

# The importance of motivation in second language acquisition

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**Abstract:** Motivation has been referred to as the "neglected heart" of language education, according to Rost (2006). We forget as instructors all too often that the motivation of our pupils filters everything we do to learn. In this way, the flow of the classroom is managed by the students. Without student motivation, the class would be lifeless and without a pulse. We will develop into happier and more effective instructors when we learn to use direct methods of motivating students in our lessons. Other factors regarding teaching methods appear insignificant in compared to the problem of motivation, especially in EFL contexts. Given the harsh reality of learning English for the majority of our students, it is crucial to consider motivation as the foundation of language education.

**Keywords:** Motivation, Motivational theories, Language Learning

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## I. INTRODUCTION

The majority of EFL contexts lack all of the factors that we know are necessary for successful second language acquisition, including an environment with insufficient English input, interactions with English speakers that aren't frequent enough, strong role models who actively encourage learning English, and a culture where learning English isn't widely accepted. Due to these unfavorable circumstances, a student has to be exceptionally motivated to succeed in learning English.

Motivation is a key component in the effective study of language acquisition, in addition to the roles that intelligence and linguistic aptitude play (Gardner & Lambert, 1972 quoted in Xu 2008). The definition of goal-directedness is "the combination of effort plus desire to attain the objective of learning the language with positive attitudes about learning the language" (Gardner, 1985, p. 10 cited in Xu 2008). In terms of linguistic outcomes, which generally include the vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation of the language as well as the four fundamental language abilities of listening, comprehending, reading, and writing, motivation plays a significant role in language accomplishment (Gardner, 1985 cited in Xu 2008).

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Whether a person's motivation comes more from inside or outside them is referred to as intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation. The motivation that comes from inside a person is referred to as intrinsic motivation. Other than the exercise itself, there is no reward. This indicates that the core of motivated behavior is a feeling of autonomy and the desire is self-initiating and self-regulating, however with extrinsic motivation, there is an expectation of reward from beyond and a person is motivated by an outside source as opposed to the self. Relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and Rotter's concept of locus of control (1966, cited in Chalak&Kassaian 2010). A person has an internal locus of control and is self-motivated if they put the responsibility for their actions inside themselves. On the other hand, if they place it outside of themselves and on other people and situations, they have an external locus of control. One must be eager to give up the comfort of making excuses and to accept responsibility for all of one's choices and acts in order to develop internal locus and self-motivation. Extrinsically driven behavior is done to get a benefit from someone or something other than oneself. Maslow (1970) thought that because humans are driven to pursue "self-actualization," intrinsic motivation is markedly better than extrinsic motivation. One of the best methods to assist pupils, according to Bruner (1966, referenced in Chalak&Kassaian 2010), is to release them from the influence of incentives. The two types of motivation may sometimes overlap to some extent since it is possible to be motivated simultaneously from both internal and external sources. In general, both types of motivation are critical to learning, and a lack of drive may lead to procrastination since it is what propels individuals to take action. In other words, incentive may enhance a learner's behavior. In order to address the unique requirements of each

student, teachers must understand the kind of motivation and its sources.

## **2.2 Instrumental and Integrative Motivation**

The standard paradigm for language acquisition divides motivation into integrative and instrumental components (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, cited in Chalak&Kassaian 2010). Instrumental motivation affects someone who learns a language mainly to achieve a goal, such as landing a job or meeting an academic requirement. To put it another way, integrative motivation has to do with wanting to be accepted by a different group, while instrumental motivation relates to the urge to learn a language as a method of attaining objectives like promoting a profession or work or reading technical publications. Integrative motivation refers to assimilating into a culture in order to become a member of that community. These two types of motivation are known as motivation orientations, and Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) noted that different needs in foreign language teaching must be met depending on the learner's orientation (either career/academic-related "instrumental" or socially/culturally-related "integrative") (FLT).

Integrative motivation, according to some studies, is crucial for second language acquisition success. According to Graham (1984, referenced in Chalak&Kassaian 2010), there are two types of motivation: integrative and assimilative. Integrative motivation is the desire to acquire a second language in order to interact with people in that community and learn about their culture. While assimilative motivation learners seek to lose themselves in the target language and become an indistinguishable part of that speech community, it does not always relate to the direct interaction with L2 group. The fact that the two orientations do not conflict is crucial. While some students are more successful if they are instrumentally driven, other students learn better when they use both instrumental and integrative orientations. In other words, a person could be instrumentally driven to pass a test or achieve a requirement, but they might also be intrinsically motivated to learn about and engage in a community's culture.

Instrumental and extrinsic incentives are comparable but not identical. Extrinsic motivation emphasizes that the cause is external to the individual, while instrumental motivation focuses on the reason why the person is learning. Integrative motivation is concerned with belonging to a linguistic community, while intrinsic motivation is concerned with what makes a person feel good. This is another difference between the two types of motivation. It's important to note that motivation fluctuates during the drawn-out process of learning. It gets linked to the learner's brain processes and exposure to internal and external forces. In other words, it's believed that time plays a significant role in how motivated a student is.

## **III. MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES**

A need or desire that energizes and guides behavior is known as motivation (Myers, 2001, as cited in Shirkey, 2003). Numerous psychological theories have affected the study of motivation. These theories, which each assert various sources of motivating demands, each have certain shortcomings. Let's investigate a few of these ideas that have evolved throughout time.

### **3.1 Behavioral Views**

Based on John Watson's mechanistic idea that actions might be completely defined in terms of observable responses to particular stimuli, behavioral approaches of motivation place a strong emphasis on extrinsic variables (external rewards or penalties) and reinforcement of desirable behaviors. A student who is intrinsically motivated engages in an activity "for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment it evokes," as opposed to an extrinsically motivated student who performs "in order to obtain some reward (good grades, teacher approval, etc.) or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself" (Lepper, 1988 as cited in Shirkey, 2003).

According to B.F. Skinner's operant conditioning theory, when individuals get rewards for their voluntary actions, those actions become stronger, and when such actions are ignored or penalized, they become weaker. In relation to pupils, Skinner created programmed education, in which students received praise for giving the right answers, pushing them to act in a way that would lead to the outcomes they wanted.

The behavioral method is constrained, however, in that it emphasizes outside incentives (praise, accolades, awards, etc.), which might have undesirable effects. For instance, if no concrete incentive is offered, pupils who are driven in this way could be less inclined to study. Extrinsic incentives may sometimes have the opposite effect of increasing intrinsic drive (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Eisenberger & Cameron, 1996; Ryan & Deci, 1996 as cited in Shirkey, 2003).

Many behavioral learning theorists adopted Skinner's approach and developed approaches for behavior modification with the presumption that students are motivated to finish a task by being promised some kind of reward. The reward often comes in the shape of compliments or a grade. Sometimes the prize is a token that may be exchanged for a particular item, and other times it could be the right to participate in an activity of one's choosing.

Operant conditioning theories of learning may aid in illuminating why some students respond well to certain topics while disliking others. For instance, although some students may be excited to start a mandatory math class, others may feel as if they have been given a jail term. According to Skinner, these discrepancies may be attributed to prior experiences. He would argue that a number of rewarding interactions with arithmetic have molded the student who likes math to react in that manner. The math hater, on the other hand, could have had a string of bad luck.

The Influence of Convincing Models Albert Bandura and other social learning theorists emphasize the value of observation, imitation, and vicarious reinforcement (expecting to receive the same reinforcer that we see someone else get for exhibiting a particular behavior). A student who identifies with and admires a teacher of a specific topic could put in extra effort in part to win over the respected person and in part to attempt to emulate that person. A kid who sees an older sibling benefiting from getting good marks may want to do the same in the hopes of gaining the same or comparable advantages. If a kid sees that a classmate behaves in a specific manner and gets praise from the instructor, they may opt to copy that conduct in order to gain the same benefits.

### **3.2 Cognitive Views**

According to cognitive views of motivation, the environment and one's own perspective affect conduct. Cognitive perspectives are often more internal and information processing-based than the behavioral view of outward stimulus/response.

The equilibration, assimilation, accommodation, and schema formation theories of Jean Piaget are the foundation for cognitive perspectives, which emphasize people's intrinsic drive to maintain order and balance in their perceptions of the world. Schemas are changed to restore the intended structure and balance when an imbalance arises. In terms of motivation, students could be inspired to study in order to reach the ideal balance and feel in control of their surroundings. According to Leon Festinger's cognitive dissonance hypothesis, which is based on Piaget's ideas on disequilibrium, individuals will respond in ways that address contradictions between opposing beliefs or behaviors.

Certain restrictions apply to cognitive viewpoints. These include challenges in creating the imbalance (or disequilibrium) necessary to spur pupils to change their schema and challenges in assessing the demand for accomplishment in people.

The emphasis in cognitive viewpoints is that how individuals see themselves and their surroundings has an impact on their actions. Four factors can be used to explain the behavior that is displayed: the innate need to build an organized and logically consistent knowledge base, one's expectations for completing a task successfully, the factors that one believes determine success and failure, and one's beliefs about the nature of cognitive ability.

### **3.3 Humanistic Views**

Abraham Maslow is credited for developing humanistic theories of human motivation. Maslow (1970) outlined a hierarchy of requirements that influenced motivation. Maslow was a key figure in the study of motivation, and his ideas have influenced several following investigations and efforts to formulate comprehensive theories of motivation.

First on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, at the lowest level, are physiological needs (need to satiate hunger and thirst), followed by safety needs (need for safety, security, organization, and predictability), belongingness and love needs (need for belongingness and love), esteem needs (need for self-esteem, achievement, competence, recognition, and respect), and self-actualization needs (living up to one's full potential), at the next level up.

In order to follow Maslow's hierarchy of requirements, instructors must make sure that all lower-level wants are satisfied before achieving success, competence, and potential fulfillment. One of the problems with Maslow's theory that comes up in practical implementation is that there aren't enough resources, including money and time.

### **3.4 Self-Determination Theory**

Edward Deci and Richard Ryan's self-determination theory emphasizes the significance of intrinsic drive in shaping human behavior. SDT proposes a natural drive toward growth and development, much as Maslow's hierarchical theory and other theories that were developed on it. SDT, in contrast to these other theories, emphasizes the need for active environmental support rather than any form of "autopilot" for accomplishment. Autonomy, competence feedback, and relatedness are the main components that foster motivation and growth.

### **3.5 Social Cognitive Theory**

A more contemporary development is Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), which builds on ideas from the more established Social Learning Theory and has been around since the 1890s in one form or another. SCT places a strong emphasis on the social causes of behavior and contends that cognitive elements are of utmost importance. Along with reading books and other materials, SCT holds that learning may also take place through observing other people and the environment.

The idea of self-efficacy, and the significant contribution it provides to cognitive growth, lies at the heart of SCT. The Temporal Motivation Explanation is the most recent method for creating a comprehensive, integrated theory of motivation, incorporating motivational theory. Introduced in their 2007 *Academy of Management Review* article, it combines the core ideas of all previous significant motivational theories, such as Incentive Theory, Drive Theory, Need Theory, Self-Efficacy, and Goal Setting, into a single framework. Notably, it greatly simplifies the study of motivation and enables the interpretation of results from one theory in terms of another.

## **IV. THE IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

Investigating motivation is important since it seems to have an impact on language learners' performance. And when it comes to effective language acquisition, academics and educators offer motivation as the solution. Studies in this field have focused on characterizing, quantifying, and categorizing its function in theoretical models of the language acquisition process for decades (Ushioda, 1996). Motivation is one of the major elements that affect the pace and effectiveness of second/foreign language acquisition, according to the majority of instructors and experts. Additionally, motivation acts as both the initial push to begin learning the L2 and subsequently as the driving force to persevere through the arduous learning process; in fact, all other aspects related to L2 acquisition depend to some degree on motivation (Dörnyei, 1998, as quoted in Huang 2007). Research demonstrates that motivation directly influences how frequently students use L2 learning strategies, how much they interact with native speakers, and how long they persevere and maintain L2 skills after language study is complete. Motivation determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, as cited in Huang 2007). Conversely, without proper motivation, even those with the most extraordinary ability are unable to attain long-term objectives, and suitable curriculum and effective instruction are not sufficient on their own to guarantee student success (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, as quoted in Huang 2007).

### **4.1 Motivation in L2 Field**

Learning motivation is a complex, diverse concept. The situation becomes much more complicated when mastery of an L2 is the goal of the learning process. Given this intrinsic complexity, it is understandable why there have been so many different theories and methods used to analyze motivation in the L2 discipline. Few efforts have been made to integrate the various lines of inquiry, and academics have focused on different elements of L2 motivation depending on their study interests (Dörnyei, 2001b). The review of Gardner's well-known motivation theory will precede the analysis of the L2 motivation experiments that follows. Then, many alternative constructions and an expanding model will be discussed.

#### *4.1.1 Gardner's Motivation Theory*

Language is a fundamentally social activity that necessitates the inclusion of a variety of L2 cultural components, even if an L2 is a learnable school topic in the sense that discrete portions of the communication code may be taught explicitly (Dörnyei, 2001b, as quoted in Huang 2007). This viewpoint has received widespread support from L2 researchers, which led to the inclusion of a significant social component in the majority of comprehensive constructions of L2 motivation. The importance of this social component also clarified why the research of L2 motivation was first developed in Canada and why a social psychology focus predominated there (Dörnyei, 2003, as quoted in Huang 2007). The following is an overview of Gardner's work on socio-psychological motivation, which had a significant impact on the L2 field (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a; Gardner & Tremblay, 1995 as mentioned in Huang 2007).

#### *4.1.2 The Socio-Educational Model*

In order to give a thorough explanation of language acquisition, the socio-educational model put out by Gardner (1985b, as referenced in Huang 2007) included a variety of individual characteristics, such as cognitive and emotional variables. The fundamental benefit of this approach is the way it clearly distinguishes between the four components of the second language acquisition process: antecedent influences, individual differences, language learning settings, and results (Dörnyei, 2001). All four of these components are impacted by the social-cultural environment, according to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993 as quoted in Huang 2007), and they provide a schematic illustration of the socio-education paradigm (Figure 2.1). When trying to explore the function of individual difference variables in the process of learning a second language, the models proposed that biological

and experiential elements are two major antecedent aspects that must be taken into consideration (p. 8). For instance, the amount of linguistic attitudes, motivation, and anxiety may be influenced by past language experience (experiential variables) (p. 8). This model included six individual difference factors, including both affective and cognitive characteristics. Language attitudes, motivation, and anxiety are emotional variables, while intelligence, language aptitude, and language-learning techniques are cognitive factors. This model demonstrates the causal link between language attitudes and motivation and the reciprocal relationship between language anxiety and motivation. All of these individual differences, with the exception of language attitudes, will have a direct impact on the formal learning environment, but only motivation is demonstrated to play a direct role in the informal context because a person who lacks motivation will not participate in this context (p. 8). Later, Tremblay and Gardner (1995, as quoted in Huang 2007) expanded on this model by adding fresh components from the expectancy-value and goal theories. This new model was likewise put to the test experimentally (Figure 2.2). Tremblay and Gardner proposed that there are a variety of factors moderating the link between linguistic attitudes and motivating behavior (p. 515). (p. 515). These mediators include self-efficacy, valence, and goal salience. This expanded model showed that language attitudes affected goal salience because they would encourage students to set clear learning objectives (p. 515). A second mediator, valence, is regulated by attitudes. Valence has a causal relationship with motivated behavior, suggesting that when learning is valued, motivational behavior increases. Language attitudes are demonstrated to affect the self-efficacy, which in turn affects motivational behavior (p. 515)

Gardner and Tremblay (1994a, as quoted in Huang 2007) acknowledged the examination of alternative motivational theories as a method of broadening the motivation construct in response to these expansions, but they argued that such an endeavor was useless in the absence of relevant empirical evidence (p. 366).

Furthermore, they underlined that the socio-educational model of second language learning was not a static formulation but rather was always changing and developing as new pertinent information was discovered (1994b, p. 524 as cited in Huang 2007). Finally, as part of a comprehensive review of psychology for language instructors, Williams and Burden (1997, as quoted in Huang 2007) provided a thorough framework of L2 motivation. The primary grouping category in their concept is whether the motivating impact is internal or external (Dörnyei, 2001a as referenced in Huang 2007). They also believed that L2 motivation was a complex and multi-dimensional construct. Additionally, they separated a number of subcomponents within these two categories, in line with several contemporary issues in educational psychology (p. 19). Later, Tremblay and Gardner (1995, as quoted in Huang 2007) expanded on this model by adding additional components from the expectancy-value and goal theories. This new model was likewise put to the test using actual data. Tremblay and Gardner proposed that there are a variety of factors moderating the link between linguistic attitudes and motivating behavior (p. 515). (p. 515). These mediators include self-efficacy, valence, and goal salience. This expanded model demonstrated that goal salience was impacted by attitudes and that valence and motivated behavior are causally linked. This shows that when learning is valued, motivational behavior increases. Language attitudes are demonstrated to affect the self-efficacy, which in turn affects motivational behavior (p. 515).

#### *4.1.3 The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)*

Gardner's socio-educational model of second language learning postulated a number of individual difference factors, which the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 1985a.) tried to examine (Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001, as cited in Huang 2007). Five categories may be used to categorize the AMTB's components: motivation, integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning environment, language anxiety, and other characteristics (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, as cited in Huang 2007). First, three scales—motivational intensity, a desire to learn L2, and attitudes about learning L2—are used to evaluate motivation. Next, integrativeness is the sum of three scales: desire in learning foreign languages, attitudes toward the language group of the target, and integrative orientation. Affective responses toward the language instructor and the language course are thus referred to as attitudes toward the learning context. Additionally, L2 class anxiety and L2 usage anxiety are used to gauge language anxiety. Finally, additional characteristics include parental encouragement, instrumental orientation, and orientation index.

#### *4.1.4 Classroom-Friendly Models*

Dörnyei contends "There are so many things happening simultaneously in a classroom that no one motivating concept can possibly capture this complexity. Therefore, we want a comprehensive and most likely eclectic construct that reflects several viewpoints in order to comprehend why pupils act as they do." 2001a Dörnyei In an expanded, classroom-friendly approach (table 1) created by Dörnyei (1994, used in Pigott 2008), L2 motivation is conceived on three levels. It is important to notice that the model concurrently considers three viewpoints on motivation; it makes no effort to categorize motivation into three subtypes. The social aspect of L2 motivation is addressed at the language level, which includes Gardner's Integrative and Instrumental notions.

The learner's level reflects their unique traits and addresses challenges with self-confidence and internal motivation for success. The motivating elements that are special to a course, a teacher, and a group are related with the learning situation level in the classroom.

**Table 1.** Dornyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation (1994:78)

<b>LANGUAGE LEVEL</b>					
Integrative Motivational Subsystem					
Instrumental Motivational Subsystem					
<b>LEARNER LEVEL</b>					
Need for achievement					
Self-confidence					
Language Use Anxiety					
Perceived L2 Competence					
Causal Attributions					
Self-Efficacy					
<b>LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL</b>					
Course-Specific Motivational Components					
Interest		Relevance		Expectancy	
Teacher-Specific Motivational Components					
Affiliative Drive		Authority Type		Direct Socialization	
				Modelling	
				Task Presentation	
				Feedback	
Group-specific Motivational Components					
Goal-orientedness					
Norm & Reward System					
Group Cohesion					
Classroom Goal Structure					

Interest is a component of intrinsic motivation and refers to a student's natural interest about his or her surroundings and the wider world. The degree to which a student feels that a course is related to their own ideals, objectives, or needs is referred to as relevance. Expectancy is the student's belief that he or she will succeed in a work or course, and it has to do with the difficulty of the activity, the effort necessary, the availability of help, etc. The results of an activity—intrinsic rewards like pride and/or extrinsic rewards like money or praise—are what give rise to satisfaction. Affiliative drive, one of the teacher-specific sub-components, describes a student's desire to do well in order to please the instructor. Whether the instructor is seen as controlling or fostering autonomy depends on the authority type. Modeling refers to the conduct and level of effort the instructor sets as an example. The effectiveness with which the instructor conveys the meaning and importance of the activities is referred to as task-presentation. (Every term has been modified from Dornyei, 1994: 277-8.) The concept came with guidelines for instructors on how to inspire students. These techniques were improved for the Process model of motivation by Dornyei and Otto (1998; see section 2.2.1 as quoted in Pigott 2008). The components of the language level and the learner level's self-confidence subcomponent were the only ones that had been systematically examined at the time the model was released. In addition, Dornyei noted that the area of educational psychology regarded affiliational drive as the most significant teacher-related motivation. Group elements have since attracted some study interest. Examining motivation as a process mediated by social interaction Collective motivation can all too easily turn into collective demotivation, boredom, or at the other end of the spectrum, collective dissatisfaction or rebellion, frequently in the form of classroom counter-cultures defined by rejection of educational aims and values, according to Ushioda (2003 as cited in Pigott 2008). (pp. 93-94).

From a social-constructivist standpoint, Williams and Burden (1997, as quoted in Pigott 2008) (table 2) created another classroom-focused model. Internal and external motivational elements are separated. As a consequence, the model that emerges is conceptually extremely distinct from Dornyei's construct. The level of perceived interest in a certain activity is one example. Interest is seen as a component of the course in Dornyei's model (i.e. an external factor). The model by Williams and Burden treats it as an internal element.

**Table 2.** Williams and Burden's (1997) framework of L2 motivation (in Dornyei, 2001a:20)

<b>INTERNAL FACTORS</b>	
<b>Intrinsic interest of activity</b>	
arousal of curiosity	optimal degree of challenge
<b>Perceived value of activity</b>	
personal relevance	anticipated value of outcomes

intrinsic value attributed to the activity		
<b>Sense of agency</b>		
locus of causality		
locus of control: process and outcomes		
ability to set appropriate goals		
<b>Mastery</b>		
feelings of competence		
awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area		
self-efficacy		
<b>Self-concept</b>		
realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required		
personal definitions and judgments of success and failure		
self-worth concern		
learned helplessness		
<b>Attitudes</b>		
to language learning in general		
to the target language		
to the target language community and culture		
<b>Other affective states</b>		
confidence		
anxiety, fear		
<b>Developmental age and stage</b>		
Gender		
<b>EXTERNAL FACTORS</b>		
<b>Significant others</b>		
Parents	teachers	peers
<b>The nature of interaction with significant others</b>		
mediated learning experiences		
the nature and amount of feedback/rewards		
the nature and amount of appropriate praise		
punishments, sanctions		
<b>The learning environment</b>		
Comfort resources		
time of day, week, year		
size of class and school		
class and school ethos		
<b>The broader context</b>		
wider family networks		
the local education system		
conflicting interests		
cultural norms		
societal expectations and attitudes		

Although there isn't enough room to analyze the advantages of each strategy, the differences in attitude between the two models serve as a helpful reminder that motivation is a complicated subject that benefits from a variety of viewpoints.

## V. L2 MOTIVATION RESEARCH FROM THE LATE 1990S TO THE PRESENT

### 5.1 Motivation and Time

In order to create a model of motivation with a temporal component, Dornyei and Otto (1998, as mentioned in Pigott 2008) took inspiration from Heckhausen and Kuhl's Action Control Theory (1985, in Dornyei, 2001b). The Preactional Stage, the Actional Stage, and the Post Actional Stage are the three phases that make up motivation. "Ignoring 'time' may (and frequently does) result in a scenario where two ideas are equally legitimate and yet contradict one another," claims Dornyei. This is because the theories relate to various stages of the motivating process. (Dornyei, 2001b: 16 as referenced in Pigott, 2008) As a result, it is feasible to see components of a single motivational process, such as integrative orientation, motivational intensity, and student attributions. Dornyei and Otto's approach therefore serves as a unified framework for discussing the interaction between motivation and time. The model substitutes Schumann's (2001 as quoted in Pigott 2008)

five stimulus evaluation dimensions, created from a fresh, neurobiological approach of language learning, for the four course-specific motivational components from the 1994 model (see above). They are: novelty (amount of unexpectedness/familiarity), pleasantness (attractiveness), goal/need significance (amount to which the stimulus contributes to meeting needs or achieving goals), coping potential (amount to which the individual anticipates being able to cope with the event), and self and social image (amount to which the event is consistent with the person's conception of themselves and the social norms). 58) Dornyei (1998) These variables were used because they "capture effectively the different situation-specific assessments presented in the L2 literature," not because they had been experimentally evaluated. (1998: 58). It is consequently necessary to examine the categories' validity further.

The process model is used by Dornyei (2001a) as a model for the motivational techniques that teachers should employ in the classroom: establishing the fundamental conditions for motivation; generating initial motivation; maintaining and protecting motivation; and promoting constructive and retrospective self-evaluation. He provides 102 specific motivating techniques. For instance, he advises: "Try to avoid the creation of fixed sitting patterns" under the subheading "Promote the development of group cohesion." (p. 138). Dornyei stresses quality over number when it comes to putting the techniques into practice, contending that a few well-selected tactics may create a classroom environment where students are motivated to learn.

## **5.2 Motivation and Behavior**

The link between motivation and accomplishment has been studied extensively (Gardner, 2001 as quoted in Pigott, 2008), but less has been done on how it affects behavior, the mediating variable. Particularly, there hasn't been a lot of study on how the integrative approach and motivation influences student behavior and preferences. Studies by Jacques (2001 as referenced in Pigott 2008) and Schmidt and Watanabe are two significant outliers (2001). Following factor analysis, five subscales were created, which were used in both studies to compare the relationship between motivation and preference for learning activities: practical proficiency orientation, challenging approaches, cooperative learning, innovative approaches, and traditional approach. The findings revealed that there are many connections between motivational sub-scales and preferences for learning activities, and that: Students who study a language just to fulfill a university requirement do not value language learning in and of itself. These same students' preferences for difficult activities seemed to have weaker correlations.

For students who put a high importance on language acquisition, difficulty was also a good component, but not for those who are apprehensive. (Jacques, 2001) Page 203 Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and strategy utilization are further essential facets of study into language learner psychology. According to empirical study, communication, anxiety, and perceived communication skill are two of the greatest predictors of WTC. These predictors are also strongly related to L2 motivation (Clement et al., in Dornyei, 2005: 208). Clearly, using strategies is a component of motivated conduct. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990, referenced in Pigott 2008), there is a cutoff point below which pupils do not apply strategies. "Learning strategy training would be most beneficial for students who are unsuccessful learners, however these are the same individuals who may be the least motivated to attempt new tactics, as they may not have confidence in their ability to learn well anyhow," they write. (p.160-1) Presumably, a lack of motivation also exists. As a result, motivation is sustained via the deployment of techniques.

## **VI. THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION**

One of the key elements of learning a second language is motivation. A form of desire for learning is motivation. If a student lacks motivation to learn a language, it is exceedingly challenging to educate them in a classroom setting. From that perspective, it becomes more important to be able to engage the student and make them want to participate in the learning process.

The motivational concept should be expanded in second language acquisition, according to experts in the area of applied linguistics in the 1990s (Skehan 1991; Oxford & Shearing, 1994; Dörnyei, 1994 as quoted in Gomleksiz 2001). The new motivational constructs, such as goal-setting, causal attributions, and so on, are relevant to language learning, and preliminary research has shown that incorporating these new elements into the existing theoretical models will probably lead to more complex models of language learning motivation (Tremblay & Gardner 1995).

According to Reece & Walker (1997, referenced in Gomleksiz 2001), motivation is a crucial component of learning a second language. They emphasize that a less bright but highly driven student may succeed more than a brilliant but unmotivated learner. The teacher's job is to keep the pupils interested when they arrive with high levels of motivation at times. The teacher's job is to increase motivation. According to Shulman (1986 as referenced in Gomleksiz 2001), students learn most successfully when they are motivated, and motivation may be increased by fostering a good emotional atmosphere. According to Crookes & Schmidt (1991, quoted in Gomleksiz 2001), the motivation is defined in terms of choice, engagement, and perseverance



and is based on factors including interest, relevance, expectation, and result.

The social relationship between the instructor and the student affects motivation. Strong interpersonal and social connection is required to be able to provide a learning environment that is successful. If it is believed that certain forms of interpersonal and social interaction are necessary for learning, as claimed by Cooper & McIntyre (1998 as cited in Gomleksiz 2001), it follows that conditions that make these forms of interaction desirable or at least agreeable become a necessary prerequisite of efficient learning. The right kinds of contact may also benefit a student in resolving issues that arise throughout the learning process.

It is crucial to not undervalue the role that teachers play in helping students become highly motivated while learning a second language. The achievement of students is directly impacted by a teacher's performance in second language acquisition in the classroom. The significance of the teacher component in students' accomplishment is emphasized by Cooper & McIntyre (1998, as referenced in Gomleksiz 2001). They continue by saying that a teacher's ability to concentrate students and facilitate good pupil calibration will directly correlate with how well students learn.

Reece & Walker stress the impact of the instructional approach on motivation (1997 as cited in Gomleksiz 2001). The student's motivation and interest are impacted by the teaching approach used. A passionate approach is more likely to motivate than a somber one, and the way the instructor tackles the teaching technique will have an impact on motivation.

When a second language is being acquired at home with the help of the community and nearby schools, it appears to come naturally and with a fair amount of ease. However, the social backdrop of the school and the unique circumstances of this kind of learning in the classroom have a significant impact. One of Gardner's (1985, as cited in Madrid et al. 1993) hypotheses deals with English learning in formal settings (primary and secondary schools, as well as the first year of university in Granada), where the language is taught as a subject on the curriculum but is not used for instruction or communication. Second language acquisition refers to the later situation (Krashen 1988 as cited in Madrid et al. 1993). The relevance of the learner's attitudes and motivation is a key consideration for the majority of psycholinguists, whether in the context of language learning or the acquisition of a second language. This may be shown simply by reviewing the main theories of language learning. According to Krashen's monitor model, motivation and attitudes play the biggest roles in unconsciously picking up languages. The motivated state of the learner serves as an emotional filter on language absorption (Krashen 1981:102 as cited in Madrid et al. 1993). According to Carroll's (1981) conscious reinforcement theory, language acquisition starts when a learner is motivated to interact with others. When the intended outcome is attained, reinforcement occurs. According to Bialystok's strategy model (1978, as stated in Madrid et al. 1993), learners will only seek out language exposure if they are motivated to do so. Communication will then occur utilizing their explicit and/or implicit knowledge. The social psychology model developed by Lambert in 1974 is clearer than Bialystok's. He demonstrates a causal relationship between attitudes, motivation, and L2 proficiency. That is to say, a big part of a learner's success is determined by their attitude and drive. Although only focused on situations where learning a second language naturally occurs, Schumann's acculturation model (1978) also takes into account how important affective and personal factors are to a number of social, affective, attitudinal, and motivational conditions, such as low language shock, ego permeability, positive group attitudes, cohesiveness, etc. In Gardner's socio-educational model from 1985, which takes into account the learner's IQ, aptitude, motivation, attitudes, and social anxiety as variables determining the learner's result, some of these elements are also highly important. In contrast to their predominant significance in circumstances involving formal language, Gardner believes that intellect and linguistic aptitude play a secondary role in situations involving informal language. However, in both the settings of second language acquisition and language learning, attitudes, motivation, and situational anxiety take center stage. It follows that the most crucial determining variables in the learning or acquisition of second languages are attitudes and motivation.

## **VII. CONCLUSION**

People who try to comprehend and explain motivation have long had trouble doing so because it is a complicated human construct. Psychology has used a variety of terminology to explain motivation, including instincts, drives, wants, and conditioned behavior. As a result, the term "motivation" has grown to mean many different things. The growth of cognitive theories in educational psychology is largely responsible for the increased prominence of social and mental processes in our understanding of motivation. Educational psychologists and educators started creating instructional modes of motivation in order to use theory in a practical way in the classroom. These models' recommendations of tactics for instructors to utilize in the classroom to inspire pupils were a major component. Building motivational constructs using a variety of motivating principles was quickly improved in the area of L2 teaching. There has been a significant lot of study done on motivation and why it is so important for learning a second language. Although the fundamental causes of motivation are complicated, it is evident that each person's drive to learn is variable rather than constant. As

educators, we have direct control on how motivated our pupils are to study English.

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