5.20). Unfortunately, this result did not reach significance and therefore gender was not a factor in shaping the subjects' motivational orientations.

Looking at Table 4.3, the females had again scored slightly better than the males in all three categories of motivational orientations as witnessed by their respective means. The females had lower Amotivation (M = 1.44; males: M = 1.71), higher external motivation (M = 4.45; males: M = 4.29), and higher intrinsic motivation (M = 4.80; males: M = 4.58). These mean differences, however, did not reach statistical significance.

Summary

In summary, this chapter reported the results of the study answering the three questions. The biggest shortcoming in analyzing the data from the 200 questionnaires coded for the study came from the small sample of females. This fact however was in total synchrony with the population from which this sample was drawn. There are few female students at the university level in the Chadian education system. Despite this design issue, alternative analyses were used to explore all three questions asked in the study. The following findings stood out and are worth being reported. First, as part of the answer to Question 1, the English majors were significantly different from the Engineering and the Business majors in their Amotivation orientations with the lowest Amotivation mean (M = 1.35). On the other two motivational orientations (Extrinsic and Intrinsic), the difference between all three groups and both genders failed to reach statistical significance. However, it was interesting to notice that

the Engineering students had a higher mean on both Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation. The Business majors had the lowest and second lowest means in all three motivational orientations.

Question 2 explored whether the students' gender and major were predictors of their perceptions of the oil project. This exploration was done by correlating the subjects' scores on the LLOS-IEA scale with the Oil project Effect scale. The finding was that there was a significant relationship between the major and their scores on the OPE scale. The finding was, however, not true for the Business subjects. Gender was a clear factor as both males and females' scores on Amotivation and Extrinsic Motivation failed to be significantly correlated with their scores on the OPE scale.

The third and last question of the study set out to seek any combined effect of gender, major, and oil project perceptions on the motivational orientations of the subjects. That investigation could not be conducted for lack of sufficient sample for females. Instead, a correlational analysis was done between the scores on the OPE and the students' Extrinsic motivational orientations. It was found that the Engineering subjects who had the highest Extrinsic mean (4.39) had also the highest correlation coefficient ($r = .44$) between their perceptions of the oil project and their motivational orientations. Finally a two-way ANOVA was run to investigate how major combines with students' expectations of the oil project to influence their motivational orientations. In the next chapter conclusions and implications of those findings will be drawn.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The study of second language motivation was brought to our attention over 30 years ago by the works of Canadian psychologists Wallace Lambert and Robert Gardner. Since then, this field of study has grown steadily as the importance of motivation in life in general and in second language education in particular has been shown (Gardner & Tremblay, 1990; Dornyei, 2001). In SLA, "we find that motivational concerns occupy much of our attention as we consider how to encourage lazy students to work harder, how to make language classes more inspiring, how to supplement dull teaching materials, and how different rewards and incentives work" (Dornyei, 2001, p. 1).

This study was based on the assumptions that external rewards and incentives outside the classroom influence the instruction that takes place inside the classroom. For that purpose, the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) was used. SDT was chosen in this study over Gardner's socio-education model because it is a more dynamic model that places motivation on a continuum from Amotivation to Intrinsic motivation (Noels, 2000; 2001). Gardner's model categorizes motivational orientations in two categories: integrative and instrumental (Gardner, 1985; 2000). Clément and Kruidenier (1983) expanded the orientations to four (knowledge, travel, friendship, and instrumental orientations). The most popular conceptual frameworks in the L2 motivation research include Gardner's Socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985), Weiner's Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1986; William, Burden & AlBaharna, 2001), and the Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). For a comparison of the three frameworks, see Table 2.3.

Deci & Ryan's SDT however, allows for individuals to express the degree of agreement they have toward different reasons for studying a second language. Their framework includes seven motivational constructs, which provides a framework allowing greater detail in investigating why people study second languages (Noels et al., 2000; 2001).

An extensive literature review presented the different frameworks in the study of second language motivation and provided a rationale why SDT was best for this study.

Summary and discussion of findings

SDT was used in this study to conduct a survey of students in three majors at the university of NDjaména and the school of Engineering in the same city. Two hundred male and female subjects participated in the study. The results as reported in Chapter 4 revealed some interesting findings that will be discussed here. The study sought to answer three questions posed as follows:

1. What is the effect of major and gender on the motivational orientations of Chadian university EFL students?
2. What is the effect of major and gender on students' expectations regarding the oil project?
3. What is the effect of major, gender, and the oil project on students' motivational orientations?

As stated earlier, necessary adjustments were made to account for the situation created by the insufficiency of female subjects. The new statistical analyses used yielded the following main findings that are discussed below.

First, it was found that the students in the students were overall not amotivated. This result is a particularly interesting finding when we consider the fact that the students in the Business and Engineering majors did not choose to study English but were "forced" to as part of their mandatory program of studies. Though their scores on the Amotivation subscale of the LLOS-IEA were pretty low (2.20 for Engineering and 1.81 for Business majors on a seven-point scale), they failed to be statistically significant and therefore, were reported only for future research purpose. The English majors' mean (1.35) on the same subscale was significant at a p value of .001. The finding is in line with previous studies in the field which found similar lack of amotivation among second language learners who were self-determined (Noels, et al. 2001). Similar to those bilingual Canadian subjects, the Chadian English majors may have decided for themselves that they needed this tool, the English language, to fulfill their overall goal. The mean of the English majors' in this study is a little higher than in Noels et al.'s study (M = 1.12).

All sample characteristic issues aside, this difference may have captured the struggles of the Chadian English language learners who have to deal with other issues such as the consequences of economic hardship.

Secondly, it was found a significant correlation between the LLOS and the OPE scale both at the major and gender levels. English majors had a correlation $r = .42$ and Engineering majors ($r = .44$) on the Extrinsic Motivation. Both correlations were significant at the .001 p-value. In other words, these students' motivational orientations were function of their perceptions of the oil project. This finding was expected as in SDT, extrinsically motivated students learn a language for utilitarian purposes (Noels, Pelletier & Clément, 2000; Noels, 2001; Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 2001).

At the gender level, similarly significant correlations were observed on the Amotivation subscale ($r = .15$) and Extrinsic Motivation ($r = .33$) for males. The females had correlation coefficient of .68 (the highest of all) on Extrinsic Motivation. Even though correlation is not causation, this significant relationship between the females' scores on the LLOS and the OPE scale can be seen as reflective of their positive attitudes towards the oil project in Chad.

The next finding that is worth mentioning here is the fact that all the participants in this study were equally extrinsically and intrinsically motivated. It was possible to record this finding due to the quality of the instrument used in the study. In fact, the LLOS-IEA scale is designed in such a way that it made it possible for participants to express how they felt about each construct of motivation without alienating the ones they feel most strongly about. A plausible explanation for this duality in subjects' orientations to learn English could come from the fact that the students who admire the English language for its beauty (Intrinsic motivation) also want to make the most out of it, that is, use it for instrumental, job-related goals. This attests to the flexibility of SDT, which views motivational orientations as arrayed along a continuum rather than being expressed dichotomously.

The findings on the different components of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation are also noteworthy. The Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment was significant at $p < .05$.

According to Noels et al. (2000), this component of Intrinsic Motivation characterizes second language learners who feel rewarded by effort they put into accomplishing tasks in the target language. Since no similar study in a similar context using the same theoretical framework has been done before, these findings might suggest that the subjects in this study are motivated when they understand difficult tasks in English. Brown (1994) contends that the goal of second language learning should be for students to arrive at a point where they are more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated. In other words, intrinsically motivated students have a better chance of being successful learners. They can then use the language that they have acquired for instrumental motives later on.

The results of correlation analyses between the LLOS-IEA and the Oil Project Effect scales were interesting. All the subjects' scores on both scales, regardless of major and gender, were significantly correlated as expected except for the Business majors. The Business major subjects' results were interesting even though they failed to reach statistical significance. Of all the three groups, they were the only group not to display a significant correlation between their scores on all the components of the LLOS-IEA scale and the Oil Project Effect scale. This result could be explained by the fact that Business majors may not be very motivated by the oil project because their major was in demand before the oil project and they did not think it was going to change. As a matter of fact, their Extrinsic and Intrinsic means were the lowest of all three majors and their Amotivation mean was the second highest. In other words, the oil project did not seem to have an effect on the Business majors' motivational orientations. This behavior makes sense in light of the finding by Mulumba (1993) that English was needed by those who believe that it would open doors of better job opportunities for them. The Business majors seem to be content with their job chances as they were.

Furthermore, the study found that students, overall, claimed that they would continue to study English even if there were no oil project in Chad (Item OS5). The preliminary deduction that could be made here is that even though many students claimed that their initial decision to study English had not much to do with the event of the oil exploitation in Chad, the students remained somewhat motivated by the indirect benefits of the oil project. Such

attitudes could also be related to the globalization role of English as an international language (Hall & Eggington, 2001; Tollefson, 2001). The finding also supports the SDT theory according to which, individuals will be motivated once they have determined for themselves what is best to help them attain their overall goal (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Finally, the finding that there was an interaction between the major and student expectations of the oil project on their motivational orientations is noteworthy. This finding means that student motivational orientations are a function of their major and their attitudes towards the oil project. The fact that this interaction happened with Extrinsic orientations (External Regulation and Introjected regulation) may support Eisenberg & Cameron's (1996) findings that external sources of motivation, such as the oil project in this study, do influence second language learners' motivational decisions.

However, the finding that there was a major by oil project effect interaction on the Amotivation and Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation was a surprise. Amotivated students are normally not affected by any external or internal motive (Noels et al. 2000). This finding may suggest that even though some students in this study may feel like they are not motivated (amotivated) to learn English, they still see the oil project as a major source of employment. Similarly, the finding that major and oil project interacted on the Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation was not expected. In fact L2 learners who express this orientation do not look for utilitarian benefits of the language they are learning. Their motivation to learn the language comes from the fact that they enjoy the sound of the language as spoken by native speakers. This finding among Chadian learners of English as a foreign language may suggest that, as much as they admire the beauty of this language, they also feel it can provide them some tangible benefits (Malumba, 1993).

Gender differences failed to reach significance in all three majors when motivational orientation was used as a dependent variable. Therefore, this study was not able to confirm or infirm studies in L2 motivation literature that reported the importance of gender as a variable (MacIntyre et al., 2002; Baker & MacIntyre, 2003). Baker & MacIntyre (2003), for example, found that among the nonimmersion

students at a Canadian university, females showed a higher attitude/motivation index to learn French than males. It must be noted that the nonimmersion students whose situation was the closest to the subjects in this study, that is, they were learning French as a second language, showed gender differences whereas the immersion subjects did not. The fact that the findings in this study lacked statistical significance may be attributed to the small female sample size.

Implications

The above findings in the present study have some implications that are stipulated below. The first finding in the study was that all students, but particularly English majors, did not show a sign of amotivation. The implication for this finding suggests that when students have clear goals for the study of a second language, this self-determination will sustain their motivation to learn. Students will learn despite other adverse conditions. This is particularly true in Chad where students seldom or never have access to learning materials such as books and language laboratories. Therefore, it is up to the teachers to take advantage of the students' disposition to learn and encourage autonomous learning.

Another finding in this study was that the subjects were both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated. The implication for such a finding would be that these two forms of motivation are indeed not exclusive of each other. This is reflective of the SDT framework, which ranges motivational orientations along a continuum instead of an either/or dichotomy. The subjects in the study strongly endorsed external reasons as well as internal reasons to learn English as shown by their means on the LLOS-IEA scale and the correlations between their scores on the LLOS-IEA and the OPE scales. This finding implies that the subjects in this study need to be given the opportunity to strive for excellence (Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment) and to reach for utilitarian objectives beyond the academic achievement (Extrinsic Motivation).

In regard of the Business majors' results, the implication may be that the prospect of learning a second language may not be so attractive or even welcome if one thinks it will not add that much to their value on the job

market. However, further investigation in the form of interviews and focus groups is needed to shed more light on such an intriguing finding. Overall, English remains the favorite foreign language to learn for most students in socio-economic situations similar to the Chadian context as Malumba (1993), Dornyei (2001) and Philipson (2000) have already pointed out. However, caution should be used in interpreting this particular finding of the study as participants were not directly asked to choose between English and French, the other international language used in Chad.

Recommendations

In light of the findings in this study the following recommendations are made to the professors, the university administration and L2 researchers.

For the professors

The findings of the present investigation among Chadian university EFL students warrant the following recommendations:

1. Most students already have reasons for studying English as foreign language. Contrary to the beliefs that Chadian university students in other programs than English are not interested in learning English, the findings of this study suggest that most students want to learn English, albeit for diverse reasons. It is therefore, the teacher's responsibility to design lessons that account for the multifaceted nature of L2 motivation.

2. A second recommendation that flows from the first one is that it would be wise for professors to give the LLOS-IEA to their students at the beginning of the year to identify their different motivational orientations and tailor their teaching accordingly.

For the University Administration

1. Provide the necessary conditions for students to learn through the hiring of qualified faculty and the purchase of learning materials and language laboratories. Motivated students only need knowledgeable and motivated teachers who, in turn, need adequate materials to supplement their teaching. Furthermore, a language laboratory is an invaluable teaching aid for both teachers and students.

2. Provide incentives in the form of books and exchange programs to capitalize on students' motivation to learn English as a Foreign Language. Students in this study showed that they had both internal and external reasons to learn English. One way the university administration could take advantage of this motivation would be to provide prizes of books and other educational materials. Exchange programs with English speaking countries would be a good booster to students' motivational orientations.

3. Provide access to the internet through the positioning of computers in the library and other campus buildings.

4. Provide teacher training in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to closely relate English language training to academic learning.

For L2 Researchers

L2 motivation research has now spread its research base to other theoretical frameworks including the one used in the present study. This was a response to a call by researchers such as Oxford & Shearin (1994) to broaden the L2 motivation conceptual framework. It has now been conducted in Chad, a country unaccustomed to scrutiny with regard to L2 learning and teaching. Based on the findings in this study, this researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. The Self-Determination has established itself as one of the most promising theoretical frameworks to explore L2 motivation (Dornyei, 2003). L2 motivation researchers are encouraged to use it more to build a solid conceptual rationale describing the psychological mechanism to account for the importance of the seven constructs in L2 motivational orientations.

2. Use the LLOS-IEA scale in conjunction with some other instrument which captures the local dimensions of motivational orientations such as the Oil Project Effect scale to provide a better understanding of how students' self-reported reasons to learn a second language relates to their perception of the role of their socio-economic milieu.

3. Design or supplement quantitative designs with interpretive paradigms to have a bigger picture of the phenomenon of orientations in L2 motivation. Interviews or behavior observations would certainly give more insights into the nature of student orientations.

4. Relate student motivational orientations to teachers' motivation to teach. Dornyei (2001) contends that teacher motivation is an important but neglected domain of L2 motivation research. Given the obvious influence of teacher motivation on students' motivation to learn, that avenue of research would be more than welcome.

5. Investigate the motivational orientations of Chadian high school students in light of the oil project in the country.

6. Design studies where females are proportionately represented by using stratified sampling. Given the small number of women in higher education in Chad, only such sampling could give future studies a valid basis for statistical interpretation.

7. Conduct more research in contexts such as this one and other sub-Saharan countries to get different perspectives on L2 motivation. EFL contexts can be very different from most ESL environments and also represent a difficult challenge for researchers.

APPENDIX A
COPYRIGHT PERMISSION FORM

Dear Dr Noels:

I am completing a dissertation at Florida State University entitled "**The effects of gender, major, and a new socio-economic context on the motivational orientations of Chadian university EFL students**". I would like your permission to use your data collection questionnaire known as the Language Learning Orientations Scale - Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation (LLOS-IEA). I would like to use the 2001 version of the instrument.

The requested permission extends to any future revisions and editions of my dissertation, including non-exclusive world rights in all languages. These rights will in no way restrict republication of the material in any other form by you or by others authorized by you. This authorization is extended to University Microfilms International, Ann Arbor, Michigan, for the purpose of reproducing and distributing copies of this dissertation. Your signing of this letter will also confirm that you own or your company owns the copyright to the above-described material.

If these arrangements meet with your approval, please sign this letter where indicated below and return it to me in the enclosed return envelope. Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Dogossou Houroumtcho (Signed)

PERMISSION GRANTED FOR THE
USE REQUESTED ABOVE:

Dr Kimberly Noels (Signed)

Date: _____

APPENDIX B
APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Florida State

U N I V E R S I T Y
Office of the Vice President For Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2763
(850) 644-8673 . FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 4/22/2004

To:

Dogossou Houroumtcho
150 Bliss Dr. # 2
Tallahassee, FL 32310

Dept: **MIDDLE AND SECONDARY EDUCATION**

From: **John Tomkowiak, Chair** (Signed)

Re: **Use of Human Subjects in Research**
The Effects of a new socio-economic environment on the
motivational orientations of Chadian University EFL students

The forms that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Exempt per 45 CFR § 46.101(b) 2 and has been approved by an accelerated review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If the project has not been completed by **4/21/2005** you must request renewed approval for continuation of the project.

You are advised that any change in protocol in this project must be approved by resubmission of the project to the Committee for approval. Also, the principal investigator must promptly report, in writing, any unexpected problems causing risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the chairman of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that she/he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols of such investigations as often as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has Assurance on the file with the Office of Protection from Research Risks. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Dr. Elizabeth Platt
HSC No. 2004.262

APPENDIX C
COVER LETTER

Cover Letter

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a graduate student under the direction of Dr Elizabeth Platt in the Department of Middle and Secondary Education, College of Education at the Florida State University. I am conducting a research study to investigate the effects of gender, major and a new socioeconomic context on the motivational orientations of Chadian University EFL students.

I am requesting your participation, which will involve filling out a two-page questionnaire that will last for about 20 minutes. **You must be at least 18 years old to participate in consent.** Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty; it will not affect your grade. The questionnaire is anonymous. The results of the research study may be published but your name will not be known.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call my major professor, Dr Platt at (850) 644-1989 or email her at eplatt@garnet.acns.fsu.edu. You may also contact the Human Subjects Committee at (850) 644-8836. In Chad, you may contact Dr. Masissou Hathoura at the Direction of Secondary Education, phone: 51 51 99.

Return of the questionnaire will be considered as your consent to participate. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Dogossou Houroumtcho (Signed)

APPENDIX D

FRENCH VERSION OF THE COVER LETTER

Lettre Explicative

Chèr(e) Monsieur/Madame,

Je suis un étudiant en thèse de doctorat sous la direction de Dr. Elizabeth Platt, au Département del'Education Secondaire, à la faculté des sciences de l'Education, à l'université d'état de la Floride. Je mène une étude sur les effets du genre, la spécialité et d'un nouveau contexte socioéconomique sur la motivation des étudiants universitaires Tchadiens à apprendre l'anglais comme langue étrangère.

Je sollicite votre participation qui se limitera à remplir un questionnaire de deux pages qui durera environ 20 minutes. **Vous devez être agé(e) d'au moins 18 ans pour donner votre accord pour participer à cette étude.** Votre participation est volontaire. Si vous décidez de ne pas partriciper ou d'arrêter votre participation à tout moment, vous ne risquez rien et cela n'aura aucune influence sur votre note en anglais. Le questionnaire est anonyme. Les résultats de cette recherche peuvent être publiées mais votre nom n'apparaîtra nulle part.

Si vous avez des questions au sujet de cette recherche, veuillez contacter ma directrice de thèse, Dr. Elizabeth Platt au (850) 644-1989 ou à son adresse électronique eplatt@garnet.acns.fsu.edu. Vous pouvez aussi contacter le Comité sur les Sujets Humains au (850) 644-8836. Au Tchad vous pouvez aussi contacter Dr. Massissou Hathoura à la Direction de l'Enseignement Secondaire, téléphone: 51 51 99.

En remplissant ce questionnaire, vous donnez en même temps votre accord à participer à cette recherche.

Cordialement,

Dogossou Houroumtcho (Signed)

APPENDIX E

**RELIABILITY ANALYSIS AND FREQUENCY TABLES OF THE
PILOT DATA**

Reliability

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	31	67.4
	Excluded(a)	15	32.6
	Total	46	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.794	20

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I1	84.97	290.766	.185	.796
I2	82.90	283.090	.294	.790
I3	81.55	285.856	.424	.783
I4	84.35	293.370	.129	.801
I5	83.00	291.533	.196	.795
I6	82.97	261.366	.612	.768
I7	81.90	285.624	.321	.787
I8	82.87	256.983	.703	.762
I9	82.48	272.191	.555	.774
I10	83.06	266.329	.530	.774
I11	83.23	270.714	.419	.781
I12	82.29	271.746	.413	.782
I13	82.00	284.267	.378	.785
I14	82.81	268.028	.432	.780
I15	86.10	288.290	.342	.787
I16	84.81	273.695	.409	.782
I17	83.19	296.361	.105	.801
I18	86.32	304.692	.064	.797
I19	81.48	293.991	.264	.790
I20	81.74	286.598	.411	.784

Reliability

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	41	89.1
	Excluded(a)	5	10.9
	Total	46	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.776	10

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OS1	41.63	115.938	.184	.787
OS2	42.76	119.889	.240	.777
OS3	38.76	100.439	.641	.732
OS4	39.02	100.324	.629	.733
OS5	38.76	112.139	.250	.781
OS6	39.12	106.260	.385	.764
OS7	39.73	99.301	.481	.752
OS8	39.80	91.911	.621	.729
OS9	39.44	100.552	.529	.745
OS10	38.51	106.306	.482	.752

APPENDIX F

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS AND FREQUENCY TABLES USED
IN THE STUDY

**RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS AND FREQUENCY TABLES FOR LLOS-IEA (LS) AND OPE
(OS) SCALES USED IN THE STUDY**

Reliability

***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****

—

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (L S)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LS1	80.3077	207.9524	.0768	.7007
LS2	79.0000	200.7143	.2188	.6866
LS3	77.8639	203.9516	.2194	.6863
LS4	80.1183	188.6407	.3706	.6702
LS5	79.1124	188.4456	.4284	.6649
LS6	78.9172	189.8264	.4196	.6664
LS7	78.1006	196.3886	.3575	.6743
LS8	78.6686	186.3776	.4918	.6589
LS9	78.9941	187.2678	.4746	.6608
LS10	79.5444	191.7495	.3880	.6698
LS11	79.0592	189.7941	.4189	.6664
LS12	78.5030	203.6562	.1579	.6927
LS13	78.0592	206.3179	.1403	.6931
LS14	79.3018	194.3429	.2525	.6843
LS15	81.7633	210.8484	.0763	.6968
LS16	79.6805	210.9330	.0064	.7106
LS17	79.5976	192.8371	.3071	.6776
LS18	81.7751	211.5920	.0580	.6981
LS19	78.3195	202.2068	.1893	.6895
LS20	78.4083	201.7430	.2175	.6866

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 169.0

N of Items = 20

Alpha = .6933

reliability vars=os1 to os10/scale(os)=os1 to os10/summary=total.

Reliability

***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****

—

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (O S)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
OS1	42.6578	105.2048	.4699	.7681
OS2	43.5775	114.7937	.3123	.7858
OS3	40.4118	108.7489	.4279	.7732
OS4	40.5615	102.7314	.5943	.7523
OS5	39.7754	120.5837	.2006	.7953
OS6	40.5455	112.7116	.3348	.7841
OS7	40.9251	101.3600	.5997	.7509
OS8	40.8770	101.3450	.5735	.7540
OS9	41.0053	101.7473	.5853	.7527
OS10	40.4866	109.4340	.4423	.7714

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 187.0

N of Items = 10

Alpha = .7878

Frequency Table

GROUP

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	English	102	51.0	51.0	51.0
	Engineering	53	26.5	26.5	77.5
	Business	45	22.5	22.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

LS1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	62	31.0	31.5	31.5
	2	27	13.5	13.7	45.2
	3	34	17.0	17.3	62.4
	4	24	12.0	12.2	74.6
	5	15	7.5	7.6	82.2
	6	15	7.5	7.6	89.8
	7	20	10.0	10.2	100.0
	Total	197	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		200	100.0		

LS2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	15	7.5	7.7	7.7
	2	16	8.0	8.2	16.0
	3	35	17.5	18.0	34.0
	4	38	19.0	19.6	53.6
	5	25	12.5	12.9	66.5
	6	22	11.0	11.3	77.8
	7	43	21.5	22.2	100.0
	Total	194	97.0	100.0	
Missing	System	6	3.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	10	5.0	5.1	5.1
	3	20	10.0	10.2	15.2
	4	21	10.5	10.7	25.9
	5	33	16.5	16.8	42.6
	6	31	15.5	15.7	58.4
	7	82	41.0	41.6	100.0
	Total	197	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		200	100.0		

LS4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	57	28.5	29.1	29.1
	2	33	16.5	16.8	45.9
	3	21	10.5	10.7	56.6
	4	25	12.5	12.8	69.4
	5	15	7.5	7.7	77.0
	6	15	7.5	7.7	84.7
	7	30	15.0	15.3	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	9.5	9.6	9.6
	2	26	13.0	13.1	22.7
	3	33	16.5	16.7	39.4
	4	28	14.0	14.1	53.5
	5	29	14.5	14.6	68.2
	6	21	10.5	10.6	78.8
	7	42	21.0	21.2	100.0
	Total	198	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	21	10.5	10.8	10.8
	2	18	9.0	9.2	20.0
	3	21	10.5	10.8	30.8
	4	26	13.0	13.3	44.1
	5	35	17.5	17.9	62.1
	6	35	17.5	17.9	80.0
	7	39	19.5	20.0	100.0
	Total	195	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.5		
Total		200	100.0		

LS7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	3	1.5	1.5	1.5
	2	15	7.5	7.6	9.1
	3	14	7.0	7.1	16.2
	4	22	11.0	11.1	27.3
	5	36	18.0	18.2	45.5
	6	37	18.5	18.7	64.1
	7	71	35.5	35.9	100.0
	Total	198	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	13	6.5	6.8	6.8
	2	21	10.5	10.9	17.7
	3	14	7.0	7.3	25.0
	4	30	15.0	15.6	40.6
	5	30	15.0	15.6	56.3
	6	34	17.0	17.7	74.0
	7	50	25.0	26.0	100.0
	Total	192	96.0	100.0	
Missing	System	8	4.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	23	11.5	11.7	11.7
	2	20	10.0	10.2	21.9
	3	23	11.5	11.7	33.7
	4	40	20.0	20.4	54.1
	5	22	11.0	11.2	65.3
	6	29	14.5	14.8	80.1
	7	39	19.5	19.9	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	26	13.0	13.3	13.3
	2	28	14.0	14.3	27.6
	3	32	16.0	16.3	43.9
	4	31	15.5	15.8	59.7
	5	26	13.0	13.3	73.0
	6	30	15.0	15.3	88.3
	7	23	11.5	11.7	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	9.5	9.7	9.7
	2	24	12.0	12.3	22.1
	3	27	13.5	13.8	35.9
	4	26	13.0	13.3	49.2
	5	34	17.0	17.4	66.7
	6	29	14.5	14.9	81.5
	7	36	18.0	18.5	100.0
	Total	195	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.5		
Total		200	100.0		

LS12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	10	5.0	5.1	5.1
	2	20	10.0	10.2	15.3
	3	20	10.0	10.2	25.5
	4	23	11.5	11.7	37.2
	5	23	11.5	11.7	49.0
	6	38	19.0	19.4	68.4
	7	62	31.0	31.6	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
	2	8	4.0	4.0	8.1
	3	18	9.0	9.1	17.2
	4	23	11.5	11.6	28.8
	5	26	13.0	13.1	41.9
	6	45	22.5	22.7	64.6
	7	70	35.0	35.4	100.0
	Total	198	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	48	24.0	24.4	24.4
	2	21	10.5	10.7	35.0
	3	9	4.5	4.6	39.6
	4	17	8.5	8.6	48.2
	5	26	13.0	13.2	61.4
	6	35	17.5	17.8	79.2
	7	41	20.5	20.8	100.0
	Total	197	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		200	100.0		

LS15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	152	76.0	77.6	77.6
	2	9	4.5	4.6	82.1
	3	11	5.5	5.6	87.8
	4	7	3.5	3.6	91.3
	5	5	2.5	2.6	93.9
	6	7	3.5	3.6	97.4
	7	5	2.5	2.6	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	51	25.5	26.3	26.3
	2	18	9.0	9.3	35.6
	3	24	12.0	12.4	47.9
	4	22	11.0	11.3	59.3
	5	24	12.0	12.4	71.6
	6	26	13.0	13.4	85.1
	7	29	14.5	14.9	100.0
	Total	194	97.0	100.0	
Missing	System	6	3.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS17

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	40	20.0	20.8	20.8
	2	35	17.5	18.2	39.1
	3	22	11.0	11.5	50.5
	4	19	9.5	9.9	60.4
	5	26	13.0	13.5	74.0
	6	17	8.5	8.9	82.8
	7	33	16.5	17.2	100.0
	Total	192	96.0	100.0	
Missing	System	8	4.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS18

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	147	73.5	75.0	75.0
	2	19	9.5	9.7	84.7
	3	10	5.0	5.1	89.8
	4	2	1.0	1.0	90.8
	5	7	3.5	3.6	94.4
	6	6	3.0	3.1	97.4
	7	5	2.5	2.6	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS19

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	13	6.5	6.6	6.6
	2	8	4.0	4.1	10.7
	3	27	13.5	13.8	24.5
	4	18	9.0	9.2	33.7
	5	30	15.0	15.3	49.0
	6	37	18.5	18.9	67.9
	7	63	31.5	32.1	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

LS20

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	10	5.0	5.1	5.1
	2	9	4.5	4.6	9.7
	3	18	9.0	9.2	19.0
	4	37	18.5	19.0	37.9
	5	30	15.0	15.4	53.3
	6	29	14.5	14.9	68.2
	7	62	31.0	31.8	100.0
	Total	195	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.5		
Total		200	100.0		

OS1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	79	39.5	40.3	40.3
	2	21	10.5	10.7	51.0
	3	23	11.5	11.7	62.8
	4	23	11.5	11.7	74.5
	5	15	7.5	7.7	82.1
	6	16	8.0	8.2	90.3
	7	19	9.5	9.7	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

OS2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	122	61.0	61.6	61.6
	2	27	13.5	13.6	75.3
	3	9	4.5	4.5	79.8
	4	9	4.5	4.5	84.3
	5	10	5.0	5.1	89.4
	6	11	5.5	5.6	94.9
	7	10	5.0	5.1	100.0
	Total	198	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.0		
Total		200	100.0		

OS3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	11	5.5	5.6	5.6
	2	11	5.5	5.6	11.2
	3	26	13.0	13.3	24.5
	4	15	7.5	7.7	32.1
	5	23	11.5	11.7	43.9
	6	25	12.5	12.8	56.6
	7	85	42.5	43.4	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

OS4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	14	7.0	7.1	7.1
	2	10	5.0	5.1	12.2
	3	24	12.0	12.2	24.5
	4	19	9.5	9.7	34.2
	5	25	12.5	12.8	46.9
	6	37	18.5	18.9	65.8
	7	67	33.5	34.2	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

OS5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	5	2.5	2.5	2.5
	2	6	3.0	3.0	5.6
	3	8	4.0	4.1	9.6
	4	16	8.0	8.1	17.8
	5	24	12.0	12.2	29.9
	6	32	16.0	16.2	46.2
	7	106	53.0	53.8	100.0
	Total	197	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		200	100.0		

OS6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	15	7.5	7.7	7.7
	2	12	6.0	6.1	13.8
	3	15	7.5	7.7	21.4
	4	24	12.0	12.2	33.7
	5	26	13.0	13.3	46.9
	6	40	20.0	20.4	67.3
	7	64	32.0	32.7	100.0
	Total	196	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		200	100.0		

OS7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	24	12.0	12.2	12.2
	2	13	6.5	6.6	18.8
	3	18	9.0	9.1	27.9
	4	29	14.5	14.7	42.6
	5	27	13.5	13.7	56.3
	6	34	17.0	17.3	73.6
	7	52	26.0	26.4	100.0
	Total	197	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		200	100.0		

OS8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	26	13.0	13.2	13.2
	2	12	6.0	6.1	19.3
	3	18	9.0	9.1	28.4
	4	17	8.5	8.6	37.1
	5	35	17.5	17.8	54.8
	6	31	15.5	15.7	70.6
	7	58	29.0	29.4	100.0
	Total	197	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		200	100.0		

OS9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	22	11.0	11.2	11.2
	2	16	8.0	8.1	19.3
	3	24	12.0	12.2	31.5
	4	19	9.5	9.6	41.1
	5	28	14.0	14.2	55.3
	6	40	20.0	20.3	75.6
	7	48	24.0	24.4	100.0
	Total	197	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		200	100.0		

OS10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	10	5.0	5.1	5.1
	2	14	7.0	7.2	12.3
	3	19	9.5	9.7	22.1
	4	14	7.0	7.2	29.2
	5	31	15.5	15.9	45.1
	6	46	23.0	23.6	68.7
	7	61	30.5	31.3	100.0
	Total	195	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.5		
Total		200	100.0		

APPENDIX G

CORRELATIONAL ANNALYSES BY SCALE, GENDER, AND MAJOR

Correlations

Correlations

		LS_MEAN	OS_MEAN	AMOTIVAT	EXTMOT	INTMOT
LS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	1	.305	.234	.780	.855
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.001	.000	.000
	N	200	200	196	200	200
OS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	.305	1	.162	.348	.155
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.023	.000	.029
	N	200	200	196	200	200
AMOTIVAT	Pearson Correlation	.234	.162	1	.081	.039
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.023	.	.260	.591
	N	196	196	196	196	196
EXTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.780	.348	.081	1	.385
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.260	.	.000
	N	200	200	196	200	200
INTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.855	.155	.039	.385	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.029	.591	.000	.
	N	200	200	196	200	200

**Correlations
GENDER = Male**

Correlations(a)

		LS_MEAN	OS_MEAN	AMOTIVAT	EXTMOT	INTMOT
LS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	1	.281	.234	.787	.848
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.002	.000	.000
	N	181	181	177	181	181
OS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	.281	1	.152	.330	.131
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.044	.000	.080
	N	181	181	177	181	181
AMOTIVAT	Pearson Correlation	.234	.152	1	.088	.030
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.044	.	.246	.693
	N	177	177	177	177	177
EXTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.787	.330	.088	1	.385
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.246	.	.000
	N	181	181	177	181	181
INTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.848	.131	.030	.385	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.080	.693	.000	.
	N	181	181	177	181	181

GENDER = Female

Correlations(a)

		LS_MEAN	OS_MEAN	AMOTIVAT	EXTMOT	INTMOT
LS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	1	.630	.319	.682	.930
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.004	.182	.001	.000
	N	19	19	19	19	19
OS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	.630	1	.363	.698	.423
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.	.126	.001	.072
	N	19	19	19	19	19
AMOTIVAT	Pearson Correlation	.319	.363	1	.028	.228
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.182	.126	.	.909	.347
	N	19	19	19	19	19
EXTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.682	.698	.028	1	.396
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.909	.	.093
	N	19	19	19	19	19
INTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.930	.423	.228	.396	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.072	.347	.093	.
	N	19	19	19	19	19

a GENDER = Female

**Correlations
GROUP = English**

Correlations(a)

		LS_MEAN	OS_MEAN	AMOTIVAT	EXTMOT	INTMOT
LS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	1	.294	.168	.786	.877
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.003	.098	.000	.000
	N	102	102	98	102	102
OS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	.294	1	-.007	.423	.128
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.	.944	.000	.200
	N	102	102	98	102	102
AMOTIVAT	Pearson Correlation	.168	-.007	1	.105	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.098	.944	.	.301	.910
	N	98	98	98	98	98
EXTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.786	.423	.105	1	.421
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.301	.	.000
	N	102	102	98	102	102
INTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.877	.128	.012	.421	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.200	.910	.000	.
	N	102	102	98	102	102

GROUP = Engineering

Correlations(a)

		LS_MEAN	OS_MEAN	AMOTIVAT	EXTMOT	INTMOT
LS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	1	.462	.228	.758	.852
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001	.100	.000	.000
	N	53	53	53	53	53
OS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	.462	1	.220	.441	.298
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.	.113	.001	.030
	N	53	53	53	53	53
AMOTIVAT	Pearson Correlation	.228	.220	1	.104	-.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.100	.113	.	.461	.712
	N	53	53	53	53	53
EXTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.758	.441	.104	1	.367
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.461	.	.007
	N	53	53	53	53	53
INTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.852	.298	-.052	.367	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.030	.712	.007	.
	N	53	53	53	53	53

a GROUP = Engineering

GROUP = Business

Correlations(a)

		LS_MEAN	OS_MEAN	AMOTIVAT	EXTMOT	INTMOT
LS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	1	.112	.298	.816	.759
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.464	.046	.000	.000
	N	45	45	45	45	45
OS_MEAN	Pearson Correlation	.112	1	.200	.142	-.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.464	.	.187	.352	.805
	N	45	45	45	45	45
AMOTIVAT	Pearson Correlation	.298	.200	1	.053	.104
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.046	.187	.	.728	.495
	N	45	45	45	45	45
EXTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.816	.142	.053	1	.298
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.352	.728	.	.047
	N	45	45	45	45	45
INTMOT	Pearson Correlation	.759	-.038	.104	.298	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.805	.495	.047	.
	N	45	45	45	45	45

a GROUP = Business

REFERENCES

- Ager, D. (1999). *Identity, security and image: France and language*. Clevedon, UK: Multicultural Matters Ltd.
- Ager, D. (1996). "Francophonie" in the 1990's: Problems and opportunities. Bristol, PA: Multilingual Matters.
- Alexander, N. (2000). Language policy and planning in South Africa: Some insights. In R. Phillipson (Ed.), *Rights to language: Equity, power, and education* (pp. 170 - 173). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Alexandre, P. (1972). *An introduction to languages and language in Africa*. London: Heinemann.
- Allport, G. W. (1937). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: Henry Holt.
- Ball, S. (1984). Student motivation: Some reflections and projections. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education* (Vol. 1, pp. 313 - 326). Orlando, FL: Academic Press
- Bamgbose, A. (1994). Pride and prejudice in multilingualism and development. In R. Fardon & G. Furniss (Eds.), *African languages, development and the state* (pp.33 - 43). London: Routledge.
- Banks, A. & Textor, R. B. (1963). *A cross-polity survey*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- BEAC Report (April, 2003) <http://www.izf.net> Retrieved on June 10, 2003.
- Benjamin, J. (1994). Language and the struggle for racial equality in the development of a non-racial south African nation. In R. Fardon & G. Furniss (Eds.), *African languages, development and the state* (pp.97 - 110). London: Routledge.
- Blommaert, J. (1994). The metaphors of development and modernization in Tanzanian language policy and research. In R. Fardon & G. Furniss (Eds.), *African languages, development and the state* (pp.213 - 226). London: Routledge.
- Broke-Utne, B. (2000). Education for all - In whose language? In R. Phillipson, (Ed.), *Rights to language: Equity, power, and education* (pp. 239 - 242). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting imperialism in English language teaching*. Oxford: OUP.
- Clayton, T. (2002). Language choice in nation under transition: The struggle between English and French in Cambodia. *Language Policy*, 1, 1, 3 - 25.

- Cleghorn, A. & Rollnick, M. (2002). The role of English in individual and societal development: A view from African classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 3, 347 - 372. Constitution of Chad (March 1996, Article 9).
- Crookes, G. & Schmidt, R. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41, (4), 469 - 512.
- Deci, E. L., Eghrari, H., Patrick, B. C. & Leone, D. R. (1994). Facilitating internalization: The self-determination theory perspective. *Journal of Personality*, 62, 119 - 142.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New-York: Plenum.
- Dornyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign language learning. *Language Learning*, 40, 45 - 78.
- Dornyei, Z. New themes and approaches in second language motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 43 - 59.
- Dornyei, Z. & Schmidt, R. (2001). *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report # 23). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Dornyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in Second Language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers.
- Festinger, L (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Fardon, R. & Furniss, G. (1994). *African languages, development and the state*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Gardner, R. C., & Clement, R. (1990). Social psychological perspectives on second language acquisition. In H. Giles & W. P. Robinson (Eds.), *Handbook of language and social psychology* (pp. 495 - 517). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R (2000). Correlation, causation, motivation and second language acquisition. *Canadian Psychology*, 41, 1 - 24.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report # 23, pp. 1 - 19).

- Green, S., Salkind, N. & Akey, T. (2000). *Using SPSS for Windows: Analyzing and understanding data*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Hall, J. K., & Eggington, W. G. (2000). *The sociopolitics of English language teaching*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Hatch, E. & Lazaraton, A. (1991). *The research manual: Design and statistics for Applied Linguistics*. New York: Newbury House Publishers.
- Heider, F. (1946). Attitudes and cognitive organization. *Journal of Psychology*, 21, 107 - 112
<http://www.lonelyplanet.com>. Retrieved on August 6, 2003.
<http://www.ibe.unesco.org/International/Databanks/Dossiers/isrilank.htm>. Retrieved on August 6, 2003.
- Hull, C. L. (1943). *Principles of behavior: An introduction to behavior theory*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Igue, A. M. & N'Oueni, W. R. (1994). The politics of language in Benin. In R. Fardon & G. Furniss (Eds.), *African languages, development and the state* (pp. 54 - 61). London: Routledge
- James, W. (1884). What is an emotion? *Mind*, 9, 188 - 205. (Reprinted in K. Dunlap (Ed.), *The emotions* (pp. 11 - 30). Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1992).
- Julkunen, K. (2001). Situation-and task-specific motivation in foreign language learning. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report # 23, pp. 29 - 41).
- Kasuya, K. (2001). Discourses of linguistic dominance: A historical consideration of French language ideology. *International Review of Education*, 47, 3/4, 235 - 251.
- Katupha, J. M. (1994). The language situation and language use in Mozambique. In R. Fardon & G. Furniss (Eds.), *African languages, development and the state* (pp. 89 - 96). London, UK: Routledge.
- Kishe, A. (In press). Kswahili as a vehicle of unity and development in the Great Lakes Region.
- Lange, C. G. (1885). One leudsbeveegelser. In K. Dunlap (Ed.), *the emotions* (pp. 33 - 90). Baltimore; Williams & Wilkins, 1992.
- Lerner, R. M. (1986). *Concepts and theories of human development* (2nd ed.). New York: Random House.
- Lewin, K. (1935). *A dynamic theory of personality: Selected papers*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Malumba, C. (1993). English language teaching in Zaire: objectives and users' needs. In C. Rumbagumya (Ed.), *Teaching and researching language in African classrooms* (pp. 24 - 38). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Mazrui, A. A. & Mazrui, A. M. (1998). *The power of Babel: Language and governance in the African experience*. London: Villiers Publications.
- McInerney, D. M. & Van Etten, S. (2001). Research on sociocultural influences on motivation and learning
- Miller, N. E. (1948). Studies of fear as an acquirable drive: I. Fear as motivation and fear-reduction as reinforcement in the learning of new responses. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 38, 89 - 101.
- Mowrer, O. H. (1960). *Learning theory and behavior*. New York: Wiley.
- Noels, K.A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R. (2000). Why are you learning a second language ? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 50, 57 - 85.
- Noels, K. A. (2001). New orientations in language learning motivation: Towards a model of intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative orientations and motivation. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report # 23, pp. 43 - 68).
- Noels, K., Clement, R. & Pelletier, L. (2001). Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and integrative orientations of French Canadian Learners of English. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57, 3, 425 - 442.
- Overton, W. F. (1984). World views and their influence on psychological theory and research: Kuhn-Lakatos-Laudan. In H. W. Reese (Ed.), *Advances in child development and behavior* (Vol. 18, pp. 191 - 226). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Oxford, R. & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal* 78, 12 - 28.
- Pavlov, I. P. (1927). *Conditioned reflexes*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Philipson, R. (2000). *Rights to language: Equity, power, and education*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Pintrich, P. R. & Schunk, D. H. (1996). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. Eglewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

- Punchi, L. (2001). Resistance towards the language of globalization - The case of Sri Lanka. *International Review of Education*, 47, 3, 361 - 378.
- Roy-Campbell, Z. M. (2001). Globalization, language and education: A comparative study of the United States and Tanzania. *International Review of Education*, 47, 3/4, 267 - 282.
- Ryan, R. M. & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68 - 78.
- Schacter, S. (1964). The interactions of cognitive and psychological determinants of emotional state. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 49 - 80). New York: Academic Press.
- Schumacher, E. F. (1973). *Small is beautiful*. London: Blond and Briggs.
- SIL (1999). www.ethnologue.com Retrieved on May 30, 2003.
- SIL (2000). www.ethnologue.com Retrieved on May 30, 2003.
- Suleiman, Y. (1999). *Language and society in the Middle East and North Africa: Studies in variation and identity*. Richmond, UK: Curzon Press.
- Svanes, B. (1987). Motivation and cultural distance in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 37, 341 - 359.
- Syed, Z. (2001). Notions of self in foreign language learning: A qualitative analysis. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report # 23, pp. 127 - 148).
- Thorndike, E. L. (1913). *Educational Psychology: Vol. 2. The psychology of learning*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Tollefson, J. W. (2000). Policy and ideology in the spread of English. in K. J. Hall & W. G. Eggington (Eds.), *The sociopolitics of English language teaching* (pp. 7 - 21). Clevedon, UK: Multicultural Matters.
- Tolman, E. C. (1932). *Purposive behavior in animals and men*. New York: Appleton-Century-crofts.
- Ushioda, E. (1996a). Language learners' motivational thinking: A qualitative study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Dublin, trinity College, Dublin.

- Ushioda, E. (2001). Language learning at university: Exploring the role of motivational thinking. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report # 23, pp 93 - 125).
- Vallerand, R. J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In M. P. Zana (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 271 - 360) New York: Academic Press.
- Weiner, B. (1992). *Human motivation: Metaphors, theories, and research*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Williams, M., Burden, R. L., & Al-Baharna, S. (2001). Making sense of success and failure: the role of the individual in motivation theory. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report # 23, pp 171 - 184).
- Woodworth, R. S. (1918). *Dynamic psychology*. New York: Columbia University Press.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Dogossou Houroumtcho was born in 1962 in Ba-Illi, in the Center South of the Republic of Chad, in Central Africa. He started and finished elementary school in that small town. After two years without school due to an armed conflict in Chad, he went back to school at *Lycée Jacques Moudeina* of Bongor where he graduated in 1982 with honors.

When time came for higher education, there was not much of a choice for him as the entire education system was not exempt from the destruction of the war. He then passed the teachers' college entrance exam and graduated in 1985 with his Associate Degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and French as a Second Language as a minor. After four years of middle school teaching as an English and French teacher, he passed another teachers' college entrance exam and was conferred the *Certificat d'Aptitude à l'Enseignement des Lycées* (CAPEL), a Bachelor's equivalent in TEFL.

After four more years of teaching English at the high school level, Dogossou Houroumtcho successfully took yet another test organized by the French teachers' college, the *Ecole Normale Supérieure de Fontenay/Saint-Cloud*, just outside of Paris in 1994. He graduated two years later with the *Certificat d'Aptitude aux Fonctions d'Inspecteur Général de l'Enseignement Secondaire* (CAFIGES), a Master's equivalent in in-service teacher training.

Just two years in his job as a secondary school Inspector in a populous school district in the South of Chad, Dogossou Houroumtcho won a Fulbright scholarship that took him to Florida State University in the fall of 2000. In the fall of 2004, he graduated with the Doctor of Philosophy in Multilingual/Multicultural Education and a Certificate in Human Resources Development, his minor.

Dogossou Houroumtcho has been married to Rachel Daguelgue since 1984. They have three wonderful boys (Emmanuel, Josué, and Yannick) and two beautiful daughters (Bonté and Sabine).