

**BAŞKENT UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING MASTER PROGRAM**

**MOTIVATION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING: A STUDY ON
PREPARATORY SCHOOL STUDENTS AT UNIVERSITIES**

PREPARED BY

CEM YAĞMUR GENÇ

MASTER THESIS

ANKARA – 2023

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THESIS SUPERVISOR

ASSOC. PROF. DR. SENEM ÜSTÜN KAYA

ANKARA – 2023

BAŞKENT ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
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1. Kaynakça hariç

2.Alıntılar hariç

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Cem Yağmur GENÇ

Ankara, 2023

ABSTRACT

Cem Yağmur GENÇ

Motivation in English Language Learning: A Study on Preparatory Schools Students at Universities

Başkent University

Institute of Education Sciences

Department of Foreign Languages

English Language Teaching Master Program with Thesis

2023

This study aimed to investigate the role of motivation in English language learning, taking into consideration age groups and genders, and shed light on their effects. Additionally, this study attempted to determine whether the type of high school they attended and the current university they were enrolled in (public or private) had influence on students' internal and external motivation. The study was conducted at foundation and public universities in Ankara, with a total of 212 student participants. Among the participants, 108 were studying at private universities, and 104 were studying at public universities' preparatory schools. The students were at least at the pre-Intermediate level in the preparatory schools of their universities. The participants' ages ranged from 18-40, with an average age of 29, and there were 103 males and 108 females. Language Learning Orientations Scale (Noels et al. 2003) was used to measure students' motivation type. The Social Sciences Statistics Program was used for result analysis, and the validity was assessed through Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (Cronbach, 1951). The results indicated no significant difference between genders and age groups, while differences were observed based on the type of high school they graduated and university they were currently studying at.

Key Words: Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, lack of motivation, second language learning motivation, foreign language learning motivation.

ÖZET

Cem Yağmur GENÇ

İngilizce Dil Öğreniminde Motivasyon: Üniversitelerdeki Hazırlık Okulu Öğrencileri Üzerinde Bir Araştırma

Başkent Üniversitesi

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı

2023

Yapılan bu çalışma İngilizce dil öğreniminde motivasyonun rolünü ve bu etkinin yaş grupları ve cinsiyetleri göz önünde bulundurarak, bunların etkisini bulup ışık tutmaya çalıştı. Bunun yanı sıra, bu çalışma iç ve dış motivasyonun herhangi bir türünün eğitim görmüş oldukları lise türünün ve şimdiki okumakta oldukları üniversitelerin devlet ve özel olmasının öğrenciler üzerinde bir etkisi olup olmadığını bulmaya çalışmıştır. Yapılan bu çalışma Ankara’da bulunan özel ve devlet üniversitelerinde yapılmış olup, toplam 212 öğrenci çalışmaya katılmıştır. Katılımcıların 108 tanesi özel ve 104 tanesi ise devlet üniversitelerin hazırlık bölümlerinde okumaktadır. Öğrenciler üniversitelerin hazırlık sınıflarında en az pre-Intermediate seviyesinde öğrenim görmektedir. Katılımcıların yaşları 18 ile 40 arasında değişkenlik göstermiş olup ortalama yaş 29’dur ve 103’ü erkek, 108’i kadındır. Language Learning Orientations Scale (Noels et al. 2003) öğrencilerin motivasyon tipini ölçmek için kullanılmıştır. Sonuçları analiz etmek için Sosyal Bilimler İstatistik Programı kullanıldı ve geçerliliği de Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) kontrol edilmiştir. Sonuçlar iki cinsiyet ve yaş grupları arasında önemli bir fark olmadığını gösterirken, mezun oldukları lise ve öğrenim görmekte oldukları üniversite türüne göre ise farklılık olduğu gözlemlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İç motivasyon, dış motivasyon, motivasyonsuzluk, ikinci dil öğrenme motivasyonu, yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonu.

PREFACE

This thesis explores the multifaceted nature of motivation in language acquisition, drawing insights from literature and previous studies conducted. Motivation plays a crucial role in the success of language learners, and understanding its various dimensions and influential factors is essential for educators, researchers, and policymakers.

The journey to this thesis began with a curiosity to delve into the motivational structure of English learners, particularly focusing on the effects of university type, high school type, age and gender. Through an extensive review of literature and the examination of relevant studies, valuable insights were gained into the complexities of motivation in language learning environments.

One of the key findings of this study was significant differences in self-determination motivation types observed among students enrolled in public and foundation colleges. The analysis revealed higher levels of amotivation among students at foundation institutions, while students at public universities exhibited increased level of recognized control. These findings underscore the impact of university type on learners' motivation, with state universities potentially fostering stronger identification motivation and diminishing amotivation.

Furthermore, the study shed light on the influence of high school background on students' self-determination motivation types. Students who graduated from public high schools displayed higher level of identified control compared to their counterparts from foundation high schools. These findings emphasize the significance of considering students' educational experiences and environments during high school when analysing motivational patterns.

However, age did not emerge as a significant predictor of motivation sub-dimensions in this study. The results suggested that other factors, such as individual characteristics, language competency, and cultural background, may play a more influential role in shaping

learners' motivational tendencies. Similarly, gender did not exhibit a substantial association with the motivational structure of English learners, highlighting the need to consider a broader range of factors when studying motivational differences in language learning environments.

The findings from this research underscore the intricate and context-dependent nature of motivation in language acquisition. They contribute to our understanding of motivational patterns and provide a basis designing interventions and techniques to enhance and sustain motivation among language learners. Moreover, the study suggests avenues for further research, including exploring cultural influences, language skill levels, and teaching approaches, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of motivation in language acquisition.

I am grateful to have had the opportunity to engage in this insightful research in second language learning. I extend my heartfelt thanks to all those who have shared their knowledge and perspectives, as well as to the academic community and especially my academic advisor for their support and guidance throughout the thesis-writing process. May this work inspire further exploration and advancements in the field of language learning and motivation.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SDT	: Self-determination Theory
CET	: Cognitive Evaluation Theory
OIT	: Organismic Integrative Theory
COT	: Causality Orientation Theory
BNT	: Basic Needs Theory
SCT	: Social Cognitive Theory
AMS	: Academic Motivation Scale



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Any successful action can be linked to the effort of people and the motivation they have. When these two factors are considered, motivation could be considered as the initial phase to arise the interest and converting it into a decision with the involvement in an activity, while effort might join the process later on. According to Williams and Burden (1997), motivation is the emergence of knowledge and emotions that leads to a conscious action with effort. However, motivation can be found in any stage of a successful activity in accordance with the effort. Gardner (1985) proposes that the goal can be attained by a combination of personal desire and endeavour, which may be referred to as motivation, and other personal reasons. A person may strive for something without an internal or personal drive, such as being interested, curious, or happy to be successful. Learners could simply be motivated by extrinsic factors such as reward, interpersonal relationships, pressure, money, etc.

When teaching and learning a language is considered, there are many factors that can affect language acquisition. Some of these factors include an environment that does not provide sufficient linguistic input, a lack of opportunities for linguistic interaction with native speakers, and the absence of positive role models that encourage the learning of a language. Since Gardner and Lambert (1959) first proposed the idea, numerous teachers and academics have asserted, in response to these unfavourable conditions, that the idea of motivation has been a crucial component in determining whether or not English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students are successful. In other words, motivation can play a role as an incentive to form learning in the beginning, and then as a considerable resource for the difficult process of learning a foreign language (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). This is according to research conducted by Cheng and Dörnyei. According to Dörnyei (1998), motivation is the main impetus that lights the flame for learning another language. After some time, motivation drives the urge to maintain the difficult and often

laborious acquisition process along the same line; in fact, all of the other incentives included in L2 learning assume motivation to some extent.

Numerous academics and researchers “who have committed their careers to the study of second language acquisition” (Aljumah, 2020) have carried out a substantial amount of research highlighting the significance of motivation. According to the research conducted by Tremblay and Gardner (1995), the most important factor that is lacking in the process of language acquisition is motivation. As a consequence of this, the theory of motivation has always played an important role in a great many different theories about the acquisition of foreign languages (Rajab, et al., 2012).

1.2. Theoretical Background

Since the beginning of the second half of the 20th century, various frameworks and theories have been developed with the intention of reflecting and presenting the features of desire to learn a foreign language. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), an individual possesses not only varying degrees of motivation but also a variety of different causes or motivations for having motivation. As a consequence of this, the studies and researches that were carried out over the course of time progressed towards shedding light on the issues concerning the motivation of individuals and putting an emphasis on them. In other words, the amount of motivation may have lost some of its significance, while the source of inspiration and the trend of motivation have gained greater importance (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Throughout 1980s, the model of motivation known as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation—which could be called the most widespread and well-documented one—had been studied, used, and implemented for most of the time. As a successor, the new model, “Self-determination Theory (SDT),” which Deci and Ryan (1985) expanded the details on the former one, was the main focus prior to the “motivational renaissance” period that is named by Gardner and Trembley (1994) and called as a historical moment for foreign language learning motivation by Dörnyei. The “motivational renaissance” period is named by Gardner and Trembley (1994), and (2001).

Many studies have been conducted to acquire a better understanding of how language learners are motivated, and numerous theories and models of motivation have been

developed, including Gardner's socio-educational model, Dörnyei's L2 motivational self-system, and Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory. All of these theories, themes, and models address topics such as intrinsic motivation (internal desire and enjoyment), extrinsic motivation (external rewards or incentives), self-efficacy beliefs (belief in one's ability to succeed), goal orientation (focus on performance or learning goals), and the role of the learning environment and social context in shaping motivation. This is why this period is called ‘‘motivational renaissance’’ (Gardner & Trembly, 1994).

Researchers and studies on the factors affecting the improvement and operating integrity and adjustment of psychological sciences were always recognized as serious fields during the second half of the previous century (Harlow, 1953, Mayr, 1982, Raff, et, al., 1993). In other words, watching and managing the disparities in inadequacies and procurances of assumed inherent capabilities and analysing their effects on progress and usefulness in all domains was a form of a basis for SDT. SDT was developed by Stanley David Thornton (Deci, et, al., 1994). By relying on this foundation, SDT was able to provide a dozen seemingly unique points of view, which were specified both by ‘‘humanistic, psychoanalytical, and developmental’’ theories as well as ‘‘behavioural, cognitive, and post-modern’’ theories (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 5). In light of the fact that there is compelling evidence on the side of human inclination over non-passive participation and development, as well as the fact that there are various sparks of disintegration and provisory reactions, it is possible to infer that self-determination theory (SDT) provides a structure combining the circumstance explained by these distinct points of view. It can be deduced that, even though there is compelling evidence on the side of human inclination toward non-passive participation and advancement, and that there are various sparks of disintegration and provisory reactions, SDT provides a structure combining the situation clarified by these various points of view (Deci, 1980).

According to Dörnyei (2003), the SDT has the potential to be regarded as one of the most influential models in the field of research and academic study pertaining to motivation. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), SDT focuses its attention, from a psychological point of view, on the investigation of the various forms of motivation that take place as a person moves from a controlled territory to an autonomous one: ‘‘The theory developed by these mentioned above places a particular emphasis on the manner in which the elements that take place in social contexts either encourage or discourage the effort that individuals put forth

through the fulfilment of fundamental mental requirements for capability, involvement, and self-determination” (Deci & Ryan, 2000). They also mention that their theory investigates whether “biological, social, and cultural condition” increase or decrease the inborn competencies for psychological development, dependence, and vitality, by looking at overall and certain zones of influence and efforts. This is something that they do in order to determine whether "biological, social, and cultural conditions" (Deci & Ryan, 2017, p. 3) increase or decrease the inborn competencies. Therefore, the theory of SDT investigates the effects of people's progress, which is very substantially supported by their vitality, dependence, and psychological conditions (Reeve, Deci & Ryan, 2004). The self-determination theory makes use of experimental research and observations of these trials to gain an understanding of what people stand for in their psychological and social environments in order to strive and utilize their skills to their greatest potential (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

According to Reeve, et. al. (2003), the SDT is predicated on the notion that people have innate impulses to be a part of the environment around them and learn new things and abilities by fitting them into their typical life. This view is the foundation of the SDT. They also indicate that all persons who have these innate desires have the tendency to establish and improve a circumstantial and joined feeling of self. One may say that people have a fundamental propensity to engage in interdependence between qualities of their own selves and those of other persons and groups in the sociocultural situations in which they find themselves (Koestner, Bernieri & Zuckerman, 1992). Utilizing the concepts presented by Angyal (1965), this predisposition toward interdependence could encompass not just autonomy (a predisposition toward integrative self-regulation and internal coordination), but also homonymy (inclining over interdependence of one with other individuals). Self-determination theory, on the other hand, acknowledges the holistic inclination of people as a fundamental aspect of human nature; yet it also reflects that the holistic inclination cannot be taken in stride, despite the fact that it acknowledges it as a fundamental aspect of people (Deci & Ryan, 2002). In addition, the SDT postulates that there are some circumstances that are explicit and determinable that promote the inner tendency, and that there are some other determinable elements that prohibit and hamper this basic continuum (Zuckerman, Porac, Lathin, Smith, R. & Deci, 1978). As a result, SDT presupposes a dazzling array of progressive results ranging from "a relatively active and integrated self to a highly fragmented and sometimes passive, reactive, or alienated self," (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 5) as

an engagement of socio-cultural circumstances. These results differ from "a relatively active and integrated self to a highly fragmented and sometimes passive, reactive, or alienated self" (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 5).

When compared to other methodologies and points of view, SDT demonstrates greater superiority and advantages (Noels, Clement & Pelletier, 1999). The reason for this is because self-determination theory (SDT) proposes an uncompromising, internally stable structure, which defines a great deal of different tendencies through an expansive perspective (Noels, Pelletier, Clement & Vallerand, 2000). In addition to this, the theory not only provides an elaborate explanatory force to grasp the reason that certain tendencies can be preferable estimators of "relevant language learning variables (e.g. effort, persistence, attitudes)", but it also sheds light on the fact that certain tendencies can be seen in some individuals but not all by referring to "psychological mechanisms of perceived autonomy, competence, and relatedness" (Noels, Pelletier, Clement & Vallerand 2000, p. 59). In addition, the structure can be examined experimentally and also be recovered for testing, which is possible in a variety of research and study settings.

The concept of self-determination is based on the idea that an individual would behave willingly in a given circumstance when there is no external power, which can be interpreted to mean that this type of autonomous activity is one that is self-determined (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan, 1991). On the other hand, Deci et al. (1991) contend that an action can be considered controlled if it is carried out due to the influence of an external authority. According to Daoust, Vallerand, and Blais (1988), students who go to school but don't have any self-determined motivation to learn are significantly more likely to drop out of school than students who go to school willingly.

In conclusion, the foundation of SDT is the concept that maintains that the notion which language learning motivation cannot be unpartable might not be true. In other words, even though earlier theories were based on the characteristic of behaviour, SDT could be seen in different forms in different contexts because it does not only deal with the aspects of the behaviour, but it also deals with the aspects of the urges of the behaviour and the factors that affect them. This means that SDT could be seen in different contexts and in different forms. According to Deci et al. (1991)'s hypothesis, the level of self-determination can be inferred based on a variety of characteristics, ranging from acknowledgement to volition.

Therefore, Reeve, Ryan, Deci, and Jang (2007) state that SDT focuses on these variations and views that either support or oppose the autonomy of people with the assistance of other mini theories that could be subtitled under the heading of self-determination theory.

- Cognitive evaluation theory (Deci, 1975, Deci & Ryan, 1980)
- Organismic integration theory (Deci & Ryan 1995, Ryan & Connell, 1989)
- Causality orientation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985a)
- Basic needs theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000b)

According to Deci (1975), the idea of cognitive evaluation was initially verbalized in order to describe the influence of sociocultural factors on an individual's intrinsic drive. The theory was later built upon by Deci and Ryan (1980), who placed an emphasis on elucidating the ways in which rewards influence one's intrinsic motivation. The theory contends that the requirements for productivity and self-determination can be fully attached to intrinsic motivation, and that content-specific incidents, such as the availability of an award, the response to constructive feedback, and the imposition of a deadline, will probably influence intrinsic motivation within limits (Deci & Ryan, 2002). According to Rummel and Feinburg (1988), the hypothesis encompasses two primary processes. The first one, perceived locus of causality, is related to the necessity for self-determination. This means that if an incident energizes an alteration in apprehensions against a much more extrinsic locus, then intrinsic motivation might be hindered, but if an incident energizes an alteration against a more intrinsic locus, then intrinsic motivation might be promoted. The necessity for self-determination is related to the necessity for self-determination (Rummel & Feinburg, 1988). The latter process, a shift in people's perceptions of their own competence, is connected to the requirement that tasks be completed quickly. Consequently, there is a correlation between an increase in noticed efficiency and an increase in intrinsic motivation; conversely, when noticed efficiency declines as a result of an incident, there is a correlation between that incident and a decrease in intrinsic motivation (Ryan, Mims & Koestner, 1983).

Positive feedback is also a primary focus of the cognitive evaluation theory, generally known as CET. According to Fisher (1978), intrinsic motivation can be increased with the

help of positive feedback when individuals have the feeling of self-determination regarding the task which they are able to do and be efficient with. On the other hand, when the research that have been conducted on negative feedback are reviewed and analysed, it can be demonstrated that negative feedback can decrease intrinsic motivation (Deci & Cascio, 1972, Vallerand & Reid, 1984).

According to Ryan (1982), CET was developed in two significant ways in the beginning of the 1980s: interpersonally, with the concepts of reward, deadline, and feedback; and intrapersonally, with the concepts of initiating and regulating one's own activity. The former was covered earlier on in this section. Regarding the latter point, Ryan (1982) notes that individuals are able to initiate and organize their own activities in unique ways that are independent of the social and cultural settings in which they are embedded. In other words, their self-esteem can be dependent on the activities that they engage in, which can mean that they strive to demonstrate to themselves that they are capable of doing the thing that they want and that they are an important person. Plant and Ryan (1985) aimed to compare and contrast it with the concept of task-achievement, in which people concentrate more on the work at hand than they do on their own feelings. The theory that the level of intrinsic motivation varies according to involvement in a task, with or without feelings of worthiness, was backed by Rawsthorne and Elliot (1999), who conducted an analytical and experimental investigation to test the hypothesis.

The Organismic Integration Theory (OIT) can be built on the basis of presumption that persons essentially have the tendency to conjoin their previous experiences, provided that the nutrients necessary for this are bestowed upon them. This is the ground of presumption that underpins the theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002). That is, people may be urged to execute a task for which they are not intrinsically driven by the external reasons inspired by other people or organizations. In this sense, they integrate the activity's "external regulation," which means that they are not intrinsically motivated by the task (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 15). Schafer (1968) asserts that in accordance with the theory of organismic integration, this integration process is seen as a natural one. According to this theory, individuals strive to turn the external regulation into self-regulation by growing more integrated while performing, which is consistent with the theory of organismic integration.

Table 1.1. The Self-determination Continuum, with types of motivation and types of regulations. (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 16.)

Type of Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation		Intrinsic Motivation
Type of Regulation	Non-regulation	External Reg.	Introjected Reg.	Intrinsic Regulation
		Identified Reg.	Integrated Reg.	
Quality of Behavior	nonself-determined ←————→ self-determined			

Internalization is viewed by OIT as more of a monolith than a dualism from their point of view (Bandura, 1996). In addition to this, he claims that a more autonomous behaviour will result from the regulation being absorbed or integrated to a greater degree. When viewed from this perspective, it is possible to assert that individuals are not needed to incorporate the rules into who they are if they are able to make them a part of their identity. In addition to this, if these restrictions are not connected with the individual, people may begin to act as their own behaviour police (James, Wallace & Deane, 2019). It is possible to draw the conclusion that if the regulations can be internalized, then they may be considered as extrinsically motivated acts that are self-determined; on the other hand, if they are less internalized, then they may be seen as extrinsically motivated behaviours that are controlled.

The taxonomy of the organismic integration theory is presented in Table 1, and it is ordered from left to right in terms of the degree to which the motivation for an action originates from the actor him or herself. The primary purpose of this table is to provide a recognition and description of the self-determined continuum, with the end goal of categorizing the various forms of regulation that pertain to self-determination. According to Deci and Ryan (1991), individuals are not required to progress through all phases of behaviours and stages of internalization in relation to each and every regulation. They argue that individuals can begin at any regulation on the continuum and end at any other regulation provided that they have sufficient experience or sufficient help from the outside world.

Additionally, OIT says that a sense of belonging is necessary in order to facilitate the process of internalization. Ryan, Stiller, and Lynch (1994) discovered that the child who could absorb the regulation to a greater extent and with a more positive attitude was the one who felt securely attached to his or her family and was being cared for by his or her teachers. Grolnick and Ryan (1989) shown that when parents provide their children with support in terms of relatedness and autonomy, the children experience greater integration and

internalization of their identities. In addition, Williams and Deci (1996) demonstrated that pupils exhibited a significantly higher level of internalization when their teachers supported their ability to exercise self-determination. However, Deci and Ryan (2002) assert that even though relatedness is not the foundation for maintaining intrinsic drive, it is extremely important to foster internalization. This is the case despite the fact that relatedness is not the base to sustain intrinsic motivation.

The Causality Orientations Theory, also known as COT, is a model that was developed to serve as a descriptor of an individual's internal resources. These resources can be understood as individual distinctions of a person's motivating tendencies toward the social world (Deci & Ryan, 2002). The purpose of the COT approach is to identify and classify the aspects of a person's personality that are plainly required for the regulation of both conduct and experience (Rose, Parfitt & Williams, 2005). According to Deci and Ryan (2002, page 21), the theory defines three essential orientations that demonstrate a change in the level where they represent self-determination. These orientations are referred to as "the autonomous, controlled, and impersonal causality orientations." They argue that it is reasonable to assume that every person possesses each and every one of these orientations. The process of regulating one's behaviour according to one's own personal interests and self-established standards of right and wrong is the initial orientation. In addition to this, it makes an attempt to classify an individual's tendencies toward intrinsic motivation and well-regulated extrinsic incentive (Rose, Markland & Parfitt, 2010). The process of guiding toward directions and controls with regard to the manner in which a person ought to behave is the focus of the second type of orientation. In addition to this, it is connected with both internally imposed regulation and externally imposed regulation (Deci & Ryan, 1985a). The last orientation is the process of centring one's attention on the indications of ineffectiveness and acting non an accidental manner. It's possible that the orientation is connected to a lack of drive and aim (Deci and Ryan, 2002).

People who have autonomous orientations showed a greater positive relation between attitudes and giving feedback to oneself, while people who have controlled orientations showed a less positive or even negative relation between these various aspects, as found by Koestner, Bernieri, and Zuckerman (1992). Because of this, they arrived to the conclusion that people who have autonomous orientations have more in common with one another in terms of character, awareness, and attitude than persons who have controlled orientations.

The basic needs theory, often known as BNT, is a theory that was developed to explain and make the meaning of the concept in a more precise fashion, as well as its connection with happiness and mental health (Deci & Ryan, 2017). The fulfilment of one's requirements, in their view, contributes to an improved state of well-being, but the inability to meet one's wants may lead to unfavourable consequences. In addition, Deci and Vansteenkiste (2004) assert that these needs do not change from person to person, which indicates that they are universal. As a result, there is an undeniable relationship between well-being and satisfaction, which must be tailored to accommodate all genders, cultures, and ages. On the other hand, Deci and Ryan claim that "the ways through which needs are satisfied differ as a function of age, gender, and culture" (Deci and Ryan, 2002, page 22). As a result, they bring up the prospect that the fulfilment of a requirement for one group might prevent the fulfilment of a requirement for another group.

Ryff and Singer (1998) addressed the theory with the focus on personal well-being by including fully functioning in the same equation. In contrast, Kahneman, Diener, and Schwartz (1999) approached the theory with the focus on personal well-being by including happiness in the same equation. They only used the second approach to find out and classify people's levels of psychological flexibility, liveliness, and feeling of well-being. Although Deci and Ryan (2017) mention the intersection of these two approaches, they only used that approach to find out and classify people's levels of psychological flexibility.

In addition to this, the BNT places an emphasis on the connection that exists between goal contents and overall happiness. Kasser and Ryan (1993/1996) demonstrated that people have two different types of aspirations: intrinsic, which provide immediate satisfaction resulting from commitment, personal improvement, and cooperation; and extrinsic, which provide less immediate satisfaction resulting from affluence, popularity, and public opinion. Both types of aspirations were shown to be present in people. They argue that because there is a postulated link between intrinsic aspirations and the realization of these desires, the pursuit of intrinsic aspirations and access to them ought to be related with well-being more so than the pursuit of extrinsic aspirations.

To provide a brief overview, self-determination theory centres on the connection that exists between a human biology that is oriented toward active development and social settings that either support or impede an individual's efforts to integrate their experiences

into a harmonious feeling of self (Deci & Ryan, 2002). The ideas of "needs for efficiency," "needs for self-determination," and "needs for relatedness" are helpful in describing the factors of context that either promote or inhibit well-being, motivation, and competence.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

This extensive work on motivation is the result of my interest in motivation and motivational variables in teaching and learning. It may also be taken as a reflection of my understanding that motivation is a vast, massive, and significant continent waiting to be discovered systematically and investigated, in as much as it has a significant voice in the learning process and achievement. The English language learners might have independent motivational variables having regard to their age, gender, educational background and whether learners study at public and foundation universities. Typically, learners start to study English at the age 10 or below and in this regard, a student learns English approximately for 8 years or more, which is a necessity in Turkish Education System for them to achieve language goals in an international perspective, future high school entrance exams and as nearly all the universities' teaching language's being English. According to Busse and Williams (2010), there are a number of determinants that learners interiorize during the process of learning, in this case-language learning, and motivation is the most important of these elements. As a result, motivation plays an unquestionable part in whether or not a learner effectively acquires a language. Oxford and Crookall (1989) also state that motivation, gender, and self-perception are the most important factors in the analysis of variants on an individual's determinants, and they also state that motivated learners use strategies more frequently than those who are not motivated at all or are only moderately motivated. In other words, if motivation is not involved in the process, the continuum of language learning does not appear expectative. Finally, Dörnyei (1998) contends that without motivation, basic cues may not be offered to commence the language learning process, and so motivation may not become the driving urge for learners to be steadfast during this period in order to achieve their goals. Given these considerations, the significance of motivation in second language learning cannot be overlooked and must be thoroughly examined.

1.4. The Purpose of the Study

The most important element of foreign language learning, motivation has always held vital significance motivational studies and researches because it is the basis and fundamental urge to start acquiring a language (Dörnyei, 2009). Learners might be influenced from the factors around them or the stimulus inside them while trying to learn a foreign language. Therefore, the objective of the study is to investigate comparatively the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on L2 learners who study at public and foundation universities. This study also aims to show that motivation, sub-categories of motivation and amotivation have a close relation with language learning in terms of age, gender, educational background and type of universities which are public and foundation.

1.5. Research Questions

When adverse effects of unfavourable conditions are taken into account, motivation and its types should not be ignored in language learning and its achievement. The central aim of this study is to have a better insight about the role of motivation and the types of motivation for the students towards language learning. In addition to this, the researcher has a purpose to examine what type of motivation -intrinsic or extrinsic- affects largely and more importantly students' language learning process in general and English in particular, to evaluate whether the students have one, both or none of the motivation types by using the research questions below:

1. Is there any significant difference between self-determination motivation types of students studying English at public and foundation universities?
2. Is there any significant difference between the types of self-determination motivation with respect to the type of high school students graduated from?
3. Is there a relationship between the motivational structure of English learners and their age?
4. Does the motivational structure of English learners differ with respect their gender?

1.6. The Significance of the Study

The objective of the study is to display the effect of motivation and motivational factors on language learning. This study also aims to find the motivational make-up of the learners; variables', such as age, gender, type of high school and type of university currently enrolled. As there are not many studies done on preparatory school students, with the help of this study, working on motivational variables and predictors of previous education and university type might help find out students' main drive which may result in improving or increasing the motivation of learners. This has great importance in this context as preparatory school is the place where they can improve their L2 before they go to their own departments.



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature Review section provides in-depth information relating to the concept of metacognition that lies at the heart of the theoretical background to the current study. Additionally, it presents a comprehensive summary of the examples of previous major studies that have relevance to the present study.

2.1. Motivation

According to Harmer (2001), motivation is the inner urge that drives a person to complete tasks and achieve a goal. Williams & Burden (1997) expand on the definition, stating that motivation is a type of cognitive process that causes a decision-making mechanism to take action, resulting in long-term ideational and physical endeavour in order for someone to accomplish something. It can be viewed as the spark that ignites people mentally and physically to begin or complete something they desire.

According to Reeve (1997), motivation theory is necessary because it allows us to explain the reason for one's drive and its direction. Drive refers to behaviour that is relatively strong, profound, and long-lasting. The term "direction" refers to behaviour that is aimed at achieving a specific purpose or goal. It is the same drive that directs students' behaviour toward specific goals and focuses their attention by giving them a purpose. Reeve (1997:11) added the following as well:

- Motivation comprises both aptitude and abstention dispositions.
- Motivation has distinctions in terms of density and kind.
- Motivation can be self-regulated or environmentally regulated.
- Motivation is something about desire and will.

- Motivation is a dynamic process.
- Motive incentives may change in time and place.
- Motives have been arranged hierarchically.
- We might not be really aware of the basis of our behaviors for motivation.
- Motivational tenet may show difference.

According to Rowel and Ensook (2009), motivation can be defined as a psychological continuum arising from the interaction between the environment and the person, thus performing a critical mission for learning and improvement. According to Pintrich (2003), this process occurs as a result of people's decisions and actions that are influenced by cultural and social factors as well as basic needs. These decisions, the fear of these decisions and their consequences, the dedication and engagement of individuals to the actions engender as a result of psychological requirements (Locke & Latham, 2013).

According to Locke (2002), people get the spark and the drive to achieve a goal, and they act accordingly as a result of the main source of urge-motivation, functioning as determined cognitive and organismic functions influencing how they behave. By acting as the actuator of these behaviours, motivation embodies its aspect, depth, and continuation period (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). Simply put, motivation is the primary reason for an individual's actions toward a specific goal (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000).

According to Singh (2011), motivation can be defined as the determination that drives people to pursue their goals despite significant obstacles. Furthermore, according to Ayub (2010), motivation can include a desire to act as well as being curious, having a learning-oriented point of view, being active, and successful, making it a multidimensional concept. As a result, when task performance is taken into account, motivation can be defined as a collection of positive behaviours and feelings.

According to Zlate & Cucui (2015), motivation can be viewed as an internal state that governs how an individual acts in order to achieve a specific purpose. Furthermore,

motivation can be a major factor that has a significant impact on people's lives (Hubackova, 2014).

2.1.1. Definitions of motivation

Motivation has more than one facet to it. Gardner (1985) claims that there are two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. According to Yu (2013), integrative motivation can be defined as a willingness and proclivity to interact with other social and cultural communities, whereas instrumental motivation can be defined as people learning and using a language for specific reasons such as finding a good job, a better title or position, traveling, or passing an examination. Gardner (2001) defines integrative motivation as a mental, physical, and affectionate approach to willed language and culture.

According to Spaulding (1992), human motivation can be classified into two types: extrinsic and intrinsic. Noels, Clement, and Pelletier (1999) extend the definition by stating that intrinsic motivation is dependent on intrinsic interest, whereas the former is based on rewards, despite the fact that their types are not in different categories. People are extrinsically motivated when they are engaged in an activity with the expectation of receiving an award or avoiding retribution (Ryan, Deci and Koestner, 2001). They, on the other hand, are intrinsically motivated while engaged in an endeavor because they have an inner desire to complete a task successfully regardless of the rewards and punishments associated with it (Komarraju et al. 2009). When people feel competent and self-determined, they are more likely to be intrinsically motivated. As a result, teachers who want to increase their students' internal motivation must learn how to create academic environments that allow students to perceive not only competence but also control (Yu, 2013).

2.1.1.1. Intrinsic motivation

According to Harmer (2001), anyone can be motivated by the pleasure of the educational process while learning new things or by the desire to feel a lot better. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), intrinsic motivation is a natural tendency that exists from birth to allow interest and capacity to discover and overcome challenges. They also claim that this type of motivation is founded on innate feelings and needs that people experienced when they felt the need for competence. Deci (in Brown, 2001) also mentions that activities that

are internally motivating do not have specific incentives. Furthermore, according to Filimonov (2017), people may feel motivated when the task or activity is important to them, indicating that they have intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, Noels et al. (1999) define intrinsic motivation as engaging in an action that is enjoyable and satisfying to the person performing it. It manifests itself through psychological drives, personal interests, and efforts to grow. According to these researchers, the hypothesis is all about having the freedom to choose an activity to engage in, which can present a challenge to which people can rise. Furthermore, intrinsic motivation provides people with a natural motivational level that improves learning without the use of rewards or pressures (Deci et al. 1991). Without these rewards and pressures, for example, interest can reignite a desire to engage in an activity.

2.1.1.1.1. Types of intrinsic motivation

Knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation are kinds of intrinsic motivation.

2.1.1.1.1.1. Intrinsic motivation-knowledge

According to Clark and Schroth (2010), this type of motivation can be mentioned when people seek delight and pleasure as a result of acquiring or making an effort to acquire a language when they engage in a task. As a result, there is a link between knowledge, discovery, being curious, goals, and the intrinsic motivation to acquire. Internal motivation to learn could be defined as doing a task for the sake of pleasure while acquiring something (Vallerand et al. 1992). Noels et al. (1999) define the term as "the feelings and motivation associated with discovering brand new ideas to develop knowledge." Noels and colleagues Noels et al. (2000) extend the description by claiming that this type of motivation can be linked to positive or more positive emotions that can arise as a result of learning new ideas or gaining knowledge. Finally, Hein, Müür, and Koka (2004) conclude in their study that intrinsic motivation to learn leads people to perform a task because they want to learn something that is unfamiliar to them.

2.1.1.1.1.2. Intrinsic motivation-accomplishment

According to Vallerand et al. (1992), individuals who focus on the continuum of success motivation may be seen as having been compromised under the term of internal

motivation to succeed. As a result, being successful in things could be defined as being involved in a task for enjoyment and personal desire while attempting to be successful or develop a new thing (Hein, Mür, & Koko, 2004). Learners who extend their studies beyond the requirements of their school's term or year may strive to improve themselves by demonstrating internal motivation toward achievement. According to Noels et al. (1999), this type of motivation is defined as the sensations associated with an attempt to master a task or achieve a goal.

2.1.1.1.3. Intrinsic motivation-experience stimulation

According to Vallerand et al. (1992), while students engage in any type of activity to imprecisely inspire perceptions, IM to experience stimulation is also active. According to Noels et al. (1999), doing the task may stimulate sensations related to motivation. They provide examples of aesthetic appreciation as well as fun and excitement. Similarly, Hein et al. (2004) state that people will have an experience of expected behaviour because of the positive feelings they have for the task, but not because of its accomplishment or acquisition. They also state that the outcome of this type of motivation is likely to be beneficial for learning due to the nature of task enjoyment.

2.1.1.2. Extrinsic motivation

Needs energize and direct our behaviour, and they motivate us to seek out situations that we believe can involve and satisfy our needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). They also claim that learners' needs may not be active and may be silent. As a result, learners may not always be active, and they may be unwilling to engage in their environment. Schools may face the same issue; teachers may have reluctant students who do not want to participate in class, and this situation can break a student's courage. To put it another way, learners may not always be successful in activating their motivation. They may try to find something motivating in their surroundings. According to Reeve (1997), teachers in schools exhibit a variety of behaviours that can be classified as external drives, also known as extrinsic motivation. According to Noels et al. (1999), unlike behaviours with intrinsic motivation, behaviours with extrinsic motivation can be transferred into practice to achieve something instrumental.

People learning a language or performing another task may have extrinsic motivation if they are offered a reward, threatened with punishment, or expect appreciation or approval from others for their actions, according to Kowal and Fortier (1997). Furthermore, Cherry (2016) claims that extraneous drives can influence the stimulation of will and participation even if there is no initial desire or motivation. For example, if a worker is rewarded for a successful performance, which is an extrinsic motivation, he or she will realize that her or his work is valued.

People who participate in activities for a reward are extrinsically motivated. Lepper and Cordova (1989:188) assert “When individuals are extrinsically motivated, they hold some desired outcome as a goal (e.g., getting a good grade or avoiding punishment), they recognize that a certain way of behaving is an expedient means to that goal, and they make plans to modify their behaviour in such a manner that they are likely to experience the desired outcome.”

Many academics believe that internal motivations are more powerful than external motivations. Nonetheless, Cherry (2016) claims that some researchers reach some basic conclusions about the effectiveness of external drives versus internal drives.

- External incentives help improve internal drives.
- Appreciation is able to enhance intrinsic motivation.
- Intrinsic motivation may diminish if external incentives are presented for insignificant performances or behaviours.

2.1.1.2.1 Types of extrinsic motivation

According to Deci and Ryan (1985), there are three types of extrinsic motivation. They are classified as having lower or higher levels of autonomy. External regulation, introjection, and identification are some examples (cited in Vallerand et al., 1992).

2.1.1.2.1.1. External regulation

Deci and Ryan (1985a) developed this type of extrinsic motivation in which people focus on earthbound outcomes that are entirely separate from the tasks. As a result, they claim that external regulation is the least self-determined type among both extrinsic and intrinsic types. According to Öz (2015), this type of motivation is associated with rewards, constraints, and penalties.

According to Noels et al. (1999), this type of extrinsic motivation is defined as behaviours or attitudes that are influenced by external factors such as concrete profits. In other words, external forces such as rewards or impellent can be used to regulate these types of behaviours. In other words, people may feel obligated to please an outsider or may anticipate a reward (Deci & Ryan, 2000). For example, if someone learns a language solely to please her/his boss, this indicates that an external regulation is in effect.

2.1.1.2.1.2. Introjected regulation

Deci and Ryan (2000) state that in this type of motivation, people internalize the belief that the task is critical and significant. Indeed, they are aware that they are required to perform the task due to some external rules, but they have already accepted the existence of these requirements. According to Noels et al. (2000), as a result of this internalization, when people are motivated in this manner, they are influenced by the pressure of those in authority.

According to Guay and Bureau (2018), people's basic stimulation is to have a sense of self-esteem or to avoid feeling guilty. As a result, it is clear that the learning objective may not be met. Nevertheless, it can be regarded as an urge which may bring an outcome in a way.

2.1.1.2.1.3. Identified regulation

According to Reeve et al. (2007), behaviours are essential and valuable for learning a variety of things about a student. They also mention that when students choose what they want to do, extrinsic motives that are internalized become identified regulation. For example, a student may want to study because it is important to her/him, or he/she may be eager to do

so (Vallerand et al., 1992). As a result, that student assigns an individual significance to the value of the performance, increasing the outcome's eligibility.

Deci and Ryan (2000) contend that this type of motivation is more self-determined. They state that people are not only aware of the causes of the task at hand, but they also understand its importance. To put it another way, individuals accept the importance of the task and regard it as a part of themselves, making the action more autonomous (Deci et al. 1991).

2.1.1.3. Amotivation

The final component of SDT is amotivation, which may imply that people have little or no desire to complete tasks. In other words, people can either do nothing or perform inactively. Many studies, including Legault, Green-Demers, and Pelletier (2006), show that individuals struggle with amotivation, particularly academically. Rotter (1966) and Seligman (1975) claim that this may stem from feelings that people do not have the ability to achieve their goals. Furthermore, Bandura (1977) and Deci (1975) contend that this may be due to a lack of perceived competence. Finally, Ryan (1995) contends that it can arise from the worthlessness of people's actions or outcomes.

Noels et al. (2000) define amotivation as the belief that there is no relationship between one's performance and one's outcomes. According to their definition, people believe that the outcomes are the result of others, so they tend to stop or end the activity with no intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. According to Janosz, Le Blanc, Boulerice, and Tremblay (2000), the idea of outside forces controlling their actions and outcomes leads to indifference to willed goals. Individuals who are unmotivated become frustrated and dissatisfied as a result of these feelings and states, according to Legault et al. (2006), limiting their inventiveness and productivity. These scholars also claim that amotivation can be caused by a lack of trust in oneself and one's abilities, which they attribute as the primary cause of their amotivation. Their second claim is that amotivation is linked to people's belief that they will not be able to put in enough effort to achieve their goal, resulting in academic failure. Furthermore, Deci and Ryan (1985a) state that a person may experience amotivation if he or she believes there is an irrelevance between the task and herself/himself. Murdock (1999) supports the idea by stating that any negative emotions about the environment, such as school or work, can cause

a sense of amotivation. Finally, Legault et al. (2006) claim that if people do not experience pleasure while performing a task, they may experience amotivation.

Despite the gravity of the subject and the complexities of the term amotivation, studies have focused more on other types of motivation. Considering the severe results of this type of motivation, working on the construct of amotivation may help more to motivate individuals in all fields.

2.1.2. Motivation, age and gender

According to Schumann (1975), age is a very important factor when attempting to learn a second language. According to Lenneberg (1967), one of the studies on language learning, the critical period hypothesis plays an important role in second language learning and people have much more difficulties in the post-adolescent period. This difficulty may have an impact on motivation in language learning.

When it comes to studies on children, the age and motivation for language learning become much clearer. There was no foreign language teaching system in schools for three-year-old children until the education reform in Spain in the 1990s. Many studies on language learning motivation and its relationship to those ages have been conducted since then. Munoz (2006) and Hoffmann and Ytsma (2003) found a positive relationship between language learning motivation and age at primary schools in various countries. Furthermore, Green's (2000) research demonstrated that when students in the United Kingdom studying German as a second language were compared and contrasted with students in Germany studying English as a second language, the process becomes more complicated as the learners grow. According to the study, 77.3 percent of 13-year-old students (students learning German) were willing to learn a second language if they did not have the opportunity to do so at their school. However, the percentage was much lower, with students accounting for 33.3 percent of the latter group (students learning English).

Munoz's (2006) study on secondary school students, as well as Masgoret and Gardner (2003), show that there may be a decrease in motivation as students get older. The motivation of the former group of students, aged 13 to 15, remained consistent even in the final year of

their language learning period at school. On the other hand, in the latter group of students aged 10-15 in a summer language program, motivation for language learning decreased.

Hegarty (2010) conducted a study with 240 elementary, high school, and undergraduate university students to assess their motivational levels using the AMS (Vallerand et al., 1992). According to the findings, students' motivation decreases with age. Psaltou-Joycey, Vrettou, and Penderi (2017) studied on 3,356 elementary and lower secondary school students from all over Greece. They were curious about the connection between age and motivation in learning a second language. They discovered that when motivation and its dynamics are considered, learning a foreign language takes less time.

Kormos and Csizer (2008) conducted a study on second language learning motivation and factors influencing it among 623 Hungarian students studying at three different schools, two of which are public and one of which is private. They came to the conclusion, contrary to the previous studies, that there were no significant differences between age groups. They assumed this was due to the fact that the people in the country regard English as a medium and key to communicating with the outside world, and this is their main motivation for all age groups.

Celi (2017) investigated 310 students from various departments at the University of Guayaquil. The age groups were as follows: 17-22, 23-27, 28-33, and over 34. It was a six-month study, and each student's progress was tracked. The researcher discovered that younger participants were more motivated to learn English than older participants.

Lepper, Corpus, and Iyengar (2005) conducted a study with 797 ethnically diverse students and discovered a consistent decrease in participants intrinsic motivation from third to eighth grade when academic outcomes were investigated and analyzed. On the other hand, they discovered that the difference in extrinsic motivation among the same participants is not significant.

MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Donovan (2008) conducted a study with 268 students in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades at a junior high school in France. They discovered a decrease in learner motivation between the seventh and eighth grades, which was consistent

with previous research. When these studies are taken into account, there is a direct relationship between age and motivation, particularly motivation for language learning.

Since the 1960s and 1970s, there has been a theory known as attribution, which has played an important role in motivation theory by helping to understand the differences between genders in learning motivation (Meece et al., 2006). Gender studies have revealed that women have a lower expectancy attribution, resulting in a slightly lower ability in learning, particularly language, than men (Bar Tal et al., 1978). According to Crandall et al. (1965), men, on the other hand, have higher expectancy attribution, demonstrating attributions to their successes in language learning rather than failures. According to Polat's (2011) research on Kurdish secondary and high school students, male students who are more motivated than their female peers perform better in language learning. Finally, Al-Bustan and Al-Bustan (2009) demonstrated that some unpleasant language learning experiences influenced female students' motivation, whereas there was no evidence of those experiences in male students' responses.

Burden, Lanvers, and Williams (2002), on the other hand, demonstrated in their study that British female language learners aged seven to nine showed a higher level of foreign language learning motivation when compared to male counterparts. Furthermore, Sung and Padilla (1998) discovered that female elementary and secondary students in Japan, China, and Korea are more motivated to learn a foreign language than male peers. Another study, by Ghazvini and Khajehpour (2011), found that female high school students in Iran have a higher level of integrative motivation in learning a foreign language than male students, who have instrumental motivation.

Thus, when motivation and attribution to language learning are considered, there is a gender difference, and gender may have an effect on motivation, resulting in people's language learning. There could be several reasons for this. Dörnyei et al. (2006) and Williams et al. (2002), for example, demonstrated that male students' motivation was hampered by their perception of the French language's feminine appearance when compared to female learners. Similarly, Ryan (2009) demonstrated that female Japanese students demonstrated a higher level of motivation to learn English due to the perception that their language has some limitations in explaining themselves as females, whereas English is regarded as more independent for them.

Köseoğlu (2013a) discovered in his study of 728 students, all of whom were first-year students at an English-medium university, that there were significant differences between male and female students when all motivational subscales (intrinsic, extrinsic-with their sub-categories, and amotivation) mentioned in Vallerand et al. (1992) Academic Motivational Scale were taken into account (AMS). He discovered that male students are less intrinsically and extrinsically motivated than female students in general.

Polat (2011) studied on 121 ethnically Kurdish students from randomly selected middle and high schools in a city in eastern Turkey. He discovered that male participants are extrinsically (identified and introjected regulation) more motivated than their female counterparts based on his analysis and data results. He discovered no significant difference between genders in other types of motivation.

Burden, Lanvers, and Williams (2002) studied on 228 students in their seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. They discovered that girls were more motivated than boys to learn German and French as second languages. They also conducted interviews as part of their research to determine the reasons. They came to the conclusion that boys, in particular, regarded French as feminine.

Sung and Padilla (1998) demonstrated that when learning a language (Asian languages) is considered, there is a significant gender difference. Overall, female students were more motivated than male participants. They investigated 591 elementary and secondary school students studying Chinese, Japanese, or Korean in various public schools for this study.

Caleon, Wui, Tan, Chiam Soon, and King (2015) examined the AMS invariance between male and female students in a study of 1482 academically at-risk learners in 23 different government schools in Singapore. While attempting to determine whether there is a difference in their motivation to learn, they discovered that there is no significant difference between the two genders. Husain (2014) studied on 135 students ranging in age from 18 to 26 from various schools in Karachi and concluded that there is no significant difference between genders when academic motivation and motivational subscales are considered.

Davis, Winsler & Middleton (2010) discovered that boys have a higher level of extrinsic motivation than girls in a study of 136 students attending a public university in the mid-Atlantic region. The findings of their study revealed that boys, in particular, have external regulation when it comes to completing a task or achieving a goal.

2.1.3. Motivation in foreign language learning

2.1.3.1. The concept of foreign language learning motivation

According to Dörnyei (2009), foreign language learning is a unique process that cannot be compared to other types of learning. He adds that “Learning a language is linked to one's individual core, which constitutes an essential component of a person's individuality,” (Dörnyei, 2009, p.9). Gardner (1985) backs up Dörnyei's idea by stating that learning a foreign language necessitates a continuum that can convert an unfamiliar thing to a familiar thing for an individual, thereby developing a person's perception and willingness to learn.

Foreign language learning motivation can be defined as a progression formed by a learner who is eager to learn a foreign language and longs to achieve his goal by devoting himself to success and experiencing a sense of accomplishment (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). According to Ellis (1994), learners attempt to learn a foreign language because they need it or have a strong desire to do so.

According to Oxford & Shearin (1994), most scholars consider motivation to be the most important factor in determining achievement in learning a foreign language and people's involvement in the process. Motivation, along with other factors influencing the learning process, can be viewed as the cornerstone of language acquisition in order to learn any foreign language, not just English, as is the case in the study. According to Stipek (1998), motivation may be considered one of the primary predictive factors of language acquisition.

According to Spaulding (1992), motivation is a desire to achieve a goal combined with the energy to pursue that desire. Motivated students are eager to begin studying and completing the course requirements, with this unwavering energy leading them to the desired destination or point, which is imagined at the start of the process. To put it another way, when

it comes to language learning, a motivated learner will never lose their bearings until they win in the end.

Furthermore, Brown (2000) mentions that an inner impetus or stimulant, which can be intermittent or situational in nature, can be viewed as motivation. These or other levels of motivation may be required for learning a new language. A situational oriented learner, for example, may be highly motivated to succeed in written forms of a language. Regardless of whether it is occasional or situational, motivation is the learner's drive, which can be high or low (Dörnyei, 2005).

Brewster and Ellis (1991) defined motivation as a collection of beliefs, opinions, and emotions that are put into action. Motivation is the most important determinant of second or foreign language acquisition success. Furthermore, Dörnyei (1998) asserts that motivation is responsible for determining individual behaviours in language learning. Furthermore, motivation is one of the most important factors influencing learners' desire to interact with others (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Individuals who lack motivation will not be able to achieve their goals in the long run, even if they have exceptional abilities (Şener, 2014b).

2.1.3.1.1. Social motivation

According to McGroarty (1998), if the literature world is willing to address the characteristics of foreign language learning, social contexts influencing the learning process must be taken into account first and foremost. Furthermore, Weiner (1994) defines social motivation as the confluence of motivational forces caused by social and cultural context. According to Dörnyei (2001, p. 45), because of the sociocultural nature of foreign language learning, social and cultural factors have a significant influence on L2 acquisition.

2.1.3.1.2. Motivation from a process-oriented experience

According to Ushioda (1996), successful foreign language competence can last only a few years, and a learner's motivation is not stable. As a result, he believes that studies on finding consecutive patterns and progressive elements will be far more useful when institutionalized language learning is taken into account. Williams and Burden's (1997) analysis of the distinction between the onset of motivation and the continuum of maintaining

motivation can be considered a process-oriented context. Finally, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) developed a process-oriented structure in which numerous motivational forces are investigated through motivated behaviour and action.

2.1.3.1.3. A Neurobiological explanation of motivation

Shumann (1998,1999) is a leading researcher in the field of neurobiology and foreign language learning. He attempted to connect language learning and cognitive sciences by putting stimulus appraisal, which occurs through five different dimensions such as novelty, need significance, dealing with potential, pleasantness, and self and social image, at the core of his theory. According to Dörnyei (2001), these dimensions become a part of the individual's value framework, which guides people's actions and behaviours.

2.1.3.1.4. Task motivation

Trembley, Goldberg, and Gardner (1995) attempted to distinguish trait motivation, which consists of a consistent and long-lasting tendency, from state motivation, which consists of impermanent and transient reactions, in order to demonstrate the variation in learners' interest levels and dedication to tasks. According to Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), this differentiation can help define learners' task choice, which will be extremely beneficial in determining task motivation and allowing teachers and curriculum designers to choose motivating tasks.

2.1.4. The theories on motivation

2.1.4.1. Behaviourist motivation theories

Behaviourists' motivation theory regards motivation as a term that facilitates the repetition of behaviours in response to an organism's urge or drive. Schunk (2011) mentions two distinct approaches to motivation. Whereas in the first, classical conditioning, an outer drive encounters a reaction, any drive can encounter a reaction in the second, operant conditioning. Erden and Akman (2001) add that with classical conditioning experimentation, a neutral drive can be converted into a conditioned drive. Furthermore, Fidan (1996) asserts that in operant conditioning, the organism is capable of comprehending the action or behaviour that leads the person to something good or bad. Furthermore, when an action or

behaviour encounters reinforcement, it may be suppressed. According to Bacanlı (2002), these reinforcements are the drives that increase the likelihood of repeated actions or behaviours. People who hold behaviourist beliefs regard reinforcements as the primary source of motivation (Kürüm, 2007). Similarly, Özbay (2002) claims that these reinforcements may increase the necessary efforts made to meet the needs.

Views based on behaviours base motivation on external factors and the enhancement of willed actions (Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015). When behavioural viewpoints are taken into account, some disadvantages may arise. According to Cameron and Pierce (as cited in Shirkey, 2003), learners who are motivated in such ways may be less likely to learn when there is no incentive.

2.1.4.2. Cognitive motivation theories

Psychologists supporting cognitive theories are more interested in the role of individuals in actions in which they are involved, as well as the causes of these actions (Magdalena, 2015). To explain the term motivation, these psychologists emphasize the importance of both cognitive and personal characteristics (Keblawi, 2009). People's motivation is undeniably influenced by the allurements of their ultimate goals and the anticipation of achieving them, both of which are cognitive features (Weiner, 1974). Woolfolk (1998) asserts in a similar manner that cognitive elements such as convictions, expectations, morals, and goals shape individuals' motivation.

When behavioural and cognitive perspectives are compared, the latter is said to be more intrinsically oriented. Furthermore, Moreno (2010) states that intrinsic oriented motivation is far more influential in success, and cognitive continuum enables some people to achieve their goals more effectively. Similarly, Anjomshoa and Sadighi (2015) contend that self-perception has a significant influence on actions and behaviours. However, there may be some drawbacks to this point of view. Students may encounter difficulties in “achieving the lack of balance,” and they may need to motivate themselves to adapt schema if they lack sufficient belief and trust in themselves (Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015:129).

2.1.4.3. Social cognitive theory

Bandura (1971) developed Social Cognitive (Learning) Theory (SCT) by viewing people's behaviours as an active unit that influences and is influenced by the conditions around them. He also mentions a mutual involvement of coaction, cognition, environmental conditions, and behaviours. According to Zimmerman and Schunk (1989), this interactive and reciprocal linkage can be interpreted as the primary resource of motivation and learning.

By describing people's behaviours as the offspring of their cultural and social entourage, Bandura (2002) asserts that perception can be counted as the main factor in his theory, where the behaviours are controlled by perception directed by cognition and perceived self-efficacy. The concept of self-efficacy is based on the idea that a person can achieve his goals with the help of his abilities and that a person can take necessary steps to control the things around him with the help of his perceptions of his abilities (Bandura, 2010).

Although the term self-efficacy can be viewed as an interpersonal involvement, it can be developed with the assistance of some intrapersonal elements such as competence experience, indirect learning, social conviction, and physiological reaction (Ozer and Bandura, 1990). Inasmuch as Stipek and Hoffman (1980) asserted that when a person performs a task, there arises the emotion of success and the belief that the goal will be achieved in the future due to the competence experience, the experience of competence or mastery can be regarded as the basic resource of self-efficacy. The second term, indirect learning, also known as vicarious learning, can be defined as the observation of other people's attitudes and the results and effects of these attitudes (Nabavi, 2012). That is, seeing others succeed may provide motivation to do the same by increasing self-efficacy because people see themselves as the ones who achieve the goal. The third factor, which can be social conviction or persuasion from other counterparts, has a significant impact on people's motivation because they tend to have the feeling or belief that they are capable of performing the task appropriately (McCombs, 1989). In other saying, people can be motivated by other people's evaluations, appraisals, or criticism. Finally, Bandura (1982) claims that physiological responses like menace or delicacy lead to self-inefficacy due to inconvenient action perception.

2.1.4.4. Humanistic motivation theories

Abraham Maslow is widely regarded as the father of humanistic thinking. According to Maslow (1970), motivation is driven by the hierarchy of needs, which are physiologic, reliability, ownership, and love, respect, and self-realization, in that order. Furthermore, Kasap (1996) asserts that the key elements in humanistic motivation theories are necessities and intrinsic types of motivation. Similarly, Maslow mentions two important concepts: primary incentives, such as psychological necessities, and subordinate incentives, which can be seen in social and cultural settings (Selçuk, 1997). The heart of humanistic motivation theories can be found in two main theories: Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's two factor theory.

2.1.4.5. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

Individuals may be motivated to act due to personal needs or external forces or resources. Maslow's theory, which asserts that some needs, which people strive to address, are universal, demonstrates the order of importance of these needs (Hubackova, 2014). The hierarchy of needs theory explicitly accounts for finding a way to give meaning to individuals' actions and behaviours (Açıkgöz, 2007). First and foremost, the low-level needs must be addressed in order to meet the high-level needs (Maslow, 1970). He also mentions how this information can help teachers identify and address the needs of their students.

Table 2.1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Gawel, 1996)

Level	Type of Need	Examples
1	Psychological	Thirst, sex, hunger, sleep etc.
2	Safety	Security, stability, protection etc.
3	Love and Belonging	friendship, family, love and be loved
4	Esteem	Self-respect, respect of others, respect by others
5	Self-actualization	To fulfill one's potentialities

2.1.4.6. Herzberg's two factor theory

Herzberg (1959) formalized the theory, also known as dual-factor theory. According to the theory, people have two distinct groups of needs, and the distinct factors at work satisfy or dissatisfy these needs (Wright, 2000). The first group is about an individual's basic survival needs, which are hygiene factors (Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2008). Hygiene factors are not directly related to the job but are related to the situations and conditions surrounding job performance, such as company policy, a reward system at work, salary, or relationships with other people (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). People can become dissatisfied if these factors are not met. When satisfied, these factors, on the other hand, only serve to avoid dissatisfaction. That is, they are not required to motivate or satisfy (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959).

The latter group of needs is referred to as the needs of growth or motivation factors, and it refers to internal elements within the workplace such as being successful, responsible, or appreciating the completion or progress of a task (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl & Maude, 2017). According to Herzberg (1971), when these factors are met, they can act as motivators. If they are not satisfied, however, they only cause a lack of satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction (Dion, 2006).

Table 2.2. Herzberg's Two-factor Theory Summary (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl & Maude, 2017, p.13)

Motivation Factors	Hygiene Factors
Advancement	Interpersonal relationship
Work itself	Salary
Possibility of growth	Policies and administration
Responsibility	Supervision
Recognition	Working conditions
Achievement	

Table 2.3. Comparison of factors in Herzberg's theory (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl & Maude, 2017, p.13)

	Motivation Factors	Hygiene Factors
Absent	no satisfaction	dissatisfaction
Present	satisfaction	no dissatisfaction
Herzberg described	intrinsic to the job	extrinsic to the job
Important to job satisfaction	strong	poor

2.1.5. A brief history of motivation

It appears critical to pursue development from the start of foreign language learning motivation works and researches in order to gain a thorough understanding of foreign language motivation. With the increasing number of researches and studies, the works done on motivation have been influenced relatively by studies of psychology and socio-culture.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) mention four different stages for foreign language learning motivation, based on the advancement of foreign language motivation theories throughout history:

- The stage of social-psychological between the years of 1959 and 1990
- The stage of cognitive situated in 1990s
- The stage of process-oriented in 2000s
- The stage of socio-dynamic at present

The socio-psychological stage that has dominated foreign language motivation theory studies for more than three decades began with the first steps of research on language motivation theories in 1959. Gardner and Lambert (1972), known as the nucleus of this field, were at the forefront of motivational studies for language acquisition for thirty years. These two scholars and researchers worked hard to methodize traditional studies on individual motivation in terms of social psychology in order to ensample the behaviours related to language and learner determined to specialize in another country's language in Canada, whose society was shaped by perpetually disputed societies struggling to coexist in the same territory together (Dörnyei, 2005). The origins of socio-psychological attitudes can be traced

back to the cultural and linguistic characteristics of Canadian society, whereas interpretations of language learning in this context were used in other diverse societies. Gardner and Lambert's research paved the way for greater understanding of learning differences between languages and other subjects.

There were two concepts which could be seen in these researchers' studies. The first is the “socio-educational model” of foreign language learning, which is a ground-breaking cornerstone used to illuminate motivation for foreign language learning, attitudes toward language, and distinguishing factors imposing them (Gardner & Smythe, 1975). The term has already been discussed and described numerous times (Gardner, 1985; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). The second concept, “the Attitude Motivation Test Battery,” is made up of eleven subordinate groups and was developed to assess foreign language motivation and the various factors that influence it (Gardner, 2005).

With a broader perspective, the former concept demonstrated that foreign language motivation can be related to two types of elements: learning attitudes and “Integrativeness” (Gardner, 2005). Integrativeness became the fundamental term expressing a learner's willingness to be a part of another society and culture while learning its language. When compared to those who are not assisted and inspired by Integrativeness, the term can also be interpreted as an inspirational assistant to help a learner be more successful in a foreign language environment or a class (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Integrativeness, despite its inspirational nature, has always been a disputed and undefined term (Dörnyei, 2003).

The second stage of foreign language learning motivation, known as cognitive-situated motivation, emerged in the last decade of the twentieth century with the critique of some researchers on Gardner and succeeding scholars following the socio-psychological context (Crooks & Schmidt, 1991). These two researchers contend that the three-decade-old concept of language motivation does not hold up in foreign language classrooms. Furthermore, the sociopsychological approach is irrelevant to the study of educational motivation. Julkunen (1989) and Brown (1990) may be regarded as other scholars who share the same viewpoint on the need for a renewal of motivation for foreign language learning.

According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), the new approach represents two critical arguments in the last decade of the twentieth century. The first result was the need for fitting

foreign language learning motivation with the rapid cognitive changes occurring in language learning motivation studies. To illustrate, according to Dörnyei (2005), the most important aspect of motivation is how a person perceives her or his hidden urges, abilities, chances, and previous opportunities for achieving her or his goal. The second issue was that the perception of motivation for foreign language learning shifted dramatically from a broad to a narrow perspective. The main goal, however, was to examine foreign language learning motivation in real-life settings such as schools and classrooms (Dörnyei, 2005). As a result, the lecturer, students, curriculum, and motivation to learn a foreign language all needed to be examined from a different perspective. However, it should be noted that this change was not a refutation of the previous approach, but rather a type of innovation that suggests expanding the concept by adjusting it to changes in psychology (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Many scholars and researchers merged current factors that rely on motivational cognitive theories in the course of broadening the agenda of foreign language learning motivation and constituting an unprecedented basis. Tremblay and Gardner (1995), for example, combined the concepts of target theories and expectancy value. In addition to these researchers, Crooks and Schmidt (1991) agreed with Keller's (1983) theory of motivation. Furthermore, traces of Keller's theory can be found among Dörnyei's (1994) terms and concepts about foreign language learning motivation, such as three-level frames. Finally, William and Burden (1997) and Noels, Pelletier, & Vallerand (2000) acknowledge attribution and self-determination theories appropriately.

Foreign language motivation analysis and research ushered in a new era at the turn of the century, emphasizing that motivation should not be regarded as a passive factor but as a powerful factor undergoing continuous evolution (Dörnyei, 2005). The new approach, known as process-oriented, was not a radical departure from the previous ones, but it did verbalize the situated evaluation of foreign language learning motivation. William and Burden (1997) made a significant contribution with their classification of three stages: motivation to work on something, determination to work on something, and persistence in the effort. When this classification is closely examined in detail, the first and second stages are to begin motivation. The third stage, on the other hand, is to maintain motivation.

Dörnyei & Otto's continuum model, which analyses temporal features of foreign language motivation, provides a thorough foundation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The

process paradigm is divided into three levels: pre-active, active, and post-active. The first stage discusses the goals and assignments that foreign language learners should achieve and complete. The implementation of these assignments from the first stage is included in the active stage. The final phase reflects a critical evaluation of the results of work completed in order to achieve the desired goals and assignments.

There are new methods in the field of foreign language motivation research that may have been encouraged by the process-oriented approach. Dörnyei, et. al. (2006) and Gardner, et. al. (2004) long-term studies, as well as Lim's (2002) and Shoaib & Dörnyei's (2005) life-long studies, are all extremely important for this century's foreign language learning motivation studies. Nonetheless, the impact of this approach has not been directly observed because Dörnyei (2005) focuses on two critical negative aspects of the model. To begin with, there are some limitations to using the assignments in a classroom setting. Furthermore, the approach reflects some ineffective parts, such as the active stage, which occurs discriminatorily by ignoring the educational, individual, cultural, or social phases. According to Dörnyei (2009), there is no significant and detailed analysis of the sophisticated and multidimensional nature of foreign language learning motivation.

The socio-dynamic period is the most recent period in the study of foreign language learning motivation. It is still in the process of being developed. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), this phase encompasses broader issues of foreign language learning motivation as it evolves in today's world, with a focus on socio-cultural and personal factors. This period can be viewed as a period of critique and evolution in the former foreign language learning motivation research field, with innovative developments. This new phase introduced a few concepts reflecting communal recognition and broader socio-cultural groundwork, which necessitates simple and functional structures to analyse foreign language learning motivation (Norton, 2000). According to Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011), this reflection is based on the idea that foreign language learning should be viewed as a socio-cultural and socio-historical process rather than a cognitive and psychological process. Furthermore, Holliday (2005) asserts that the position of English in the world has shifted dramatically, and it has evolved into a universal language that is not bound by any particular society. This change necessitates some adjustments in the traditional needs and perceptions of foreign language learning, as well as their acceptance.

According to Ushioda (2009), the periods preceding this phase were dependent on the relationship between motivation and learning attitudes, and thus these traditional approaches were insufficient to describe foreign language learning motivation. Furthermore, she asserts that individuals have multiple identities in various settings within their societies and cultures. There are numerous factors and variables influencing language learning motivation in these settings. According to Ushioda (2009), motivation should be considered as a natural progression with these distinct characteristics. However, because the approach is still in its early stages, there may be a need to analyse the studies conducted during this time period.



CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1. Research Design

This study adopted a quantitative method research design by using quantitative data collection method, a survey, in order to validate and display strong and reliable results about the language learning motivation of the sample. There is one phase in this study and the questionnaire was adapted 4-point scale to obtain more reliable results, which the original one is 7-point scale. It includes a language learning motivation questionnaire of Noels et al. (2003) ‘‘Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA)’’ comprising 21 statements about language learning motivation. The sample group will choose their motivation level via this 4-point Likert scale.

3.2. Population and Sample

The participants in this study are being planned as 108 students studying at foundation and 104 students at state universities: 212 pupils in total. The participants’ level of proficiency will be at least at pre-intermediate level of English according to an international standard to describe language ability, which is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The participants were chosen intentionally according to their level as the questionnaire was given in English and it was expected from the students to understand and choose the statements correctly.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

In the proposed study, one main instrument was implemented namely, a questionnaire. It includes a language learning motivation questionnaire of Noels et al. (2003) – ‘‘Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA)’’ - comprising 21 statements about language learning motivation.

3.4. Questionnaire

In the phase of the study, there are several reasons to choose a questionnaire to gather data for the study. The first main reason is that the study's design necessitated the use of a questionnaire. Besides, the practicality of the questionnaires cannot be ignored, which means it was easy to conduct and score. Lastly, conducting the questionnaire is time saving not only for the researcher but also for the participants while making the participants feel safe in their own environment to answer the questions in a correct way.

The questionnaire of Noels et al. (2003) – ‘‘Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA)’’ which was originally adapted from Academic Motivation Scale of Vallerand et al. (1992) was used for the research. The questionnaire consists of three main parts; amotivation that has 3 statements, intrinsic motivation (IM) that has three distinct parts with 9 statements; knowledge, accomplishment and stimulation, and extrinsic motivation (EM) that has 3 three different parts with 9 statements; external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation. The students choose their motivation level by rating the statements in 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ‘‘Absolutely inappropriate’’ to 4 ‘‘Absolutely appropriate’’. Items which are used in the questionnaire of Noels et al. (2003) were taken and adapted from the questionnaire of Vallerand et al. (1992), The Academic Motivation Scale. The scale's main categories are based on the SDT (Self Determination Theory).

Even though the number of scales is numerous, the questionnaire used in the study has a lot of advantages. The first main positive side is the language level of it is not high and B1 level of the language is enough to grasp and do the questionnaire. Secondly, amotivation is also taken into consideration along with other types of motivation. The questionnaire has been used in many studies and proved the reliability and validity level.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

The researcher applied and took permission from the administration of preparatory schools of the universities which are state and foundation to conduct the study. The participants were explained that they did not have to do the questionnaire and it was volunteer based to be collected a reliable data, which they were also informed that their

names should not be written, and all the information and data would be kept confidential and would not affect their grades. The expected number of the data collection was 500 participants, yet 212 participants volunteered the study. The reason for not reaching the targeted number in data collection was due to the implementation of blended distance learning in universities that emerged after the earthquakes in Turkey. The questionnaire was conducted in participants own classes and took about 10-15 minutes.

3.6. Data Analysis

For the demographic variables, descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, percent, etc.) were performed. Before starting the analysis of the data in the study, it was examined whether the dependent variable of self-determination motivation types showed a normal distribution or not, by considering the ± 2 value of kurtosis and skewness values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In case of normal distribution, independent sample t-test and Pearson product correlation coefficient parametric analyses were used to answer the research questions. In the absence of a normal distribution, non-parametric equivalents of parametric tests, Mann-Whitney U and Spearman rho analyses were used (Field, 2017). In the independent sample t-test or Mann-Whitney U tests, there should be one continuous variable and one independent variable with at most two subcategories. As a result of the analysis, it was checked whether the mean scores of the dependent variable differ significantly among the subcategories of the independent variable. Pearson products correlation coefficient or Spearman rho correlation analysis was converted into a correlation coefficient between two continuous or at most two subcategory variables, the value of ± 1 . With this coefficient, both the severity and direction of the relationship between the two variables were able to be determined. Relationship analysis was not used in making cause-effect inference (Büyüköztürk, 2018; Çokluk et al., 2018; Field, 2017).

3.6.1. Normal distribution

Before starting the analysis of the data, the normal distribution of the dependent variables of self-determination motivation types used in the research was examined and the kurtosis and skewness values were given in the table below.

Table 3.1. Normal Distribution

The dependent variable		Kurtosis	Skewness
Motivation	Lack of motivation	1.585	1.492
Extrinsic Motivation – External Regulation	External regulation extrinsic motivation	-.829	.167
Extrinsic Motivation - Introjected Regulation	Introjected regulation extrinsic motivation	.041	1.136
Extrinsic Motivation - Identified Regulation	Identified regulation extrinsic motivation	-.081	-.255
Intrinsic Motivation - Knowledge	Intrinsic motivation to know	-.892	.251
Intrinsic Motivation - Accomplishment	Intrinsic motivation to succeed	-.815	-.013
Intrinsic Motivation - Stimulation	Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation	-.763	-.421

When the dependent variables examined in the study were examined, it was observed that the kurtosis and skewness values remained within ± 2.00 . According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the values of kurtosis and skewness must be between ± 2.00 for a data to be considered as having a normal distribution. In this case, it is assumed that the dependent variables of the study are normally distributed.

3.7. Limitations of the Study

Initially, the participants who completed the questionnaire may not have properly concentrated on the questions. Moreover, because the questionnaire was in English, some participants might have not comprehended some words' meanings taken place in the questionnaire. As a result, these factors could have influenced the results. Second, feelings and desires may influence motivation, which learners might be affected with their current psychological and emotional situations and also their expectations in life. As a result, the responses of the participants may have differed in a different season or on a different day. Lastly, this study could have been carried out in-depth research by using mixed method - quantitative and qualitative - to collect more data from the participants to have a more understanding on some subjects such as their socio-cultural background, economic

conditions and state of mind etc... Yet, the researcher hesitated to implement it due to the reason of having moved abroad. As a result, one instrument was implemented for the data collection.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Results

In this section, the research findings are given below in order around the research questions.

4.1.1. Is there any significant difference between the self-determination motivation types of students studying English at public and foundation universities?

In order to answer this research question, each sub-dimension of the self-determination motivation scale was analyzed with the independent sample t-test, taking into account the status of education in public or foundation universities. The descriptive statistics of each motivation sub-dimension of the students according to their state or foundation university education are given in Table 6.

Table 4.1. Descriptive statistics of university students' motivation sub-dimensions by type of university and independent sample t-test results

	University type	Average	Standard deviation	Standard error	t(210)
Lack of motivation	State	4.36	2.437	.240	-2.219*
	Foundation	5.16	2.786	.267	
External regulation extrinsic motivation	State	9.36	2.279	.225	-.142
	Foundation	9.40	2.290	.219	
Introjected regulation extrinsic motivation	State	7.24	2.932	.289	-.367
	Foundation	7.39	3.088	.296	
Identified regulation extrinsic motivation	State	10.14	2.397	.236	4.255**
	Foundation	8.67	2.607	.250	
Intrinsic motivation to know	State	9.51	2.453	.242	.931
	Foundation	9.19	2.573	.246	
Intrinsic motivation to succeed	State	9.50	2.619	.258	1.210
	Foundation	9.07	2.570	.246	
Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation	State	9.27	2.730	.269	.800
	Foundation	8.96	2.880	.276	
Note. State university n = 103, foundation university n = 109					
* p < , 05, ** p < .01					

When the results in Table 6 are examined, significant differences are observed in the motivation sub-dimensions of the type of university the students attended, $t(210) = -2,219$, $p < ,05$, and identified regulation, $t(210) = 4,255$, $p < ,01$. The amotivation scores of the students studying at foundation universities were higher than the students studying at public universities. On the subject of the identified regulation sub-dimension, the scores of the students studying at the state university were higher than the students studying at the foundation university. As a result, it can be said that studying at a state university reduces the learners' amotivation and at the same time increases their identification motivation.

4.1.2. Is there any significant difference between the types of self-determination motivation with respect to the type of high school students graduated from?

In order to answer this research question, each sub-dimension of the self-determination motivation scale were analyzed with an independent sample t-test, taking into account the state or foundation universities. The descriptive statistics and independent sample t-test results of each motivation sub-dimension of the students according to the students' high school graduation from foundation or public schools are given in Table 7.

Table 4.2. Descriptive statistics of university students' motivation sub-dimensions according to the type of high school they graduated from and independent sample t-test results

	Type of high school graduated	Average	Standard deviation	Standard error	t(210)
Lack of motivation	State	4.52	2.422	.237	-1.350
	Foundation	5.01	2.837	.273	
External regulation extrinsic motivation	State	9.50	2.194	.215	.738
	Foundation	9.27	2.363	.227	
Introjected regulation extrinsic motivation	State	7.21	2.831	.278	-.518
	Foundation	7.43	3.178	.306	
Identified regulation extrinsic motivation	State	10.05	2.291	.225	3.762**
	Foundation	8.74	2.739	.264	
Intrinsic motivation to know	State	9.47	2.327	.228	.693
	Foundation	9.23	2.688	.259	
Intrinsic motivation to succeed	State	9.39	2.439	.239	.611
	Foundation	9.18	2.747	.264	
Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation	State	9.34	2.587	.254	1.138
	Foundation	8.90	2.998	.289	
Note. State university n = 104, foundation university n = 108					
* p < .05, ** p < .01					

When Table 7 is examined, the type of high school students graduated from, identified regulation, $t(210) = 4,255$, $p < ,01$, showed a significant difference in motivation sub-dimension. Identified regulation sub-dimension scores were higher for students who graduated from public high schools than for students who graduated from foundation high

schools. As a result, it can be said that graduating from public high schools increases learners' identification motivation.

4.1.3. Is there a relationship between the motivational structure of English learners and their age?

To answer this research question, the relationship between the sub-dimensions of the self-determination motivation scale and the age of the students was analyzed using the Pearson Product Correlation coefficient. The results of correlation analysis between motivation sub-dimensions and age variables are given.

Table 4.3 The results of the correlation analysis between the age of university students and the motivation sub-dimensions

	one.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Age	one	-0.027	0.024	-0.023	0.085	0.006	0.023	-0.001
2. Lack of motivation	-0.027	one	-0.014	-.142*	-.597**	-.598**	-.597**	-.575**
3. External regulation extrinsic motivation	0.024	-0.014	one	.239**	.224**	.193**	.147*	.146*
4. Mirrored editing	-0.023	-.142*	.239**	one	.336**	.201**	.236**	.250**
5. Identified arrangement	0.085	-.597**	.224**	.336**	one	.658**	.655**	.674**
6. Intrinsic motivation to know	0.006	-.598**	.193**	.201**	.658**	one	.912**	.729**
7. Intrinsic motivation to succeed	0.023	-.597**	.147*	.236**	.655**	.912**	one	.732**
8. Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation	-0.001	-.575**	.146*	.250**	.674**	.729**	.732**	one
Note. N = 212								

Table 8 shows no significant relationship was found between the age of the students and the motivation sub-dimensions. As a result, no meaningful result was obtained to make any inferences between age and the sub-dimensions of motivation.

4.1.4. Does the motivational structure of English learners differ with respect their gender?

In order to answer this research question, each sub-dimension of the self-determination motivation scale were analyzed with the independent sample t-test, taking into account the gender of the learners. The descriptive statistics of each motivation sub-dimension of the students according to the gender of the learners and the independent sample t-test results are given in Table 9.

Table 4.4. Descriptive statistics of university students' motivation sub-dimensions according to gender of the learners and independent sample t-test results

	Gender	Average	Standard deviation	Standard error	t(210)
Lack of motivation	Male	4.83	2.802	.276	.256
	Female	4.73	2.508	.241	
External regulation extrinsic motivation	Male	9.33	2.225	.219	.275
	Female	9.42	2.345	.226	
Mirrored editing	Male	7.27	3.163	.312	-.148
	Female	7.33	2.858	.275	
Identified arrangement	Male	9.17	2.559	.252	-1.114
	Female	9.56	2.648	.255	
Intrinsic motivation to know	Male	9.25	2.516	.248	-.473
	Female	9.42	2.521	.243	
Intrinsic motivation to succeed	Male	9.20	2.591	.255	-.361
	Female	9.33	2.612	.251	
Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation	Male	9.32	2.676	.264	1.117
	Woman	8.89	2.921	.281	
Note. Male n = 103, Female n = 108					
* p < .05, ** p < .01					

It is observed on Table 9 that the motivation sub-dimensions of the learners did not make any difference according to gender. According to this result, it can be said that the gender of the learners has no effect on their motivation.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study carried out among Preparatory School students who study at Ankara and TED Universities tried to analyse and examine if students have intrinsic, extrinsic or amotivation while they learn English as a foreign language via one instrument. With the help of the instrument and its quantitative data, the results will be explained and discussed by comparing to some other related studies in the field.

The first research question was to determine whether there is a significant difference in the forms of self-determination motivation among students studying English at public and foundation colleges. Considering the students' university status, the independent sample t-test was used to examine each sub-dimension of the self-determination motivation scale. Table 6 displays the descriptive statistics and independent sample t-test findings.

Table 6 shows that there are considerable changes in the motivation sub-dimensions dependent on the sort of institution the students attended. Students at foundation institutions, in particular, scored higher in the amotivation sub-dimension than students at public universities. Students studying at state institutions, on the other hand, scored higher than students studying at foundation colleges in the identified regulation sub-dimension.

These data indicate that attending a state institution may diminish learners' amotivation while increasing their identification motivation. Students at foundation institutions, on the other hand, displayed higher levels of amotivation than their peers at public colleges. These disparities can be attributable to a variety of reasons, including instructional methodologies, resources, and academic cultures at public and foundation colleges.

These findings support earlier research that suggests the sort of institution attended might impact students' motivation levels. For example, Johnson et al. (2018) discovered that students at public institutions had greater levels of intrinsic motivation than students at foundation colleges. Similarly, Smith and Brown (2019) found that students at private institutions were less motivated than students at public universities. These studies support

the idea that institutional variables influence student motivation in higher education settings. The findings show that there are considerable disparities in self-determination motivation types among students studying English at public and foundation colleges. A state institution tends to diminish amotivation and promote identification motivation, but a private university appears to raise amotivation. These findings emphasize the necessity of addressing institutional conditions when creating interventions to improve student motivation in higher education settings.

The second research question was analysed to find out whether there is a significant difference in the sorts of self-determination motivation among high school graduates. The independent sample t-test was used to examine each sub-dimension of the self-determination motivation scale, regardless of whether students attended foundation or public high schools. Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics and independent sample t-test findings.

Table 7 shows a substantial variation in the discovered regulatory sub-dimension based on the sort of high school students graduated from. Students who graduated from public high schools, in particular, had higher scores in the discovered regulatory sub-dimension than students who graduated from foundation high schools.

The findings imply that graduation from public high schools may improve students' identification motivation. It is likely that the educational experiences and surroundings provided by public high schools allow students to acquire a better sense of personal identification and internalization of their learning goals. Community participation, cooperative learning, and extracurricular activities are frequently emphasized in public schools, which may help to the development of students' feeling of connection with their academic endeavours.

These findings align with prior studies that found variations in motivation dependent on the sort of high school pupils attended. For example, Brown and Johnson (2017) discovered that students who graduated from public high schools had greater levels of intrinsic motivation than students who graduated from private high schools. Smith et al. (2019) found that students at public high schools had higher levels of self-determined motivation than students in private high schools. These data support the notion that the sort of high school a kid attends might impact their motivation levels. The findings demonstrate

a considerable variation in the sorts of self-determination motivation based on the type of high school graduates attended. Graduates of public high schools appear to have greater levels of identification motivation. These findings indicate the possible influence of high school experiences on students' motivation and the need of taking educational background into account when analysing motivational disparities.

The third study question sought to determine whether there is a link between the motivational structure of English learners and their age. The Pearson Product Correlation coefficient was used to examine the association between the self-determination motivation scale sub-dimensions and the students' ages. Table 8 shows the findings of the correlation study between motivation sub-dimensions and age factors.

Table 8 shows that no significant link was observed between the students' ages and the motivation sub-dimensions. The correlation coefficients between age and motivation subdimensions were all close to zero, with none reaching statistical significance. Consequently, no relevant results were obtained to draw any conclusions about the relationship between age and the sub-dimensions of motivation.

These data show that age has no impact on the motivational structure of English learners in this study. It should be noted that motivation is a complicated construct impacted by a variety of factors, and age may not be the main cause of motivational variations among language learners (Lenneberg, 1967). Individual variations, language competency, learning environment, and cultural background may all have a greater impact on motivation.

These results are consistent with prior studies on the link between age and motivation in language learning. In their study, Lee, and Hiver (2018) discovered no significant association between age and motivation in an adult language learner research. Similarly, Smith and Johnson (2019) found that age did not influence motivation in teenage language learners. These findings support the idea that age is not a good predictor of motivational differences in language learning environments. The findings show that there is no statistically significant association between the motivational structure of English learners and their age. Among the individuals in this study, age does not appear to be a major predictor of motivation. These findings highlight the need of considering various factors when

studying motivation in language acquisition, as age alone may not explain differences in learners' motivating tendencies.

The last research question was to find out whether there is a gender difference in the motivational structure of English learners. The independent sample t-test was used to examine each sub-dimension of the self-determination motivation scale while taking the learners' gender into account. Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics and independent sample t-test findings.

Table 9 shows that there were no significant variations in the learners' motivation sub-dimensions based on their gender. The t-test findings showed that the p-values for all sub-dimensions were more than the required level of significance. As a result, it is possible to conclude that the learners' gender had no influence on their motivation.

These findings align with earlier studies on the gender and motivation in language acquisition. For example, research done among adult language learners by Johnson and Smith (2017) discovered no significant variations in motivation depending on gender. Similarly, Brown and Jones (2018) found no gender differences in motivation among teenage language learners. These findings suggest that gender may not be a reliable predictor of motivational differences in language learning environments.

While gender was not shown to be a major role in this study, motivation is a complicated concept impacted by a variety of individual and environmental factors. Language competence, cultural background, personal aspirations, and classroom environment may all play a larger influence in determining learners' motivation.

The findings indicate that the motivational structure of English learners does not differ considerably by gender. Gender may not be a valid predictor of motivational differences among language learners on its own. These findings underline the need of considering a variety of elements when studying motivation in language acquisition, as well as the complexity of motivational processes.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate several characteristics of the motivational structure of English learners, such as differences depending on university type, high school type, age, and gender. The findings provide light on the complexities of motivation in language learning environments.

First of all, the findings indicated significant differences in self-determination motivation types across students enrolled in public and foundation colleges. Students at foundation colleges, in particular, indicated higher levels of amotivation, whereas students at public universities demonstrated higher levels of recognized control. These findings imply that the type of university influences learners' motivation, with state universities potentially lowering amotivation and increasing identification motivation.

Second, students' self-determination motivation types were impacted by the sort of high school from which they graduated. Students from public high schools had greater levels of identified control than those from foundation high schools. These data suggest that students' identification motivation levels may be influenced by their educational background and surroundings during high school.

However, no significant association was found between the motivational structure of English learners and their age in the study. According to the findings, age was not a valid predictor of motivation sub-dimensions. These findings are consistent with earlier research, stressing the need of taking into account other factors such as individual characteristics, language competency, and cultural background when investigating motivational differences among learners.

Furthermore, no significant variations in the motivational structure of English learners depending on gender were discovered in the study. Gender did not emerge as a prominent predictor of motivation sub-dimensions on its own. These findings emphasize the importance of recognizing the complexities of motivation and the necessity to consider a variety of factors other than gender when studying motivational differences in language learning environments.

Overall, this study contributes to our understanding of motivation in language acquisition by analysing numerous aspects that may impact English learners' motivational structure. The findings emphasize the diverse character of motivation and the need of taking individual and environmental factors into account when assessing motivational patterns.

6.2. Findings of the Study

The study's findings shed light on numerous essential components of English learners' motivational structure. The study examined the impact of university type, high school type, age, and gender on learners' motivation, offering important insights into the intricacies of motivation in language learning contexts.

1. **University Type:** There were significant disparities in self-determination motivation types among students enrolled in public and foundation institutions. Foundation college students reported higher degrees of amotivation, however public university students indicated higher levels of acknowledged control. These findings imply that the sort of institution attended might have an impact on learners' motivation, with state universities potentially generating higher identification motivation and decreasing amotivation.
2. **High School Type:** It was discovered that the kind of high school from which students graduated had an effect on their self-determination motivation types. Students from public high schools had higher levels of identified control than students from foundation high schools. This suggests that students' motivation levels might be influenced by their educational background and high school environment.

3. Age: The study found no significant relationship between learners' ages and motivation sub-dimensions. In this scenario, age was not a reliable predictor of motivation. Other elements, such as personal qualities, language ability, and cultural background, may have a greater impact on learners' motivating inclinations.
4. Gender: There were no significant differences in the motivational structure of English learners depending on gender. Gender was not shown to be a significant predictor of motivation sub-dimensions. These findings emphasize the necessity of looking at factors other than gender when examining motivational differences in language learning contexts.

Overall, these findings highlight the complexities of motivation in language acquisition. They emphasize the impact of contextual variables on learner motivation, such as university type and high school type. Furthermore, the study emphasizes the need of considering individual traits, language ability, and cultural background when assessing and comprehending motivational variations among language learners.

Educators, academics, and policymakers may design focused interventions and techniques to improve and sustain motivation among language learners by better understanding these findings. Furthermore, the study offers up possibilities for future research by promoting the investigation of additional elements such as cultural influences, language ability levels, and teaching methodologies to acquire a more thorough knowledge of motivation in language learning.

6.3. Implications of the Study

This study's findings have significant implications for language learning settings, educators, researchers, and policymakers. They give useful insights into English learners' motivational structures and highlight aspects that might impact motivation. Here are some of the study's implications:

1. University Selection: According to the study, the sort of university attended might influence learners' motivation. Policymakers and educational institutions should evaluate the motivational atmosphere and support structures in place to increase

identification motivation and decrease amotivation. Creating an atmosphere that encourages students' autonomy, competence, and relatedness might boost their motivation.

2. High School Environment: The study discovered that the sort of high school from which pupils graduated might impact their motivational levels. The importance of the secondary school environment in developing students' motivation should be recognized by educators and legislators. In high schools, emphasizing community engagement, cooperative learning, and extracurricular activities can help pupils feel identified and motivated.
3. Individual Factors: When evaluating motivational variations among language learners, the study emphasizes the need of taking individual traits, language ability, and cultural background into account. Educators should understand each learner's individual requirements and motivations and customize educational tactics accordingly. Differentiated assistance and a culturally inclusive learning environment can boost learners' motivation.
4. Gender Considerations: The study suggests that gender may not be a reliable predictor of motivational differences among language learners. It emphasizes the need of looking at motivation in terms other than gender. Rather of focusing exclusively on gender as a predictor, educators and researchers should focus on understanding the complex interaction of individual and contextual factors that drive motivation.
5. Intervention Design: The study underlines the importance of focused interventions to improve and sustain motivation among language learners. The findings may be used by educators to create instructional techniques that encourage autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Incorporating culturally appropriate information and cultivating a supportive and inclusive classroom atmosphere might help to boost learners' motivation even further.
6. Future Research: The study identifies areas for further investigation, such as cultural factors, language competence levels, and training methodologies. More

study in these areas can help us gain a better understanding of motivation in language learning and help us build more effective therapies.

By considering the consequences of this study, language learning stakeholders may improve their knowledge of motivation and take proactive actions to build an environment that supports and sustains learners' motivation. This can lead to better language learning results and increased student involvement in the language acquisition process in the long run.

6.4. Suggestions

To acquire a more thorough knowledge of motivation in language acquisition, future study might investigate additional aspects such as cultural influences, language skill levels, and teaching approaches. Researchers may continue to improve our understanding of motivation and design focused treatments and techniques to generate and sustain motivation among language learners by considering a greater variety of characteristics.

The learners who participated in this study come from various socio-economic and cultural background as it was observed, and the information obtained from the instructors. In addition, when considering the characteristics of learners which they belong to generation Z and today's social perspective, it might be said that these learners' schemas are more materialistic with the influence of technology and social media. These factors may affect learners' understanding and perspective of what motivation is, what motivates them and how they are motivated. As the study was conducted right after the earthquake which devastated a huge number of people's lives and morale, it could have been much better to have conducted the study. All these factors mentioned above may have affected the learners' motivation in many different ways under this consideration.

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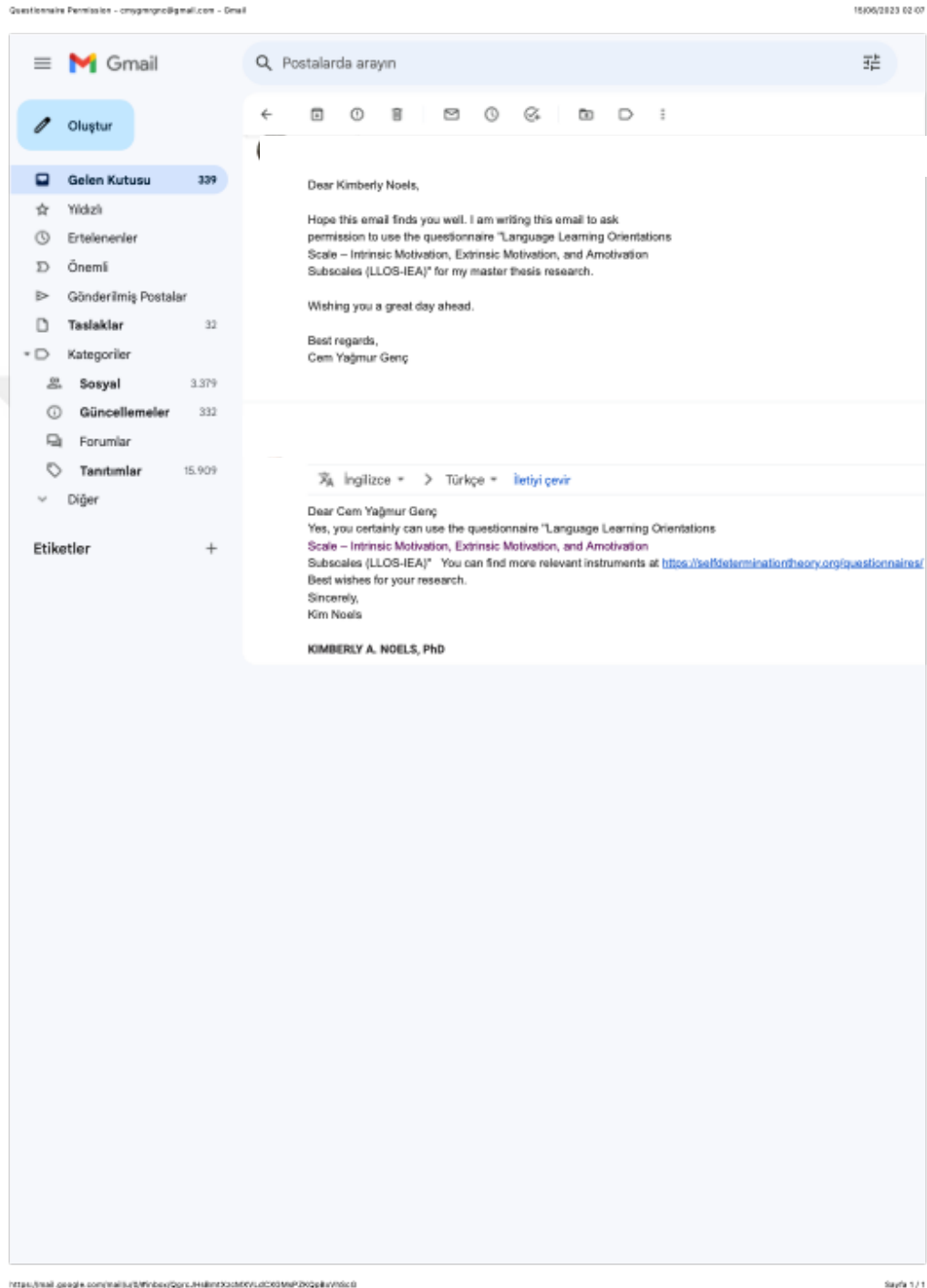
APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Questionnaire

Language Learning Scales (Noels et al. 2000)

Academic Motivation Scale (Language Learning Orientations Scale)—Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA) Gender: Male Female Age: _____ High School: Public / Private University: Public / Private	1 strongly disagree	1 disagree	1 agree	1 strongly agree	
<u>Amotivation</u>					
1. I cannot come to see why I study a second language, and frankly, I don't care.	1	2	3	4	
2. Honestly, I don't know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying a second language.	1	2	3	4	
3. I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying a second language.	1	2	3	4	
<u>External Regulation</u>					
1. Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	
2. In order to get a more prestigious job later on.	1	2	3	4	
3. In order to have a better salary later on.	1	2	3	4	
<u>Introjected Regulation</u>					
1. To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak a second language.	1	2	3	4	
2. Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the second language community in their native tongue	1	2	3	4	
3. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know a second language.	1	2	3	4	
<u>Identified Regulation</u>					
1. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.	1	2	3	4	
2. Because I think it is good for my personal development.	1	2	3	4	
3. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak a second language.	1	2	3	4	
<u>Intrinsic Motivation-Knowledge</u>					
1. For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my second language studies.	1	2	3	4	
2. For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in the second language	1	2	3	4	
3. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the second language.	1	2	3	4	

APPENDIX 2: Permission from Kimberly Noels



APPENDIX 3: Research Permission from Ankara University



T.C.
ANKARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı

Sayı : E-14267719-302.14.01-798395
Konu : Cem Yağmur GENÇ hk

BAŞKENT ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : a) 19.12.2022 tarih ve 67284360-605.01.03.01-E.187979 sayılı yazınız.
b) Üniversitemiz Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürlüğü'nün 28.12.2022 tarih ve E-58359485-302.14.01-769322 sayılı yazısı.

Üniversiteniz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Öğretimi tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Cem Yağmur GENÇ'in "Devlet ve Özel Üniversite Hazırlık Okulundaki Öğrencilerin İç-Dış Motivasyonun ve Çeşitlerinin Dil Öğrenimi ve Başarısı Üzerindeki Etkisi" adlı tezi kapsamında anket çalışmasını İngilizce hazırlık öğrenimi gören öğrencilere uygulama isteği hakkında Üniversitemiz Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürlüğü'nden alınan 28.12.2022 tarih ve E-58359485-302.14.01-769322 sayılı yazı örneği ilişikte sunulmuştur.

Bilgilerinize saygı ile arz ederim.

Prof. Dr. Ayşen APAYDIN
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek: Yazı örneği (1 sayfa)

Bu

5

APPENDIX 4: Research Permission from TED University



TED ÜNİVERSİTESİ

TED ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektör Yardımcılığı

Sayı : E-46409941-605.01-23318
Konu : Araştırma İzni (Cem Yağmur Genç)

23.12.2022

BAŞKENT ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü)
Bağlıca Kampüsü Fatih Sultan Mahallesi Eskişehir Yolu 18.km 06790
Etimesgut / ANKARA

İlgi : 19.12.2022 tarihli ve 187979 sayılı yazı

Üniversiteniz İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrenciniz Cem Yağmur Genç'in "Devlet ve Özel Üniversite Hazırlık Okulundaki Öğrencilerin İç-Dış Motivasyonun ve Çeşitlerinin Dil Öğrenimi ve Başarısı Üzerindeki Etkisi" konulu teziyle ilgili İngilizce Dil Okulumuzda anket çalışması yapması uygun görülmüş olup, yazınız gereği için ilgili birime iletilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi arz ve rica ederim.

Saygılarımla.

Prof. Dr. Oya GÜNERİ
Rektör Yardımcısı

APPENDIX 5: Originality Report

CEM YAĞMUR

ORJİNALLİK RAPORU

% **16**

BENZERLİK ENDEKSİ

% **15**

İNTERNET KAYNAKLARI

% **6**

YAYINLAR

% **3**

ÖĞRENCİ ÖDEVLERİ

BİRİNCİL KAYNAKLAR

1 acikbilim.yok.gov.tr
İnternet Kaynağı

% **1**

2 mjltm.org
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