AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE MOTIVATION TO LEARN OF FURTHER EDUCATION TRAINING PHASE LEARNERS IN A MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE MOTIVATION TO LEARN OF FURTHER EDUCATION TRAINING PHASE LEARNERS IN A MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE MOTIVATION TO LEARN OF FURTHER EDUCATION TRAINING PHASE LEARNERS IN A MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM

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Summary:

The central theme of the research is an investigation into what motivates FET phase learners to learn. All learners are interested in learning certain things – however, learners' interests often do not correspond with what teachers are required to teach. Teachers are therefore constantly searching for ways to motivate learners to learn. This challenge is not easy for teachers in a culturally homogenous classroom, but becomes even greater when the classes are comprised of learners from diverse cultural backgrounds. So then how does a teacher motivate learners in general, and more specifically learners from different cultural orientations? This is a difficult question to answer but one that needs to be addressed considering the diversity of cultures found in the South African classroom. In this study an attempt is made to examine what motivates learners to learn, and the influence of culture on the motivation to learn of Further Education and Training (FET) phase learners in a multicultural classroom. Data on these two elements is collected through the use of structured questionnaires and focus group interviews and is analysed in order to answer the research question.

Key Terms:

Motivation, motivation to learn, conative development, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, culture, FET phase learner, multicultural education.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION, ORIENTATION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

> Understanding student and teacher motivation and developing strategies to foster motivation for students at all levels of performance are essential to effective teaching… As motivation plays a crucial role in learning and constitutes an essential area in all the approaches to self-regulated learning (Ellsworth 2009:vii).

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION

Ask any group of teachers what brings them the greatest professional pleasure and they will most certainly mention working with learners who have good intentions and work hard. Conversely, if you ask these teachers what troubles them most about their job, they will most likely mention disruptive learner behaviour and an inability to get some of their learners interested in learning (Charles & Senter 2008:80). All learners are interested in learning certain things; however, learners' interests often do not correspond with what teachers are required to teach. Within a year of entering school most learners, according to Charles and Senter (2008:80), have clearly distinguished between school activities that interest them and those that do not. From this point onwards teachers need to start searching for ways to attract learner attention and engagement in learning activities - in other words, teachers are constantly looking for ways to motivate learners to learn.

Motivation is cited as being one of the most important factors influencing how much learners will learn, how successful they will be at school and how much they will accomplish throughout their lives (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:298; Reid 2007:14). Just as a car will not run without fuel, children will not learn without motivation. Herein lies the challenge for teachers - to help learners become motivated to learn and eager to continue learning so that they will be successful beyond their formal years of schooling (Theobald 2006:1). This challenge is not easy for teachers in a culturally homogeneous classroom, but it is even more challenging for those who have classes comprising of learners from diverse cultural backgrounds (Salili, Chiu & Hong 2001:xiii).

So then how exactly does a teacher motivate learners to learn, and more specifically learners from different cultural orientations? This is a difficult question to answer but one that needs to be addressed considering the diversity of cultures found in the South African classroom. In this study an attempt was made to address these issues by examining what motivates a learner to learn, and the influence of culture on the motivation of Further Education and Training (FET) phase learners in a multicultural classroom.

The first chapter of this study starts with a brief explanation of how the researcher became aware of the problem. A statement of the problem being investigated is formulated along with the aims and objectives of the study. This is followed by a discussion on the research methodology used in the study. The chapter ends with a brief explanation of the key concepts of the study namely motivation, culture, the FET phase learner and multicultural education.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND THE AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

In the analysis of the problem, attention is given to the background of the problem and the investigation into the problem. Thereafter the statement of the problem and the aim of the research are discussed.

1.2.1 Background to the problem

The researcher, as a teacher in a private international school in South Africa, has been continuously faced with the same question - how does one motivate learners to reach their full academic potential? - in the words of Sue Wallace's title to her book - 'Getting the Buggers Motivated in FE'. Many teachers on the staff at the school, including the researcher, have found this question incredibly difficult to answer. Few learners are able to motivate themselves, especially as they move towards matric and post-matric. However, a great many learners could be considered laggards - the masses of unmotivated learners who never really reach their potential (Wallace 2007:1). These learners often exit with minimal, very ordinary marks whilst one knows that they could have done far better. Some of these unmotivated learners have discipline problems and are repeatedly found in detention, whilst others are laggards who are the subject of countless fruitless discussions in the staffroom and in staff meetings.

The school where the researcher works offers an internationally recognized curriculum and thus attracts learners from all over Africa. The school caters for both day scholars and boarders. The majority of the boarders come from countries to the north of South Africa namely Nigeria, Ivory Coast, Tunisia, Malawi, Botswana, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zimbabwe and Zambia. Most of these learners speak English as well as their mother tongue. At least a half of the learner body is South African and are day scholars. The staff at the school is equally cosmopolitan and is at least half South African with all racial groups being represented. There are also a number of Zimbabwean, Zambian and British teachers.

The school is very 'grade-oriented' and the teachers are expected to achieve top results in external exams. This puts an enormous pressure on the teachers to try and 'get the best' out of each learner. The staff at the school has found this very difficult to achieve especially as there are large numbers of unmotivated learners at the school. It is often said amongst the staff that the school management are asking the teachers 'to make purses from sows' ears'. The question of why these learners are so unmotivated to learn and what role culture plays therefore arises.

1.2.2 Investigation of the problem

As a teacher at the school, the researcher has become increasingly interested in why some learners appear more motivated to learn than others whilst others could be considered unmotivated. Encouraging motivation at such a school where there is a culturally diverse learner population is also very difficult. Should a teacher motivate a learner from Rwanda in the same way as one from South Africa considering that they have completely different experiences of the world? These are questions which have interested the researcher since she started working at the school and have ultimately led to this study.

Much research has been done on what motivates a learner to learn. This has resulted in the development of several contemporary theories of motivation. Eggen and Kauchak (2007:325), Ormrod (2008:386-387), Santrock (2008:451-454) and Woolfolk (2007:374-375) name these theories as behaviourist, humanistic, cognitive and social cognitive with the latter two dominating research into motivation over the last two to three decades. Ormrod (2008:387) adds trait theories to this list. According to Woolfolk (2007:377) the main source of motivation in each of the first four theories is either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation.

Much research has been done on what motivates a learner to learn. However, it was difficult to find any research on what motivates learners to learn and the impact culture has on a learner's motivation to learn in the context of Africa (in this regard, the researcher consulted various sources such as the internet, journals and books). Some information was found in books and articles on how the motivation to learn differs amongst different cultural groups in Australia. According to McInerney (2007:169-189), the most important findings from this research were that Asian learners were highly mastery oriented, liked and valued school and wanted to go to university. The Anglo Australian group was less performance and more extrinsic goal-oriented. The Aboriginal group was subject to negative parent and peer pressure and the Lebanese group scored highly on mastery skills. However, it was felt by McInerney that the figures from the Lebanese group suggested response bias.

Other research found on the topic also comes from Australia. This research was conducted by McInerney, Hinkley, Dowson and Van Etten (1998) - the results of which are described by Schunk, Pintrich and Meece (2008:296). In this research it was found that Aboriginal Australian learners were less likely to believe that their success depended on satisfying mastery and performance-goal needs as they were more socially-oriented and less individually oriented than the Anglo Australians. The implications of these findings are that more activities such as co-operative learning should be incorporated into the educational programme in order to help motivate the Aboriginal Australians.

As no research could be found on what motivates learners in the context of Africa and the role culture has on the motivation of learners in Africa, the researcher, as a teacher in an African country teaching learners from all over Africa, thought that a need existed for such research to be done in this area.

1.2.3 Statement of the problem

For the purpose of this research, the statement of the problem can be formulated as:

Some learners in a multicultural FET phase class are unmotivated to learn.

This problem leads on to the research question which reads:

What motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn?

The following sub-questions emanate from the research question and these are:

What factors contribute to a learner's motivation to learn in a multicultural classroom?, and

What is the relationship between culture and the motivation to learn?

Only when these questions are answered in the study will the research question - what motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn? - also be answered.

1.2.4 The aim of the research

The aim of the study was twofold: the first aim was to do a literature study to determine the nature of motivation to learn especially as it relates generally to learners and more specifically to learners in multicultural classrooms. The aspects that were covered in the literature study were:

- adolescents and the various aspects involved in adolescent development such as conative and volitional development (see 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4)
- the nature of motivation with regard to goal-setting and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (see 2.5, 2.6.1 and 2.7.2.3)
- the various perspectives on and related sources of motivation (see 2.7)
- culture and diversity and their connection with multicultural education (see 3.2 and 3.3), and
- the relationship between culture and motivation (see 3.4).

The second aim of the study was to do an empirical investigation to determine what motivates FET phase learners to learn in a multicultural classroom, and the role played by culture in influencing this motivation.

1.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research problem was investigated by means of a literature study and an empirical investigation using a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches.

In the following sections, some detail is given of the research methodology which was used in the study. The research design is discussed in greater detail in Chapter Four.

1.3.1 Literature review

The starting point for the research was a literature review. This was undertaken to fully explore the FET phase learner's development as related to motivation and the influence culture has on such a learner's motivation. The literature study concentrated on a wide variety of information sources such as books, scientific periodicals and articles from scholarly journals and the internet.

1.3.2 Research method

The aspects that were identified in the statement of the problem were investigated using a combination of a qualitative and quantitative perspective. The combined approaches were implemented in two phases with the data from the quantitative approach being utilised in the qualitative research.

In the quantitative research the learners were required to fill in a questionnaire. The questionnaire sought to find out from the learners what motivates them. This was followed by the qualitative research which comprised of focus group interviews. In these focus group interviews certain issues which are pertinent to the study were investigated and discussed in more detail with selected learners.

1.3.3 Selection of learners

The study considered what motivates FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom. The learners that were involved all study at a private school located in Mafikeng (North-West Province). This school was selected because a diverse composition of learners attends the school. All learners in the FET phase at the school (Grades 10 through to 12 or Form 4, 5 and 6) were included in the questionnaire process. These learners represented many different cultures ranging from South African to Malawian, Zambian and Kenyan. The members of the focus groups included both female and male learners from Grades 10 through to 12 and included an array of the different cultural groups represented at the school.

1.3.4 Data collection

The data collection procedure consisted of two main data gathering techniques. The first technique concerned the completion of a structured questionnaire, and the second technique involved the use of focus group interviews.

1.3.5 Analysis of data

The data from the questionnaires was analysed with the aid of spreadsheet software (Microsoft Excel). Transcripts from the focus group discussions were analysed manually. Data from the quantitative phase was initially considered. Data from the focus group transcripts was then considered and preliminary conclusions were drawn up (see Chapter Five). Final conclusions were based on the results of both the quantitative and qualitative research.

1.3.6 Issues of reliability and validity

The questions of reliability and validity were considered in the research design. Including both qualitative and quantitative research methods increased the reliability and validity of the study (see Chapter Four).

1.4 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

The demarcation of the study entailed one school in the North-West Province where there were learners from different cultures. All Grade 10 through to 12 learners were included in the research irrespective of their race, gender and language.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

The central concepts of this study were motivation, culture, the FET phase learner and multicultural education. These concepts will be discussed briefly in this section as they are more fully explored in the next two chapters.

1.5.1 Motivation

An early definition of motivation is given by Brophy (1998:3). He defines motivation as a theoretical construct that is used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of behaviour (especially goal-directed behaviour). The concept of motivation is therefore used to explain the degree to which learners invest attention and effort in various pursuits which may or may not be the ones desired by their teachers.

Motivation, according to Gouws, Kruger and Burger (2000:59-60), refers to needs, goals and desires that spur an individual to act. This definition highlights two components of motivation namely movement (implying action) and purpose (which determines the direction of the movement).

Beck (2004:3) states that the term motivation is derived from the Latin verb *movere* which means 'to move'. Motivation is therefore concerned with our movements or actions and what determines them. It explains why people engage in a particular action at a particular time and answers questions such as why a person would eat rather than drink, play rather than work or read rather than exercise.

Mwamwenda (2004:231) refers to motivation as something innate within individuals which energises and drives an inner force. Motivation can also refer to external stimuli which are used to make individuals engage in certain behaviours.

O'Donnell, Reeve and Smith (2005:140) define motivation as being the study of the forces that energise and direct behaviour. Energy means that the behaviour is strong, intense and full of effort. Direction means that behaviour is focused on accomplishing a particular goal or outcome.

Motivation, according to Reeve (2005:iii,6), is a process that explains why people do what they do and why they want what they want. Motivation explains what gives behaviour its energy and its direction. Key words in Reeve's definition are energy (implying that behaviour has strength) and direction (implying that behaviour has purpose and is aimed towards achieving a particular goal).

A further definition of motivation is given by Eggen and Kauchak (2007:298). These authors define the concept as a force that energises, sustains and directs behaviour towards a goal. They state that there is a positive correlation between motivation and achievement at school. They further add that continuing motivation to learn is the hallmark of an individual's accomplishment across their lifespan.

Ormrod's definition of motivation is similar to that of Eggen and Kauchak. However, Ormrod adds that motivation gets learners moving by firstly pointing them in a particular direction, and secondly sustaining their movement. Such motivation is reflected in personal investment and in cognitive, emotional and behavioural engagement in school activities (Ormrod 2008:384). Schunk *et al.* (2008:4) expand upon Ormrod's definition. They maintain that motivation is 'the *process* whereby *goal*-directed *activity* is *instigated* and *sustained'* (key points italicised).

Motivation is defined by Santrock (2008:451) as the process that energises, directs and sustains behaviour. Santrock adds that when learners are motivated they behave in a particular way - they become energized, directed and sustained. Santrock gives an example of motivation. He says that when a learner does not complete work because they are bored, they can be considered unmotivated. However, if such a learner encounters challenges whilst doing the work and persists to overcome hurdles, then he can be considered motivated.

According to Woolfolk (2010:376) motivation is defined as an internal state that arouses, directs and maintains behaviour. Psychologists studying motivation focus on five basic questions, namely:

- what choices do people make about their behaviour, for example, why do some learners focus on homework whilst others watch television?
- how long does it take learners to get started with their activity, for example, why do some learners start homework right away while others procrastinate?
- what is the intensity or level of involvement in the chosen activity, for example, once the bag is opened, is the learner absorbed and focused or just going through the motions?
- what causes a person to persist or to give up on an activity, for example, will the learner read the entire book or just a few pages?

- what is the person thinking and feeling when engaged in the activity, for example, does the learner enjoy learning, do they feel competent or are they worried?

The main sources of motivation, according to Woolfolk (2007:377), are intrinsic and extrinsic. Both forms of motivation influence the behaviour of learners. Intrinsic motivation is the innate propensity to engage one's interest and to exercise one's capacities in order to seek out and master optimal challenges. It emerges spontaneously from psychological needs, personal curiosities and innate strivings for growth (Reeve 2005:134). A good example of intrinsic motivation is when learners are asked why they exercise. If they answer that they exercise for fun, they are intrinsically motivated (Reeve 2005:3). Some learners with high levels of intrinsic motivation become so focused on and absorbed in an activity they lose track of time - a phenomenon known as flow (Ormrod 2008:385). According to Santrock (2008:454) there are four types of intrinsic motivation, namely self-determination and personal choice, optimal experience and flow, interest and cognitive engagement and self-responsibility.

Extrinsic motivation arises from a 'do this and you will get that' situation (Reeve 2005:134). Learners who are motivated in this way engage in an activity as a means to an end (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:299). They want to get rewards, good grades, money or recognition from the activity (Ormrod 2008:385). An extrinsically motivated learner may have to be enticed or prodded to do work. In addition, they will probably process information superficially and will only be interested in easy tasks and meeting minimal classroom requirements (Ormrod 2008:385). An example of extrinsic motivation would be asking learners why they exercise. If they answer that they want to live up to the expectations of others or they do exercise because they are told to do so, they can be considered extrinsically motivated (Reeve 2005:3).

It has been found that intrinsically motivated learners are more likely to stay involved in a task and demonstrate more commitment than extrinsically motivated learners. Intrinsically motivated learners will show the beneficial effects of motivation as they will be more likely to tackle assigned tasks willingly, more eager to learn classroom material, more likely to process information in effective ways and more likely to achieve at higher levels (Ormrod 2008:385). Often intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are pitted against each other as polar opposites. However, in the real world, both forms of motivation operate (Santrock 2008:459)

and can look precisely the same (Reeve 2005:135). An example of this is a learner who may study hard because he finds the subject material interesting (intrinsic motivation) and because he wants good grades (extrinsic motivation) (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:299).

After considering the definitions above, the following interpretation of motivation will be used in the study: Motivation is a process or a force that maintains, directs and sustains behaviour towards a goal and can be either intrinsic (when a learner works on a task for internal reasons) or extrinsic (when a learner works on a task for external reasons).

1.5.2 Culture

According to Kimmel and Volet (2011:41) culture is 'that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by people as a member of society'. Santrock (2008:145) adds to this definition by referring to culture as the behaviour patterns, beliefs and all other products of a particular group of people that are passed on from generation to generation. A cultural group can be as large as the United States or as small as an Amazon tribe.

Eggen and Kauchak (2007:106) define culture as the knowledge, attitudes, values and customs that characterise a social group. On the other hand, Ormrod (2008:24) defines culture as the behaviours and belief systems that characterise the long standing social group of which the child is a member. Culture is seen to be pervasive in that it involves the behaviours that family members encourage, the disciplinary practices used by parents, the books children have access to and the television shows they watch. Culture provides an overall framework by which a child comes to determine what is normal and abnormal, true and not true, rational and irrational, good and bad.

Cultures, according to Ormrod (2008:111), are not static entities as they continue to change over time by incorporating new ideas, innovations and ways of thinking especially as they come into contact with other cultures. There can also be considerable variation in attitudes and behaviours within a particular culture. Individuals may adopt some cultural values but reject others. In short, it is rare to find a stable independent culture in today's world as globalization has drawn together many different people from many different cultures. Such multicultural people will have internalized cultures which will then guide their thoughts and

feelings. They will often switch back and forth between cultures depending on whether they are at work, at home or in school (Salili & Hoosain 2007:4).

There are many cultures within each major culture. The dominant culture in a country is known as the macro-culture. Within a macro-culture there are many different micro-cultures. An example of a micro-culture would be African Americans who live in the States (a macro-culture) (Wilen, Bosse, Hutchison & Kindsvatter 2000:114). Zusho and Pintrich (2003:45) also identify 'biculturals' which are ethnic minority groups that are exposed to more than one culture.

Santrock (2008:145) outlines some of the characteristics people display in their different cultures. He says that firstly people see what happens in their culture as being 'natural' and 'correct' and what happens in other cultures as being 'unnatural' and 'incorrect'; secondly, people perceive their cultural customs as universally valid; thirdly, people behave in ways that favour their cultural group; fourthly, people feel proud of their cultural group and lastly people feel hostile towards other cultural groups.

After considering the definitions above, the following interpretation of culture will be used in the study. It reads: Culture refers to the accepted traditional customs, moral attributes, behaviours and belief systems, knowledge and attitudes as practiced by a particular cultural group.

1.5.3 The FET Phase Learner

South Africa's National Qualifications Framework (NQF) recognises three broad bands of education, namely the General Education and Training (GET) Band, the Further Education and Training (FET) Band and the Higher Education and Training (HE) Band. These bands of education are shown in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1: NQF bands of education

BAND	SCHOOL GRADES	NQF LEVEL	QUALIFICATIONS
HIGHER		8	Doctor's degree
		7	Master's degree
			Honours degree
			Postgraduate diploma
		6	General first degree
			Professional first degree postgraduate
			Bachelor's degree
		5	First diploma
			Higher certificate
			Certificate
FURTHER	12	4	Diplomas
	11	3	Certificates
	10	2	
GENERAL	9	1	Grade 9 / Adult Basic Education and Training level 4
	8		
	7		
	6		
	5		
	4		
	3		
	2		
	1		
	R		

(Source: South Africa 1998)

The FET phase (which is the phase that is involved in the research) consists of all learning and training programmes from NQF Levels two to four or the equivalent of Grade 10 to 12 in the school system. This phase directly follows the general education and training band and precedes the higher education band. Education within the FET phase is compulsory and is provided by senior secondary schools and technical colleges, non governmental organisations, private providers, colleges, training centres and community colleges. At the FET level learners are prepared for higher education, career oriented education, careers and self-employment (Lemmer 2002:37).

FET phase learners could be considered adolescents. According to Gouws *et al.* (2000:2) the term ‘adolescence’ is derived from the Latin word *adolescere*, meaning ‘to grow to adulthood’. This term generally refers to the development phase between childhood and adulthood - however, it is difficult to link a chronological age to this phase because of cultural differences and historical circumstances (Santrock 2001:17). Papalia, Olds and Feldman (2006:412) are more specific in their definition of adolescence, stating that the adolescent stage lasts from about the age of ten or eleven until the late teens or early twenties. Rice and Dolgin (2008:2) split the adolescent period into three different stages namely early adolescence (eleven to fourteen years), middle (fifteen to seventeen years) and late adolescence (eighteen years and over).

The term ‘FET Phase learner’ is not commonly found in overseas literature. Therefore, two others terms will be used in the following chapters to refer to FET phase learners namely ‘adolescents’ when referring to the physical, conative, normative, social and affective aspects of development and ‘learners’ when referring to cognitive development. These different aspects of adolescent development will be discussed in the next chapter.

After considering the definitions above, the following interpretation of FET phase learners will be used in the study: An FET Phase Learner is an adolescent who is in the middle to late adolescence and ranges in age from fifteen to eighteen years and over.

1.5.4 Multicultural education

Multicultural education is education that values diversity and regularly includes the perspectives of a variety of cultural groups. According to Santrock (2008:157) an important goal of multicultural education is equal opportunity for all learners. Multicultural education is able to increase this educational equity by allowing individuals from diverse backgrounds to have an equal opportunity to achieve academically at school (Woolfolk 2007:161; Tiedt & Tiedt 2010:25). According to Nieto (2009:80) one of the most widely recognised and leading scholars in this field - James Banks - defined multicultural education as ‘an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process whose major goal is to change the structure of educational institutions so that male and female learners, exceptional learners, and learners who are members of diverse racial, ethnic, language, and cultural groups will have an equal

chance to achieve academically in school'. This definition, as stated by Nieto (2009:80), has remained remarkably stable over time.

Multicultural education incorporates, according to Banks (2003:x), content, concepts, principles, theories and paradigms from history, the social and behavioural sciences and from ethnic and women studies. This form of education has its roots in the Civil Rights movements of the 1960s where there was a need to overcome the injustice and inequity suffered by Afro Americans and other oppressed minority groups in society (Freeman 2004:139).

After considering the definitions above, the following interpretation of multicultural education will be used in the study. It reads: Multicultural education teaches learners from diverse ethnic, cultural and racial backgrounds how to live and work together harmoniously.

1.6 ARRANGEMENT OF THE CHAPTERS

This dissertation consists of six chapters. Chapter One is an introductory chapter which provides an orientation to the problem of motivation in a multicultural environment.

Chapter Two explores the total development of learners in the Further Education and Training (FET) phase while focusing on their specific development as related to motivation.

Chapter Three deals with the influence of the multicultural classroom on a FET phase learner's motivation thereby aligning the literature reviews to the topic of my research.

Chapter Four clarifies the research design and the suitable research methodologies. A description and discussion of the methods and techniques that were used to collect, analyse and interpret the data is given. Reasons why certain research methods were used as the main methods for data collection are explored.

In Chapter Five the findings of the field research are discussed. Chapter Six deals with the interpretation of the findings, the conclusions and the recommendations which are all based on the field research.

1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to provide an introduction to the study. The central theme of the research, namely what motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn, was introduced. A brief discussion of the research techniques to be used was given. This was followed by a description of the key concepts used in the research. The chapter ended with a brief summary of how the chapters in the study are divided.

The next two chapters involve literature reviews on the total development of the FET phase learner as related to motivation and the influence of culture on such a learner's motivation - this learner being a member of a multicultural class.

CHAPTER TWO

FET PHASE LEARNERS AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT AS RELATED TO MOTIVATION

> When I ask teachers and pupils to talk about what they think motivation is, they invariably paint a positive picture of motivation as some kind of drive to achieve, fulfil a desire and so on. Motivation, however, is more complex than this. Every pupil is motivated. It is just that some of them are motivated to wind the teacher up, to get their revenge, to impress a member of the opposite sex or to avoid more failure, and so on. Motivation can be either positive or negative (Mclean 2009:8).

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The second chapter of my study starts with a brief discussion of adolescents. The chapter then moves on to examine various aspects involved in adolescent development, more specifically conative and volitional development. This is followed by a discussion of motivation as an aspect of conative development. The key features of motivation are then explored. The chapter ends with a brief explanation of the various perspectives on and related sources of motivation.

2.2 ADOLESCENTS

FET Phase learners are adolescents who are in the middle (fifteen to seventeen years) to late adolescence (eighteen to twenty-one years). This developmental phase of the adolescents' lives is often characterised by intense turmoil characterised by many conflicts and stresses. According to Rathus (2006:476) adolescents swing back and forth between happiness and sadness, overconfidence and self-doubt, dependence and independence. During this time adolescents have the desire to be individuals who want to assert themselves. Unfortunately this can lead to immense conflict with parents and teachers alike who might want something else from their charges (Rice & Dolgin 2008:33).

Adolescence is but one of the many stages of the development of human beings. According to Santrock (2008:28-29) the developmental periods of human beings are the prenatal period

(conception to birth), infancy (birth to eighteen or twenty four months), early childhood (end of infancy to five or six years - also known as the preschool years), middle and late childhood (six to ten or eleven years - also known as the elementary school years), adolescence (transition from childhood to early adulthood), early adulthood (twenties to thirties), and middle and late adulthood. In this chapter the focus will be on the developmental period of adolescence - more specifically the middle to late adolescence.

2.3 ASPECTS OF ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT

There are many different aspects to the development of adolescents. McDonald and Mashile (1998:2) state that these are the physical, cognitive, affective, social/moral development and conative/volitional development. Not all authors use these same distinctions. Gouws *et al.* (2000:5-6) name these aspects as physical, cognitive, social, emotional, moral and religious whereas Blume and Zembar (2007:385) refer to them as physical, cognitive, affective and social development. Anfara, Mertens and Caskey (2007:x) outline the development characteristics of young adolescents as being physical, intellectual, emotional/psychological, social and moral/ethical development. However, in this study the aspects outlined by McDonald and Mashile (1998) will be used. These aspects are shown in Figure 2.1.

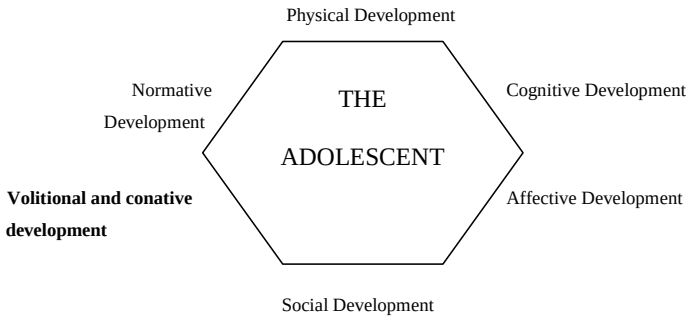


Figure 2.1: Aspects in the development of the adolescent

(Source: McDonald and Mashile 1998:2)

Figure 2.1 shows firstly the adolescent as a total person, and secondly, the different aspects in the development of this total person. These aspects do not operate in isolation but constantly influence one another. Problems which occur in one aspect will influence all other aspects. In order to better understand how these aspects all work together, it is necessary to look briefly at each of them in turn.

Physical development refers to the rapid growth of the adolescent's body (Mee 2007:142). Cognitive development is linked to the adolescent's ability to become more knowledgeable. It encompasses such aspects as intelligence, thinking skills and creativity (Gouws *et al.* 2000:5). Affective development refers to personality and emotional development where a sense of personal identity is consolidated (Blume & Zembar 2007:386). Social development encompasses changes in the adolescent's relations with other people and the influence of society and specific persons on that adolescent. Adolescents face various social issues like making new friends, fitting into peer groups and communicating with peers and teachers (Mee 2007:142). Normative development is a key aspect of the adolescent's overall development. Normative development concerns the typical or normal capabilities, as well as limitations, of most children of a given age within a given cultural group. It indicates a typical range of what children can and cannot be expected to do and learn at a given time. It is important because it allows parents and other adults to understand what to expect physically of a child at different ages (Brotherson 2006).

The final aspect in the development of the adolescent is referred to as conative and volitional development. Conative development refers to the will, volition or striving to attain a goal (Pintrich & Schunk 2002:403). Will is the part of the mind that reflects one's desire, want or purpose and is a force which carries a person towards achieving their goal (Pintrich & Schunk 2002:408). Important aspects of conative development are therefore motivation, aspirations, goal setting and making choices (Huitt & Cain 2005). Volition refers to the act of using the will or the process of dealing with the implementation of actions to attain goals (Schunk 2008:527). Conative and volitional development of an adolescent and its link to motivation, aspirations, choices and decision-making form the basis of this study. It stands to reason therefore that the motivation of FET learners in a multicultural classroom is linked to the conative and volitional aspect of the learner. A discussion of these main concepts will follow in the next section of this chapter.

2.4 THE FOUNDATION UNDERPINNING MOTIVATION

As motivation is an important aspect of conative development, the next section of the literature study will more fully explore the terms 'conative' and 'volition' and the process of conative development. The links between motivation and conative development will be further investigated.

2.4.1 Conative and volitional development

According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002:403) conation is defined as having to do with the will, volition or striving to attain a goal. The Free Online Dictionary (2003) and Dictionary.com (2006) both define conative as 'the aspect of mental processes or behaviour directed toward action or change and includes impulse, desire, volition and striving'. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005:298) defines 'conation' as 'the mental process that makes you want to do something or decide to do something'. According to Wikipedia (2008) the term 'conative' means 'the power or act that directs or impels to effort of any kind, whether muscular or psychical'. It is a term that is synonymous with motivation/will/drive as people are motivated by different instinctive conative styles.

Volition, according to Boekarts, Van Nuland and Martens (2010:538), is the act of using the will - the will being defined as an individual's desire, want or purpose. Brophy (2010:270) defines volition as the action taken to follow through on plans and make sure that they are implemented. Such actions could include concentrating on the task at hand, buckling down to get to work, resisting distractions and persisting in the face of difficulty. Volition, according to Reeve (2005:107), is 'an unpressured willingness to engage in an activity'. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005:1646) defines volition as 'the power to choose something freely or to make your own decisions'. Woolfolk, Hughes and Walkup (2008:404) define volition as 'protecting opportunities to reach goals by applying self-regulated learning'. They further add that volition is an old-fashioned word for willpower. The term 'volition' is defined by Wikipedia (2008) as 'the cognitive process by which an individual decides on and commits to a particular course of action'.

Reeve (2005) describes volition in more detail. He states that volition centres on how free or coerced people firstly feel while they are doing what they want to do, and secondly, while

avoiding what they do not want to do. Volition is high when a person freely engages in an activity or when that person's actions are endorsed fully by himself - such a person would say 'I really want to do this'. The opposite of volition is feeling pressured and coerced into action - such a person would then say 'I have to do this' (Reeve 2005:107).

According to Husman and Corno (2011:210,214) volition is defined as purposive striving which entails processes by which learners implement goals during learning, sustain motivation and strategically regulate cognition and affect. It is a useful and necessary concept that complements motivation. Volition needs to be targeted when learners specifically stop short of perseverance in the face of difficulty and distraction, avoid learning projects that require focus and persistence or fail to develop effective academic work habits.

In this study only conative development will be referred to. The reason for this is that volition (which is the expression of the will) forms part of conative development.

2.4.2 The process of conative development

In order to describe the process of conative development, it is necessary to firstly look at what is meant by the term 'conation'. Huitt and Cain (2005) define conation as the mental process that activates and/or directs behaviour and action. According to Huitt and Cain (2005) conation is often associated with the concepts of intrinsic motivation, volition and self-regulation. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1999:49) define conative development as the basic driving forces which give rise to a person's behaviour. The conative aspect of development includes needs, tendencies, impulses, aspirations, motives, aims, drives, wishes and the will. If a person exhibits conative development, they will pursue a goal and exhibit a will to achieve this goal. In order to develop a person's will, that person must have aspirations or motives. These aspirations form the basis for the initiation of action and are the point of departure for the process of conative development. Aspirations thus remain a key element throughout the conative process (Huitt & Cain 2005).

The term 'aspiration' is defined as 'a strong desire to have or do something' (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 2005:74). One of the adolescent's highest aspirations is to become an adult and be totally emancipated from primary and secondary educators (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1999:51). The adolescent will begin to strive for this once his

basic needs such as the need for food, clothing and safety are met. Adolescents also have secondary aspirations such as striving for success at school, for status, recognition and independence (the latter two being the most important to an adolescent).

Once an adolescent is confronted with aspirations, the adolescent is faced with choices. The adolescent cannot meet all the aspirations at one time and therefore has to decide which of the aspirations are rated the highest. The adolescent has to make this choice in the form of a decision which is made by an act of will. The function of the will is therefore to actualise possibilities and achieve particular aims, aspirations and motives. This implies that aspirations i.e. motivation and choice-making are major components of the will (Schunk *et al*. 2008:17). Once the adolescent knows what he wants and has the will to achieve it, he will take action to realise his aspirations and his goals will be met. In short, he will be translating intentions into actions (Pintrich & Schunk 2002:21). These goals must be of personal significance to the adolescent. The above discussion can be summarised in Figure 2.2.

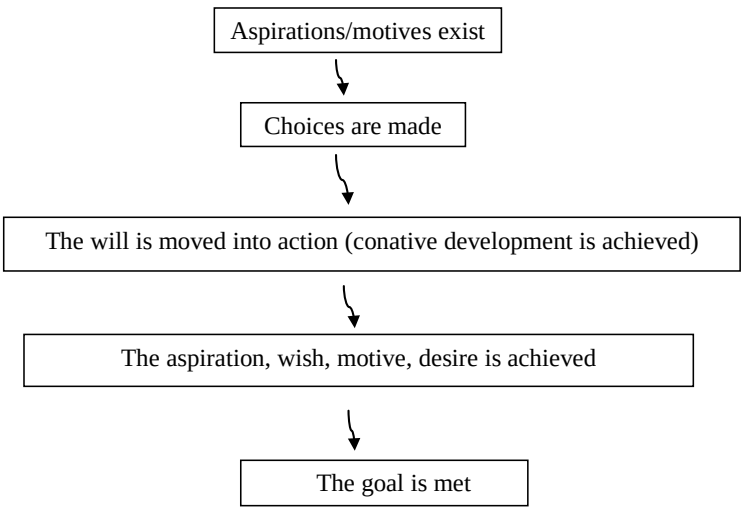


Figure 2.2: The process of conative development

(Source : Own compilation)

Figure 2.2 shows the way aspirations or motives lead to choices being made by a person's will thus allowing a goal to be reached. All these stages form the various steps in a conative

act. The will remains the dominant driving force, desire and purpose throughout the act. The will acts as a coachman with a particular course in mind along which he steers his aspirations (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1999:49).

Gouws *et al*. (2000:60) show in Figure 2.3 how motives, a will and goals are all linked. They do this by explaining the process an adolescent goes through when he is thirsty. The adolescent must have the will to satisfy this need for water as his mouth is dry. The adolescent now faces choices. Specific aspirations have to be weighed against each other and a choice has to be made. In this example, the adolescent must decide to either walk to the kitchen to get some water or to walk to the shops to buy a cool drink. The adolescent then makes a decision to walk to the kitchen to quench his thirst and thus his goal of quenching his thirst has now been met. Drinking water is the last stage of the conative process as the goal to quench his thirst has now been achieved.

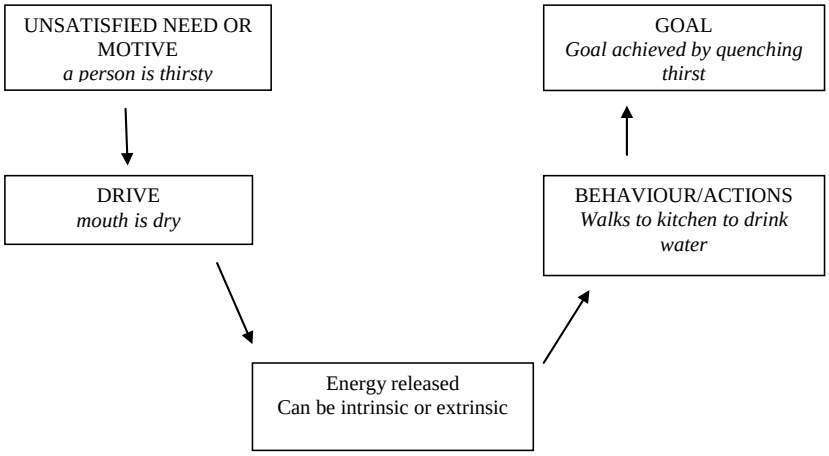


Figure 2.3: The linking of motive, will and goals

(Source: Gouws *et al*. 2000:60)

Figure 2.3 contains all the elements of conative development as previously identified except for the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

It can therefore be concluded that goal-setting, aspirations, choice and will are key elements of the conative process and are all linked together. An adolescent is motivated towards the achievement of goals by an energy, impetus or a will (Tileston 2004:2) and a determination to succeed (Reid 2007:14) - such constructs provide the 'engine' to move the person to act in order to meet such goals (Pintrich & Schunk 2002:192). The adolescent will have to choose which goals should be met in order to satisfy his aspirations. According to Mwamwenda (2004:237) goal-setting characterises the adolescents' conative lives and remains a powerful way of motivating them. Motivation, as an important aspect of the adolescent's conative life, will now be more fully explored.

2.5 MOTIVATION AS AN ASPECT OF CONATIVE DEVELOPMENT

In this section of the study the nature of motivation and motivation to learn will be examined.

2.5.1 The nature of motivation

Motivation is essential to education because it provides the energy and direction that learners need in order to be successful at school. If all activities that learners had to undertake in the classroom were fun and interesting, there would be no need to study motivation. Unfortunately, learners have to do many tasks that they do not like, are not interested in, do not feel competent in, or see no purpose for. This implies that teachers need to ensure that learners feel capable that they can do the task, and that they find tasks meaningful, interesting and purposeful (Boekarts *et al*. 2010:536).

According to Mclean (2009:7) motivation is a relatively modern term that was introduced from America in the 1940s. Motivation has been defined as the process or force that maintains, directs and sustains behaviour towards a goal. This definition shows some important elements of motivation which will be discussed in detail. The first element is that motivation does not usually occur as a once-off incidence. On the contrary - it is a process. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005:1156) defines the term process as 'a series of things that are done in order to achieve a particular result'.

A second element in the above definition is that motivation directs behaviour towards the attainment of particular goals and it is what moves us to action (Mclean 2009:7). Charles and Senter (2008:81) and Boekarts *et al*. (2010:535) state that the word *motive* comes from the Latin root meaning 'to move' and is defined as an emotion, desire or psychological need that incites a person to do something. Motive is therefore the why of behaviour and is a condition within individuals that disposes them towards an activity or goal such as the motivation to learn. Adolescents face many choices when deciding which goals they want to pursue. They could face a choice of either staying in to study for a test (thereby achieving an academic goal) or rather going out with friends (a social goal). A motivated learner who wants to achieve academically will choose to stay in to study. This adolescent could be considered 'motivated' because he is directing (or moving) his behaviour towards achieving his goal which in this case is an academic goal (Charles & Senter 2008:81).

According to O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:141) there are ten particular motivational forces that create and sustain a learner's efforts towards the achievement of a goal such as learning (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Motivational forces

Cognitive motivational forces	*Motivational forces involving needs, feelings and strivings*
Self-efficacy - an 'I can do this' judgment	*Psychological needs* - conditions within the learner that can promote positive emotion
Mastery beliefs - a portrayal of the self during failure leading to an increase of effort	*Intrinsic motivation* - an inherent desire to engage one's interests and develop one's skills
Attributions - explanations of why success or failure outcomes occur	*Extrinsic motivation* - an environmentally created reason to engage in a behaviour
Goals - what the learner is trying to achieve	*Positive emotions* - positive feelings that attract attention towards learning activities
Self-regulation - capacity to monitor and evaluate how goal-pursuing efforts are going	*Achievement strivings* - eagerness to exert effort when facing a standard of excellence

(O'Donnell *et al*. 2005:140)

The motivational forces on the left side of Table 2.1 represent a way of thinking associated with energised and goal-directed action. The motivational states on the right side of the table involve feeling a need, feeling or striving that also underlies energised and goal-directed activities (O'Donnell *et al*. 2005:140). O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:140) do not include self-esteem in the table as they do not consider self-esteem to be a crucial motivational force, contrary to the opinion of other researchers. They state that increased self-esteem does not always cause corresponding increases in school performance. Therefore, encouraging learners to feel good about themselves regardless of their effort, improvement and achievement can interfere with the natural effort-to-achievement relationship. Most of the motivational states highlighted in Table 2.1 will be discussed later in this chapter.

2.5.2 Motivation to learn

If a learner actually does learn, and does not just want to or intend to learn, the learner could be described as being motivated to learn. Mwamwenda (2004:231) defines motivation to learn as the point when a learner wants to achieve a particular goal which is to learn. Such a learner will find academic activities meaningful and worthwhile and will try to benefit from them (Woolfolk 2007:395). Motivation to learn is defined by Brophy (2010:3) as the intention to acquire the knowledge or skills that learning activities are designed to develop. Motivation to learn involves more than wanting or intending to learn. It includes the quality of the learner's mental efforts. It implies the use of thoughtful and active study strategies such as summarizing, elaborating and drawing graphs (Woolfolk 2010:400). Such motivation is all about what makes learners tick and that ultimately comes down to how well such learners' needs are being met (Mclean 2009:47). This form of motivation is the type of motivation teachers are most concerned about developing in their learners (Woolfolk 2007:395).

A common misconception about the motivation to learn, according to McDevitt and Ormrod (2010:497), is that it is something adolescents 'carry around' inside of them. This is not completely true. Not all learners come into class with the motivation to learn. In order to try and develop this form of motivation, teachers have three major goals. The first goal is to create a state of motivation to learn - they need to get the learners productively involved with the work of the class. The second goal is a long-term goal. It involves developing the trait of being motivated to learn so that the learners will spend a lifetime of learning. The final goal is to create learners who are thoughtful and will be cognitively engaged (Woolfolk 2007:395).

Along with these goals, teachers also need to ensure that the six elements outlined in Table 2.2 also come together in the classroom (Woolfolk 2010:400). Many of the concepts introduced in Table 2.2, such as intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, goals and attributions will be explored more fully later in the chapter.

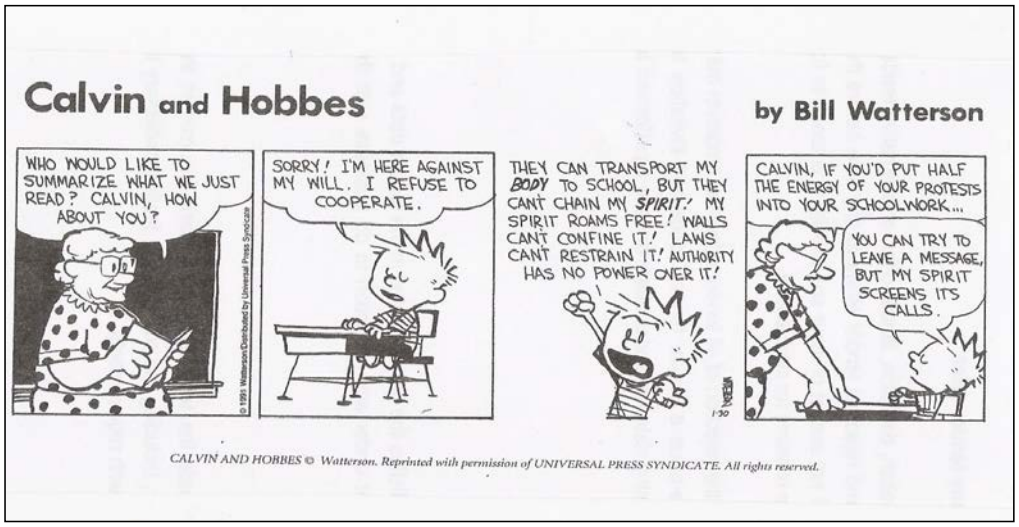
Table 2.2: Building a concept of motivation to learn

Source of motivation	**Optimum characteristics of motivation to learn**	**Characteristics that diminish motivation to learn**
Type of goal set	Intrinsic (personal factors)	Extrinsic (environmental factors)
Type of involvement	Learning goal (personal satisfaction in meeting challenges)	Performance goal (desire for approval for performance in others' eyes)
Achievement Motivation	Motivation to achieve : mastery orientation	Motivation to avoid failure
Likely attributions	Success and failure attributed to controllable effort and ability	Success and failure attributed to uncontrollable causes
Beliefs about ability	Belief that ability can be improved through hard work and added knowledge and skills	Belief that ability is a stable and uncontrollable trait

(Source: Woolfolk 2010:400)

As adolescents develop a motivation to learn, they will start to initiate learning activities. They will stay involved in a learning task. They will exhibit a commitment to learning as they will find academic activities meaningful and worthwhile. These are all outcomes desired in school and in the classroom. As such, effective schools help adolescents acquire the goals (an important element of the adolescent's conative life), beliefs and attributes which sustain long term engagement in learning (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:300; McCown, Driscoll & Roop 1996:280).

The above reflection has revealed certain elements of motivation which have similarities with the conative development of the adolescent. Conative development involves the basic driving forces which give rise to a person's behaviour (see 2.4.1). Motivation takes this one step further as it involves a force that maintains, directs and sustains behaviour towards a certain goal. Goal-setting is an important part of the adolescent's conative life and is also an important element in the motivation process. In order to achieve a goal, an adolescent will display certain aspirations and a motivation that will gradually stabilise into a clear conative disposition (Gouws & Kruger 1998:148). The adolescent will then have to decide which of these aspirations are to be met. This choice will entail an act of will in the setting of goals which is shown aptly in the cartoon below.



(Source: Santrock 2001:425)

As goal-setting is an important part of the adolescent's conative life and is also an important element in the motivation process, the concept of goal-setting will therefore be more fully explored in the next section.

2.6 KEY FEATURES OF MOTIVATION

There are four main features of motivation namely goal-setting, self-efficacy, self-regulation and interest - each will be discussed here.

2.6.1 Goals

Goal theory is one of the approaches, according to Rueda and Chen (2005:213), which is used to understand motivation in relation to school achievement. The goal theory of motivation has made significant contributions in explaining the relationship between learners' motivation and their consequent school achievement while taking into account the schools' and learners' cultures and examining the interaction of these factors. Goal theory stresses that school motivation and individual achievement are the product of a complex set of interacting goals that reflect personal, family and cultural values. The goals held by learners direct and guide their cognition and academic behaviour (Suliman & McInerney 2006:246) and are powerful motivators (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:416).

Urdan (2011:21) defines goals as the perceived purposes of achievement. A goal is defined by Tuckman and Monetti (2011:389) as what someone is motivated to achieve. When learners try to learn new words, read a book or achieve a certain grade, they are involved in goal-directed behaviour. Goals need not be only immediate, focusing on the present task situation - future educational and professional goals are also important motivational resources (Andriessen, Phalet & Lens 2006:829). Examples of such are passing matric well enough to go to university, becoming a prefect or being promoted at work.

Goals are powerful motivators as they influence both the target of behaviour and the driving force behind it (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:416). They give purpose and focus to activities being planned and performed. Goals can also help predict the choice of task difficulty, shape the meaning given to the results obtained as well as assign a value to learning and self-perception (Moe, Passaglia, Tressoldi & Toso 2009:260). How goals affect learning behaviour, according to Rueda and Chen (2005:213), depends on three properties: specificity (specific instead of general goals help learners decide how much effort is required for success and are more likely to increase learner motivation); proximity (pursuing proximal goals rather than distant goals conveys more reliable information about one's capabilities) and

difficulty level (the difficulty of a task influences the amount of effort a learner believes is necessary to complete the task). This is shown in Figure 2.3.

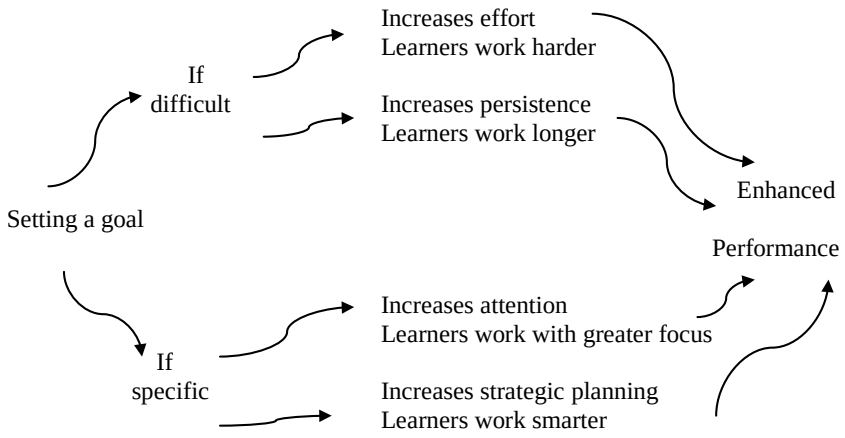


Figure 2.3: How and why difficult specific goals enhance performance

(Source: O'Donnell *et al.* 2005:154)

2.6.1.1 The relationship between goals and motivation

According to O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:153) goals generate motivation by focusing a learner's attention on the discrepancy between their present level of accomplishment and their ideal level of accomplishment.

The discrepancy between 'what is' and 'what could be' is a fundamental motivational principle. Its presence creates a desire to act and a desire to change what presently is into what ideally could be. From a goal-setting perspective, learners can increase their own motivation by creating an ideal state in their minds of *what could be* - thus they would be encouraged to move from their present state (*what is*) to this ideal state. Educators can also increase the motivation of learners by offering them an ideal state to shoot for (*what could be*) and then helping them move from the *what is* state to the *what could be* state. This is shown in Figure 2.4.

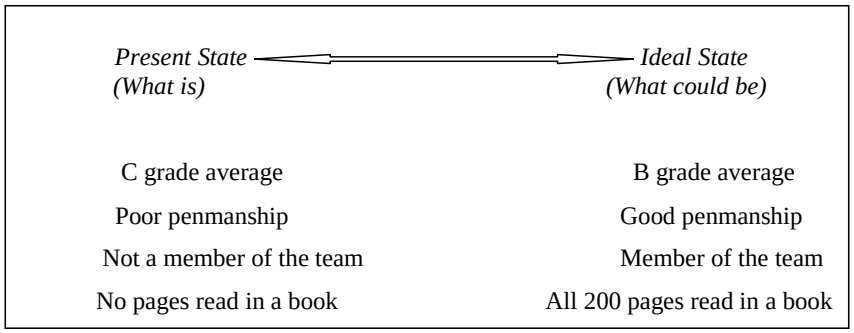


Figure 2.4: An illustration of discrepancies between present and ideal states

(Source: O'Donnell *et al*. 2005:153)

Another area where goals influence motivation is in the context of possible selves. Possible selves, according to O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:156-157), are learners' long-term goals representing what they would like to become in the future. Without a possible self in a particular subject area, learners will lack an important cognitive basis for wanting to acquire knowledge and skill in a particular subject - this is shown in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5 essentially shows how a possible self (learners) can stimulate goal-directed behaviour and become motivated to reach ideal selves (policemen). The process by which learners figure out how to become these desired future selves is shown in Figure 2.5. The learners notice and learn about the attributes, characteristics and abilities that they do not yet possess and think about what they need to get to be ideal selves. The learners will then generate goals for themselves and if the ideal selves can be realistically attained, the learners will become motivated to reach such states.

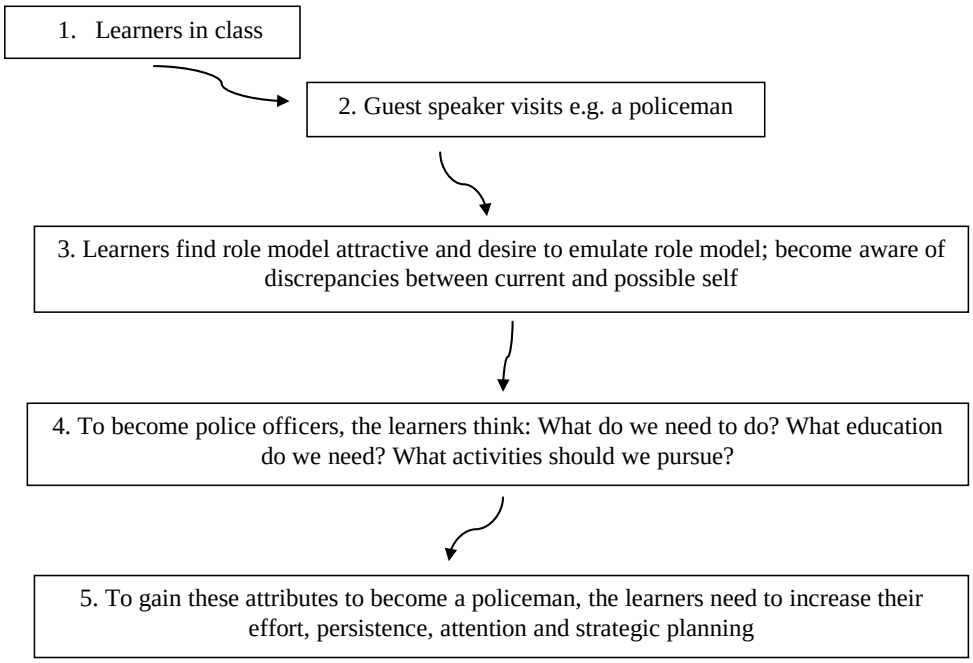


Figure 2.5: Illustration of how possible selves stimulate goal-directed behaviour

(Source: O'Donnell *et al.* 2005:156)

The importance of goals to a learner's motivation and achievement is shown by O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:153) who state that generally learners with goals outperform or perform better than learners without goals. Learners who set goals for themselves and learners who accept goals set by others also generally outperform their no-goal peers. On the other hand, learners who do not have goals and ambitions will lack a sense of having to move in a particular direction and will thus lack motivation (Boekarts *et al*. 2010:536). In addition the type of goals a learner sets influences the degree to which that learner will be motivated to reach them (Woolfolk 2010:384). For example, goals that are specific, moderately difficult and likely to be reached in the near future will tend to enhance motivation and persistence as the challenge provided is not an unreasonable one (O'Donnell *et al.* 2005:153).

2.6.1.2 Different types of goals

Adolescents have a variety of goals which reflect social values such as a desire to please parents, to be important in the peer group or to preserve a cultural identity - each of which may impact upon their level of motivation for particular tasks in school settings (Suliman & McInerney 2006:248). Martin Ford (1992) developed a taxonomy of goals. He arranged them into the following six categories:

- affective goals such as happiness, physical well-being, entertainment,
- cognitive goals such as attaining understanding, engaging in intellectual creativity,
- subjective organisation goals such as unity where one feels a sense of harmony or oneness with people,
- self-assertive social relationship goals such as self-determination,
- integrative social relationship goals such as having a sense of belonging and social responsibility and
- task goals such as mastery and task creativity.

This list is lengthy but does show that learners have many goals that need to be satisfied in order to encourage motivation (Brophy 2010:6).

Mansfield and Vallance (2009:51) shortened this taxonomy to two main goals which learners pursue. The first types of goals are academic goals known as task mastery goals and performance goals. The pursuit of task mastery goals has been associated with high levels of cognitive engagement and intrinsic motivation. The pursuit of performance goals has been associated with the wish to receive external reinforcement regardless of the learning involved.

The second types of goals are social goals such as social responsibility goals, social status goals and social relationship goals. Social goals can also include a variety of other goals such as family-oriented goals (‘I do well at school so my family will be proud of me’), teacher-oriented goals (‘I do my work because I want the teacher to like me’) and peer-oriented goals (‘in order to be accepted by my friends, I sometimes let my schoolwork slip’) (Maehr & Yamaguchi 2001:223).

Achievement goal theorists identified two distinct achievement goals that adolescents pursue (these are similar to those described above) namely mastery/learning goals and performance/ego/ability validation goals. Both these types of goals concern the pursuit of competence and assessment of one's own skill level (Hulleman & Senko 2010:72; Kumar 2004:144; Moe *et al*. 2009:260; Urdan 2011:21).

With mastery goals, the learner is concentrating on the development of competence (Valle, Cabanach, Rodriguez, Nunez, Gonzalez-Pienda, Solano & Rosario 2009:9) and the need to acquire new knowledge and skills (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:489). The focus with mastery goals is on learning, mastering the task at hand, increasing understanding, developing skills or expertise and seeking challenges (Schunk *et al*. 2008:184). Learners who follow mastery goals are more likely to seek appropriate help, use deeper cognitive processing strategies, apply better study strategies and generally approach academic tasks with confidence (Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:449). An example of a mastery goal would be an adolescent who has the desire (and motivation) to understand the Renaissance. This learner would take books out of the library in order to do some extra reading on the subject. In this case the learner is being motivated by the task at hand which is to understand the Renaissance.

Mastery goals are also intrinsic goals. Other examples of intrinsic goals, according to Vansteenkiste, Niemiec and Soenens (2010:145), are personal growth, close relationships and physical health. Individuals who hold mastery goals focus on the intrinsic value of learning. They work hard to understand their work, to improve their competence and skills and to achieve a sense of mastery. Success is not measured against other learners but rather on the intrinsic value of learning (Suliman & McInerney 2006:247). It is because of this that mastery goals are beneficial for most learning-related results (Rugutt & Chemosit 2009:17; Valle *et al*. 2009:9).

Other advantages of adopting mastery goals are that it is the best approach to maximising motivation because interest and effort are sustained even after teaching has finished (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:312-313). A mastery-focused environment will seek to engage learners by challenging them and encouraging them to do their best as their capabilities will not be questioned. Collaboration and co-operation amongst learners is promoted and the learners focus on the task at hand (Kumar 2004:145). Kumar (2004:147) adds that the learners' expectancy of success will in turn be increased along with their motivation and their positive

feelings about themselves. Other positive effects of adopting mastery goals are that learners will prefer challenging tasks which they can learn from rather than easy tasks. They will become less susceptible to learned helplessness deficits and will be more likely intrinsically rather than extrinsically motivated (Reeve 2005:176). However, mastery goals are not always beneficial to the learner. According to Kumar and Maehr (2007:48), mastery goals are closely tied to Western individualistic notions of achievement as they reflect an emphasis on self-improvement, self-enhancement and self-protection.

Performance goals, on the other hand, focus attention on demonstrating competence or proving that one has a high ability in the task. Doing well means doing better than others. Learners who have performance goals are striving to demonstrate or prove their ability to an audience of others (Moe *et al.* 2009:260; O'Donnell *et al.* 2005:158; Urdan 2011:21). An example of a performance goal would be an adolescent who scores in the top third of his class. He is motivated to achieve this level of success as his performance will be compared to others when ranking all the learners' scores (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:312). As such, performance goals are extrinsically motivating as success is determined in reference to others (Rugutt & Chemosit 2009:17).

There are disadvantages to learners performing in a performance-focused environment. There may be an overemphasis on ability, performance, competition and social comparison. In such cases an adolescent's self-worth may be threatened and the adolescent might experience heightened feelings of self-consciousness, anxiety and depression (Kumar 2004:145). Such adolescents could develop learned helplessness, low self-esteem when faced with difficult tasks or failure (Maehr & Yamaguchi 2001:223) and feelings of frustration and disaffection (Moe *et al*. 2009:260).

There are two types of performance goals namely performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals. Performance-approach goals emphasise looking competent, receiving favourable judgement from others, winning, being the best and achieving positive outcomes such as good grades, adult approval or the respect of classmates (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:489; Urdan 2011:21). An example of such goals would be delivering the best presentation in order to impress the class. On the other hand performance-avoidance goals are an attempt to avoid looking incompetent or losing. Such a learner avoids seeking help with schoolwork, tries to avoid evaluation, becomes anxious before and during evaluation,

procrastinates and remains quiet in group work so as not to look incompetent. This type of goal is detrimental to motivation (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:312; Shih 2005:310; Urdan 2011:21; Woolfolk 2007:382).

The discussion above has revealed that motivation is a part of conative development. Conative development involves the basic driving forces which give rise to a person's behaviour (see 2.4.1). Motivation involves taking this force and ensuring that it is maintains, directs and sustains behaviour towards a certain goal. Adolescents are driven towards the achievement of goals because of motivation. However, adolescents will firstly evaluate whether they are able to meet these goals. When they do this, they are exploring their own self-efficacy, self-regulation and interest which are important concepts of motivation and which form the subjects of the next section.

2.6.2 Self–efficacy

In educational settings, self-efficacy beliefs provide the underpinning for motivation (Klassen & Usher 2010:1). Self-efficacy, according to Brophy (2011:51) and Rueda and Chen (2005:214), is an individual's evaluation that he or she has specific performance capabilities that allow the accomplishment of a particular type of task. Self-efficacy is generally linked to judgements of one's capacity to engage in a task rather than to the skills the task requires (Renninger 2010:117). An adolescent who has a high level of self-efficacy believes that 'I can'. Such an adolescent would further endorse statements such as 'I know that I will be able to learn the material in this class' and 'I expect to do well in this activity'. Such learners eagerly work at learning tasks and are more likely to expend effort and persist longer at these learning tasks (Santrock 2001:430). Such positive self-efficacy, according to Boekarts *et al*. (2010:541) and Renninger (2010:117), is generally considered to be a predictor of success because it has been found to influence strategy use, effort and perseverance. In short, learners who display positive self-efficacy have higher aspirations, display a better performance, are achievement-oriented and could be considered to be motivated.

Boekarts *et al*. (2010:541) and Schunk and Pajares (2011:205) define self-efficacy as a person's judgment or perceived capabilities of how well (or how poorly) he or she will cope with a situation given the skills they possess and the circumstances they face. When learners possess high efficacy in a given domain, they believe they have what it takes to do well.

Learners with low efficacy doubt their ability to cope because they believe that they do not have the capacity to cope with the task confronting them. Tanaka and Tanaka (2009:75) define self-efficacy as personal judgments of one's capabilities to organise and execute courses of action necessary to attain a designated performance in specific tasks. Self-efficacy affects one's choice of activities, effort and persistence. Self-efficacy is defined by McDevitt and Ormrod (2010:484) as a belief that one is capable of executing certain behaviours or reaching certain goals. Once adolescents have high self-efficacy for a task, they will eagerly seek out challenges that can further enhance their ability and motivation.

Self-efficacy, according to Eggen and Kauchak (2010:298), depends on the following four factors:

- *past performance* - a history of success in similar tasks increases a learner's self-efficacy in the future,
- *modelling* - observing others can increase self-efficacy by raising expectations and providing information about the way a skill should be performed,
- *verbal persuasion* - a teacher saying 'I know you will give a fine report' can also increase a learner's self-efficacy, and
- *anxiety and psychological state* - anxiety can reduce self-efficacy by filling the working memory with thoughts of failure; and psychological factors (like hunger and fatigue) can also reduce the self-efficacy of a learner.

Self-efficacy is goal-directed and located in an adolescent's will - goals and a will being key aspects of conative development (see 2.4.2). As such, self-efficacy strongly influences motivation and is one of the most important characteristics of motivated learners (Eggen & Kauchak 2010:299; Pressley & McCormick 2007:262; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:389; Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:463). If learners believe they cannot do well and have low levels of self-efficacy, they may not put in the required effort to perform well. They may think passively, avoid effort, develop negative feelings and will not be motivated. On the other hand, learners with high levels of self-efficacy develop the needed impetus to master learning activities and academic subjects. They accept more challenging tasks, exert more effort, persist longer, think actively, make an effort, develop positive feelings and achieve a higher performance - in short, they are motivated (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:310-311; Klassen & Usher 2010:2; Tanaka & Tanaka 2009:75).

Self-efficacy is also subject and domain specific. Learners can have a high self-efficacy with respect to one subject (and even parts of that subject) but a low self-efficacy in another subject (Eggen & Kauchak 2010:298; Pressley & McCormick 2007:263).

According to Renninger (2010:117-118) age is also a factor with regard to self-efficacy. Younger children are more likely to have positive perceptions of their abilities to achieve than older children. As a result, they are more likely to persevere especially if they feel supported. As children become older, their ability to assess and compare themselves to others' abilities increases. The result of this is a decline in their perceptions of their own abilities thus negatively affecting self-efficacy and performance. This can be overcome by positive feedback from teachers and parents.

2.6.3 Self-regulation

An important and relevant area of motivated behaviour, particularly in the case of learners, is self-regulation. Self-regulation is defined by Tuckman and Monetti (2011:389) as the ability to exercise influence over what is done. Renninger (2010:118) defines self-regulation as the learner's ability to self-structure his/her own activities in order to attain his/her goals. These goals can range from goals to complete an activity to life and achievement goals. Eggen and Kauchak (2010:185) define self-regulation as the process of setting personal goals which when combined with motivation, thought processes, strategies and behaviours can lead to the attainment of these goals.

Self-regulated learners take responsibility for their own learning (Eggen & Kauchak 2010:185). However, self-regulation is not achieved solely by will power. People possess self-directive capabilities that enable them to exercise some control over their thoughts, feelings and actions. When learners have trouble with a subject like Maths, they often try to avoid having to deal with it. They need to engage in self-regulation - they need to motivate themselves to study the challenging subject (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:389). Renninger (2010:119-120) adds that individuals can only self-regulate if they have a well-developed interest in the content being learned and they understand how the work will add to their capacity. This point is highlighted by Renninger (2010). If a boy develops an interest in soccer but is made to do drills often which he dislikes, then this boy will have trouble self-

regulating as he will struggle to understand how these drills add to his capacity as a soccer player (Renninger 2010:120).

Self-regulation, according to Eggen and Kauchak (2010:185), includes:

- *setting of goals* - goals provide a direction for a person's actions and benchmark progress,
- *monitoring progress towards goals* - once goals are set then self-regulated learners monitor their progress,
- *assessing the extent to which goals are being met* - helping learners make valid self-assessments based on accurate self-observation is one of the most important tasks teachers face when promoting self-regulation, and
- *effective use of strategies* - self-regulated learners are able to select the most effective strategies to reach their goals.

In order to make these components contribute positively to self-regulation, a learner has to practise goal setting and commitment. When people commit themselves to a goal, they are likely to do what they need to do to meet the goal. When they fall short of it, the resulting dissatisfaction usually serves as an incentive to make them work harder. Both knowledge of what they have done and what they could do will produce motivational effects (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:402; Wenar & Kerig 2006:53).

Self-regulation also depends on self-efficacy. Learners who have the necessary sense of self-efficacy to cope are often able to produce the effort needed to succeed in situations. If learners believe in their ability to control themselves, then they are likely to behave in a manner that enables them to see the results that they expect. The key to self-regulation is believing in the capability to control oneself in difficult, risky or challenging situations and that includes knowing when to seek help (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:389).

2.6.4 Interest

'Because it is interesting' is often a phrase given by learners as to why they should be motivated to engage in a task. Learners, according to Eggen and Kauchak (2010:309), are obviously more motivated to study topics they find interesting, and teachers often try to

capitalise on learner interest in their subjects. Interest refers to a learner's engagement with a particular content or subject. It is composed of stored knowledge, stored values and feelings and develops and is sustained through interaction (Renninger 2010:110). Roth and Hsu (2009:82) define interest as an interactive relation between the individual learner and his/her environment or aspects thereof including objects, events and ideas. Ainley (2010:238) describes interest as an energising factor that is associated with the selection and persistence with information processing activities.

There are two types of interest namely personal interest and situational interest. Personal interest is a person's ongoing affinity, attraction or liking for a subject area, topic or activity. This type of interest develops slowly and once developed can persist over time. Situational interest is a person's current enjoyment, pleasure or satisfaction which is triggered spontaneously by a certain kind of event. This type of interest can change quickly and depends on the current situation (Ainley 2010:238; Eggen & Kauchak 2010:309-310).

Learners who have a well-developed interest are often ready to work and are therefore probably motivated to learn. Such learners will create opportunities for themselves and, as a result, will seek support in the form of feedback from others. They are also likely to have high levels of self-efficacy and self-regulation (see 2.6.2 and 2.6.3) (Ainley 2011:5; Renninger 2010:117). However, a distinction has to be made between catching a learner's interest and holding it long enough for significant learning to take place. Learners do not necessarily need to enjoy or be interested in school activities in order to be motivated to learn - they need to perceive these school activities as meaningful and worthwhile and appreciate their application to life outside of school (Boekarts *et al*. 2010:553; Brophy 2011:54).

In this section the key features of motivation namely goal-setting, self-efficacy, self-regulation and interest were examined. In the next section the various perspectives on and related sources of motivation will be explored.

2.7 PERSPECTIVES ON AND RELATED SOURCES OF MOTIVATION

Virtually all learners, according to Ormrod (2008:384), are motivated in one way or another. Learners may be motivated to do sport or 'hang out' with their friends. They could be

motivated by an interest in a particular subject or interest in a sport or drama, whilst others may be motivated by the social side to school. There may also be those learners who are motivated to avoid academics, social situations or athletic activities. It is therefore important to identify what energises and directs behaviour and therefore affects motivation (Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:438). The answers to these questions will help teachers understand why adolescents appear motivated or unmotivated to engage in certain learning tasks. Only once the sources of the motivation are identified can adolescents be helped to develop adaptive motivational patterns. In order to identify these various sources, it is necessary to know the perspectives which present different sources of motivation as possibilities.

2.7.1 The behaviourist perspective on motivation

One source of motivation in an adolescent is the use of external rewards and punishments - in short, the use of extrinsic motivation (see 1.5.1). These sources of motivation were identified in the behavioural perspective on motivation (Santrock 2008:451). The behavioural perspective has its origins in the first half of the twentieth century with B.F. Skinner who is considered to be the father of the movement. Skinner conducted many experiments in which he provided rewards for desired behaviour and punishments for undesired behaviour (Tileston 2004:4).

The behavioural perspective focuses on motivation being the change in the rate, frequency of occurrence or form of behaviour/response as a function of environmental events and stimuli (Schunk 2008:20). A key focus of this perspective is firstly reinforcement as an explanation for motivation and secondly, psychoanalysis where people are motivated by unconscious drives as directed by *id*, *ego* and *superego* (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:303). Reinforcers are seen to serve as extrinsic motivators of behaviour. Learners will be motivated to engage in behaviour that leads to reinforcers which they find satisfying and desirable. They will be unlikely to behave in ways that consistently lead to punishment (Ormrod 2008:387). Examples of reinforcers are praise, comments on homework, high test scores, display of work and verbally mentioning names of learners who have achieved good grades (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:301). Such reinforcers add interest and excitement to a class as well as directing attention towards appropriate behaviour and away from inappropriate behaviour (Santrock 2008:451).

Behaviourists usually refer to control rather than motivation as a way to establish and maintain desired behaviour patterns. Behaviour is brought under stimulus control with the use of reinforcement. The stimulus is a cue that tells learners that certain forms of behaviour are desired in a situation and that performing these behaviours will gain them access to reinforcement. Once the desired performance level is established, it is maintained because it is reinforced often enough to ensure its continuation. Any behaviour that is incompatible with the desired pattern is extinguished through non-reinforcement or suppressed through punishment (Brophy 2010:3).

There are some commonalities between the behaviourist perspective and conative development. Conative development refers to the basic driving forces which give rise to human behaviour. In the behaviourist perspective reinforcers (such as praise and comments) are used as the basic driving force to change behaviour in an adolescent. However, very few of the other elements of the conative process (such as motives, the will or aspirations) are included in this perspective. This may be due to this perspective concentrating solely on extrinsic motivation.

2.7.2 The humanistic perspective on motivation

In the 1940s proponents of humanistic psychology such as Carl Rogers argued that neither behavioural nor Freudian psychology adequately explained why people act as they do (Woolfolk 2010:379). What developed as a result of this was another perspective on motivation known as the humanistic approach to motivation. This interpretation emphasises the encouragement of people's inner resources, for example, their sense of competence, self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualisation. An important element of this perspective is the development of intrinsic sources of motivation such as personal freedom, choice, self-determination and striving for personal growth. Some of the most influential humanistic explanations of motivation are Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Woolfolk *et al.* 2008:441) and Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory (Woolfolk 2010:379) which will be discussed next.

2.7.2.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs states that needs lower on the pyramid such as physical and safety needs must be met before an individual will consider higher-level needs (Campbell 2009:177). The development and understanding of these human needs can be valuable when trying to motivate humans (Tomal 2007:29). The basic needs are known as deficiency needs and include the need for survival, safety, belonging and self-esteem. The higher order needs, which will be satisfied once the basic needs are met, are known as growth needs and include intellectual achievement, aesthetic appreciation and self-actualisation. All of the needs identified by Maslow are shown schematically in Figure 2.6.

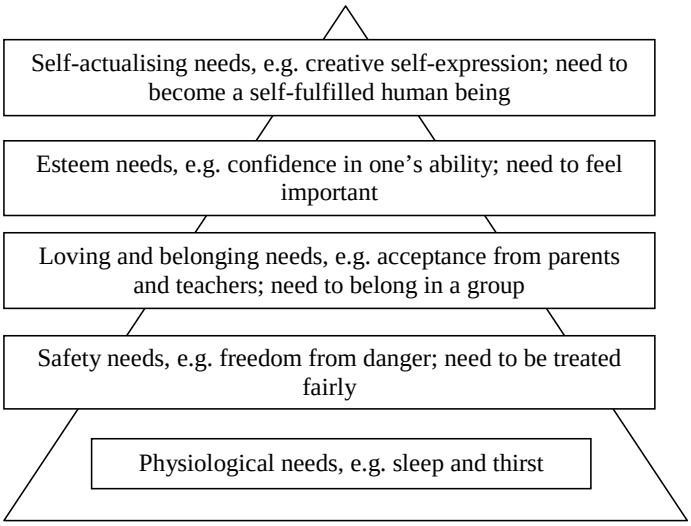


Figure 2.6: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

(Source: Brophy 2010:5; Campbell 2009:178; Ormrod 2008:388; Woolfolk *et al.* 2008:442)

According to Ormrod (2008:388) deficiency needs (ranging from physiological through to esteem needs) can only be met by external sources such as people and events in one's environment. Eggen and Kauchak (2007:303) state that if adolescents' deficiency needs are not addressed, then they may be unlikely to pursue classroom tasks with much interest or

energy. As a consequence they may have trouble concentrating at school which could result in poor results.

When deficiency needs are satisfied, the motivation for fulfilling them decreases. The adolescent then moves on to meet growth needs (self-actualisation). Growth needs are needs that increase as people have experiences of them (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:303). These needs enhance the adolescents' growth and development. Adolescents engage in meeting these needs because it gives them pleasure and satisfies their desire to know and grow. The top growth need and the top need in Maslow's hierarchy is self-actualisation which is defined as the fulfilment of one's potential (Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:441). The need for self-actualisation indicates a highly intrinsic person (Ormrod 2008:388) and could therefore be considered a form of conative development (intrinsic motivation is related to conative development as intrinsic motivation is primarily located in an adolescent's will which is a key aspect of conative development). When growth needs are met, a person's motivation does not cease as the person will continue to seek further fulfilment. As such, growth needs are never completely filled (Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:441).

It is possible to link Maslow's hierarchy of needs to a school situation. Mwamwenda (2004:239-241), Santrock (2008:452) and Tomal (2007:30) state that physiological needs (such as the need for food, water, sleep, air and reasonable temperature) are the strongest of the needs and must be met if learning is to occur. These needs are universal amongst all humans but may vary in their degree of importance. A school may provide free lunches as a way of meeting learners' physical needs. By doing this, the school is trying to ensure that the learners' motivation will not decrease because they are hungry - the physiological needs of the learners are therefore being met (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:303-304).

Examples of safety needs, as related to a school situation, would be the possible need for a learner to bring a gun to school because they fear for their life due to the threat of gang violence. However, by bringing a gun to school, the learner may be violating school policies (Tomal 2007:31). Loving and belonging needs are often strong in school (Campbell 2009:177). Examples of these needs are love, belongingness, security and affection. Teachers can help a learner meet these needs by making them feel part of the class. In this way they are assisting the learner to develop a positive self-concept and in the process the learner's safety, self-esteem and self-actualising needs may be met (Mwamwenda 2004:241-242). Classmates

or peer groups can also help a learner meet these needs. Social interaction with peer groups can help develop important social skills such as sharing, listening and turn taking. The process of helping and working with others can also be motivating (Reid 2007:15). If learners' social needs are not met, they may not be motivated and could possibly become apathetic in class, might disrupt the class, goof around and practise attention-seeking behaviour in order to fulfil this need (Tomal 2007:32).

The need at the top of Maslow's hierarchy - self-actualisation - is the ultimate goal of not just learners but of all human beings. It involves the development of one's full potential. This need is shown quite clearly in a school situation. A learner's love for learning may be reward in itself for that particular learner. Another example could be a teacher who takes learners who are interested in medicine on a field trip to a local hospital. If the learners are able to watch surgery, they may be inspired to become a doctor and could possibly be more motivated to learn. Once adolescents achieve the need for self-actualisation, they are exhibiting intrinsic motivation since their behaviour emanates from a source within themselves (Tomal 2007:33-34).

2.7.2.2 Self-determination

A more recent humanistic approach to motivation that focuses on motivation, emotion and personality in a social context is self-determination theory (Vansteenkiste *et al*. 2010:105; Woolfolk 2007:375). This theory, which was first developed by Deci and Ryan, is considered to be one of the most comprehensive and empirically supported theories of motivation available (Tanaka & Tanaka 2009:73; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:426). According to Long, Wood, Littleton, Passenger and Sheehy (2011:117) self-determination theory is based on the ideas of will and self-determination. The term 'will' refers to the ability of a person to decide on how to satisfy their needs (see 2.3). Self-determination is defined as a belief that a person has some choice and control regarding the things they do and the direction their lives take (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:485). Tuckman and Monetti (2011:389,426) define self-determination as the process of utilising one's will or the motivation based on the desire for autonomy. Deci and Ryan considered motivation to be self-determined (carried out by choice), controlled or compelled to perform (Tanaka & Tanaka 2009:73; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:426).

In order to energise behaviour, self-determination theory proposes the existence of three innate needs namely competence (developing and exercising skills for manipulating and controlling the environment), relatedness (the sense of belonging to a group) and autonomy (a sense of control or self-determination in deciding what to do and how to do it) (Brophy 2010:7; Long *et al*. 2011:116; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:426). Autonomy is defined by O'Donnell *et al.* (2005:183) as a psychological need to experience self-direction in the initiation and regulation of one's behaviour. When these three innate needs are satisfied, people are able to maximise their motivation, performance and development (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:426).

According to Long *et al*. (2011:118) the different types of motivation can be organised along a continuum. This is shown in Figure 2.7.

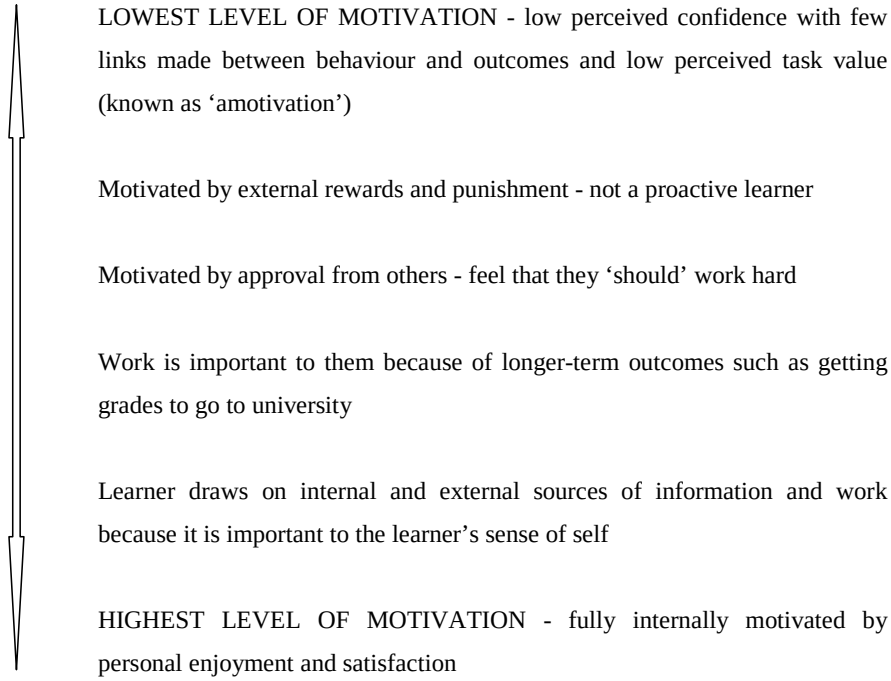


Figure 2.7: Types of motivation described by Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory

(Source: Long *et al*. 2011:118)

The lowest level of motivation in Figure 2.7 is 'amotivation'. This is followed by four different levels of extrinsic motivation that differ in the extent to which they are perceived to be externally or internally controlled. The highest level of motivation is intrinsic motivation which is the most satisfying and most internally controlled form of motivation (Long *et al*. 2011:118).

Self-determination theory therefore places a central importance on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:426). In this study the term intrinsic motivation is interpreted as being when a learner works on a task in order to meet internal goals and extrinsic motivation is when a learner works on a task in order to meet external goals. Both these sources of motivation will be examined in the next section.

2.7.2.3 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation, according to Deci (1985), can be equated with individual choice and personal self-determination. Those who are intrinsically motivated seek to exercise and validate a sense of control over their external environment. As a result they enjoy and persist at activities that provide them with the opportunity to make choices, control their own outcomes and determine their own fate (Rueda & Chen 2005:212). Adolescents are more intrinsically motivated when they have a sense of self-determination.

Intrinsically motivated adolescents want to perform because they like to, it gives them pleasure, helps them develop a skill they think is important and because they find the task interesting, informative and rewarding. An example of intrinsic motivation is the adolescent's inner drive to achieve good marks. Intrinsically motivated adolescents undertake tasks without having to be encouraged or coerced. The intrinsically motivated learner derives more satisfaction from the success of studying than from the idea of passing exams. Such individuals focus on the task rather than the self. The greater the level of intrinsic motivation in an adolescent, the better the academic performance is of that adolescent (Gouws *et al*. 2000:60; Ormrod 2008:385; Salazar & Russell 2005:118; Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:438).

According to Gouws *et al*. (2000:61) and Santrock (2001:425) it is possible to relate intrinsic motivation to conative development. Intrinsic motivation is primarily located in an adolescent's will (a key aspect of conative development). Intrinsically motivated adolescents

want to believe that they are doing something because of their own will or self-determination and not because of external success or rewards. An intrinsically motivated adolescent also exhibits other characteristics of conative development such as being goal-directed, the need to enrich themselves inwardly and the wish to carry out tasks successfully. Such learners will therefore concentrate on learning tasks as they consider learning to be a meaningful activity. They set their own standards and study purposively with the necessary enthusiasm. They pursue realistic study objectives and have a positive attitude towards their studies.

Another source of motivation is extrinsic motivation. If adolescents are extrinsically motivated they will engage in behaviours that are believed to be instrumental to some consequence (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:426). Teachers would love to work with learners who are internally motivated to learn, but they do know that most of the time they will have to supply at least some of the motivation for their learners as many of these learners are simply extrinsically motivated (Charles & Senter 2008:82).

What differentiates extrinsically motivated learners from intrinsically motivated ones is that that former respond to incentives or rewards that are outside (rather than inside) the individual. Incentives can be promised as a consequence of desired work or behaviour and can take the form of sweets, extra privileges or time to socialise or play games (Charles & Senter 2008:89). Other forms of incentive that an extrinsically motivated learner may wish for are parent or teacher approval or praise, high marks or trying to avoid getting into trouble. As a consequence, extrinsically motivated adolescents have to be continually admonished in order to perform the task at hand. Such adolescents are heavily dependent on others, such as the teacher, who is seen to be the assertive person. Extrinsic motivation therefore needs continual reinforcement for if this is withheld, motivation ceases. As a consequence adolescents who are extrinsically motivated show the following characteristics: they doubt their own abilities, do only what is necessary, are pessimistic about their chances of success, realise only short-term goals, their work performance depends on external pressure or encouragement and they strive for social approval from peers, teachers, parents and other adults (Gouws *et al.* 2000:61; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1999:140-141).

Comment [C1]: What is "motionally passive"? You may want to explain briefly.

According to O'Donnell *et al.* (2005:179) intrinsically and extrinsically motivated behaviours also look the same. Just as the intrinsically motivated learner works through a maths exercise, so does the extrinsically motivated learner. The essential difference between the two types of

motivation lies in what energises and directs the learner's activities - in short, whether the locus of causality for the action (the location of the cause) is internal (inside the person) or external (outside the person). If someone freely chooses to do an activity because they are personally interested in the activity, they exhibit intrinsic motivation or an internal locus of causality. It is possible to convert extrinsic motives into intrinsic motives through a process of internalisation. Internalisation involves teachers giving learners choices. Teachers need to teach in a non-controlling manner and when rewards are used, they should be informational (where the recipient is provided with information about their competence and self-determination) rather than controlling (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:427,433).

It does appear from the literature that extrinsic motivation should not be encouraged. According to Ormrod (2008:385) this is incorrect as it is sometimes the only element that can be used to encourage an adolescent to be successful at school. However, for an extrinsically motivated learner task engagement will cease when extrinsic reasons for learning no longer exist. Based on this fact, it has been shown that intrinsic motivation should rather be encouraged in an adolescent because this type of motivation is located in the adolescents' will (one of the key elements of conative development) to enrich themselves inwardly (Santrock 2008:454). An intrinsically motivated learner will stay more involved in and demonstrate commitment for the long run. Nonetheless, there is a need to strike a balance between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Gouws *et al*. 2000:62).

The question is whether it is possible to relate extrinsic motivation to conative development. Extrinsic motivation is not located in an adolescent's will as with this type of motivation there is no drive for an adolescent to enrich themselves inwardly. If an adolescent is extrinsically motivated, they will take action because someone else has prompted them to do so. They do not take action out of their 'own free will'. However, an extrinsically motivated adolescent may still have aspirations such as the wish to gain parental approval or a reward and as such aspirations remain a key to the conative process.

There is a relationship between the humanistic perspective and conative development. The following elements of conative development are highlighted in this perspective namely the concept of 'needs' and 'aspirations'. The adolescent has many aspirations and needs. One such aspiration could be the desire to become an adult and to be totally emancipated from primary and secondary educators. Other aspirations could be success at school, status,

recognition and independence (the latter two being the most important to an adolescent). The adolescent will begin to strive to meet these aspirations once his basic needs (such as the need for food, clothing and safety) are met (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1999:51).

2.7.3 Cognitive and social cognitive perspectives on motivation

Cognitive theories were developed as a reaction to behavioural views. In cognitive theories people are seen to be active and curious beings that search for information to solve personally relevant problems. Cognitive theorists emphasise intrinsic motivation (Woolfolk *et al.* 2008:442) and an individual's learning behaviour is seen to be an internal process (Rueda & Chen 2005:212). Cognitive theorists believe that behaviour is determined by thinking and not simply by whether one has been rewarded or punished for behaviour in the past (as proposed by behaviourists). Behaviour is initiated and regulated by plans, goals, schemas, expectations and attributions (Woolfolk 2007:375). There are three motivational components in the cognitive model namely a value component (why am I doing this task?), an expectancy/self-efficacy component (can I do this?) and an affective component (how do I feel?) (Rueda & Chen 2005:213).

Social cognitive theories of motivation are combinations of both the behavioural and the cognitive approaches. These theorists take both the behaviourists' concern with the consequences of behaviour and the cognitivists' interest in the impact of individual beliefs and expectations (Woolfolk 2010:379). The focus therefore, in the social cognitive perspective, is on learners who are initially motivated by the consequences that follow from their own behaviour or the behaviour of others (Ormrod 2008:387). Social cognitive theorists put greater emphasis on what individual learners think about their tasks, values, competence and the effort they need to devote to the task (Rueda & Chen 2005:212). Social cognitive theories are therefore theories emphasising cognitive, vicarious, self-regulatory and self-reflective processes in human adaptation and change (Schunk & Pajares 2011:205). From this perspective, learners are seen as contributors to their own lives and are therefore 'architects of their own destiny' (Klassen & Usher 2010:2).

2.7.3.1 Expectancy Motivation Theories

One facet of the cognitive and social cognitive perspectives is expectancy motivation theories (Woolfolk 2010:379). When a learner says: 'If I study hard for the next test, I'm going to do well' - the learner is describing an *expectation* or a belief about a future outcome. The influence of expectations on motivation is often described as using expectancy value theory. This theory, according to Eggen and Kauchak (2010:297), explains a learner's motivation using the extent to which a learner *expects* to succeed in a learning task *times* the *value* he/she places on succeeding at the task. Expectancy refers to the degree to which a learner expects to be able to effectively perform an activity such as successfully completing a test or homework (Brophy 2010:16). Value refers to the rewards that a successful task performance will bring (Brophy 2011:50). If a learner believes that spending more time on homework will result in better grades, then the learner will do what is needed. However, if the learner believes that there is not an important relationship between study time and the successful completion of homework, the learner will not be motivated to do the work (Tomal 2007:38). Learners with high success expectations will also persist longer on tasks, choose more challenging activities and achieve better than those whose expectations are lower (Eggen & Kauchak 2010:297).

In short, expectancy motivation theories view motivation as a function of the *expectancies* one has and the *value* of the goal towards which one is working (Kimmel & Volet 2011:41), or as a product of two main forces namely the individual's *expectation* of reaching a goal and the *value* of the goal to him (Brophy 2010:16). The question that learners will ask themselves is 'If I try hard, can I succeed?' and 'If I succeed, will the outcome be valuable or rewarding to me?' Motivation is therefore a product of these two factors for if either factor is equal to zero, there would be no motivation to work towards a goal. An example of this could be a learner who believes he can make the basketball team (high expectation) and making the team is very important to him (high value), then his motivation will be strong. If either factor is zero, such as the learner believes he will never make the team, then his motivation will be zero (Woolfolk 2010:379).

2.7.3.2 Attribution Theory

Another facet of the cognitive and social cognitive perspectives of motivation is the attribution theory. This theory is concerned with how and why people search for the causes of

their own behaviour or that of others, the kinds of causes found and the effects of such attributions on emotion, motivation and subsequent behaviours (Beck 2004:331). The explanations adolescents have for their success and failures are known as attributions (Brophy 2011:51; McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:491). With this theory adolescents are trying to make sense of their own behaviour or performance. They may ask questions like 'Why am I not doing well in class?' or 'Did I get a good grade because I studied hard or the teacher made up an easy test, or both?' The search for the cause of the success or failure will only be initiated when an unexpected or important event ends in success or failure such as a learner receiving a low grade for a test. This learner may try to find the cause of the failure. Some of the most frequently inferred causes of success and failure are ability, effort, task ease/difficulty, luck, mood and help/hindrance from others (Pintrich & Schunk 2002:94; Reeve 2005:347; Santrock 2001:426; Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:461).

According to Tuckman and Monetti (2011:404) a major researcher in this field, Bernard Weiner, explained motivation on the basis of the perceived causes a person might use to explain success or failure in a particular performance. All behaviour has consequences. A person who is acting to succeed, experiences not only the act itself, but its outcomes as well. The person will attribute these outcomes to certain causal agents and will seek answers to questions as to why they failed or succeeded.

The model that Weiner proposed stated that humans use the following attributions to explain their success or failure:

- Locus (location of the cause) describes whether the cause is internal or external to the person. Some learners feel that they influence their own activities and are responsible for their own rewards and punishments. These learners are exhibiting internal attributions and would attribute their success to high ability and hard work. On the other hand, when learners feel that there is a more powerful outside source controlling the outcome of their actions, they exhibit external attributions and would attribute their failure to bad luck.
- Stability describes whether the cause is likely to stay the same in the near future or will change. If a learner attributes their success to ability, they are exhibiting a stable attribution. If they attribute success to effort, they are exhibiting a fluctuating attribution. Task difficulty is considered stable but chance or luck is fluctuating.

- Controllability is the extent to which the individual can control the cause. If a learner attributes his/her failure to a lack of effort, he/she is exhibiting a controllable attribution. However, if they say that they could not work because they had flu, they are attributing their failure to an uncontrollable attribution (Beck 2004:332; Santrock 2001:427; Woolfolk *et al.* 2008:461).

According to Woolfolk (2010:389) these three attributions have important implications for motivation because they affect expectancy. If failure is attributed to a stable influence (e.g. low ability) learners will believe that the same outcome will recur in the future. If failure is attributed to an unstable influence (e.g. low effort), learners will believe that a different outcome is likely to occur the next time. These forecasts about the likelihood of future successes and failures are the foundation of mastery versus helplessness beliefs. When helpless-oriented thinkers fail, they ascribe the failure to stable uncontrollable attributions which lead them to expect a future of chronic failure - they say 'why try?' On the other hand, when mastery-oriented thinkers fail, they often ascribe the failure to unstable controllable attributions. The result is that these learners will be able to generate the motivation needed to marshal the effort needed to remedy the failure (O'Donnell *et al.* 2005:151).

Table 2.3 shows the various combinations of causal attributions and explanations for success or failure. When matched up, they provide various common explanations of failure.

Table 2.3: The various combinations of Weiner's three main categories of attributions

Combination of causal attributions	**Reason learners give for failure**
Internal-stable-uncontrollable	Low aptitude
Internal-stable-controllable	Never studies
Internal-unstable-uncontrollable	Sick the day of the test
Internal-unstable-controllable	Did not study for that particular test
External-stable-uncontrollable	School has tough requirements
External-stable-controllable	The instructor is biased
External-unstable-uncontrollable	Bad luck
External-unstable-controllable	Friends failed to help

(Source: Woolfolk 2010:389)

Santrock (2001:428) describes how attribution theory relates to motivation in his examination of the following two adolescents. The first adolescent is Jane who fails her Maths test. She subsequently seeks tutoring and increases her study time. The second adolescent is Susan who also fails her Maths test but decides to drop out of school. Jane's negative outcome (failing her test) motivated her to search for reasons behind her low grade. She attributed the failure to an unstable factor - lack of preparation and study time and did not blame her teacher or bad luck. She thus perceives her failure as being due to internal, unstable and controllable factors. The factors that are unstable lead Jane to a reasonable expectation that she can still succeed in the future. The factors that are controllable make her feel guilty. Her expectations for success enable her to overcome her deflated sense of self-esteem. Her hope for the future enables her to set new goals and increases her motivation.

Because she failed the test, Susan dropped out of school instead of deciding to study harder. Her failure also caused her to make causal attributions. Susan ascribed the failure to herself and attributed her poor performance to her lack of ability (which is an internal, unstable and uncontrollable attribution). Her self-esteem suffered because the cause was internal. She saw failure (which is stable) in her future and had a helpless feeling that she could not do anything about. Susan also felt ashamed and humiliated. With low expectations for success, low self-esteem and a depressed mood, Susan could soon become unmotivated (Santrock 2001:428).

Self-efficacy and attributions affect each other. If success is attributed to internal or controllable causes such as ability or effort, then self-efficacy is enhanced. Such learners would say that 'I'm good at Maths' and when they fail, say 'I should have double-checked my work.' As a consequence, they usually focus on strategies for succeeding the next time. This response often leads to achievement, pride and a greater feeling of control. However, if self-efficacy is attributed to luck or lack of ability, then self-efficacy may not be strengthened. Such learners would say 'I'm terrible at Maths' and would attribute their failure to lack of ability - they would say 'I'm just dumb' (Woolfolk 2010:389-390).

According to Woolfolk (2010:390), the greatest motivational problems arise when learners attribute failures to stable, uncontrollable causes. Such learners will seem resigned to failure, depressed, helpless and could be termed 'unmotivated'. These types of learners respond to failure by focusing even more on their own inadequacies. Their attitudes towards schoolwork may deteriorate further and they may become apathetic. Such learners will be less likely to

seek help, thus creating a downward spiral of failure and concealment. Woolfolk (2010:390) labels these types of learners as being 'the motivationally poor' - by concealing their difficulties they become poorer in terms of motivation. O'Donnell *et al.* (2005:149) refer to this type of situation as being one of learned helplessness. In such a state learners expect that school-related outcomes are beyond their control and that their behaviour has little influence over their outcomes. Such learners turn markedly passive, are unwilling to try and become apathetic and depressed.

2.7.3.3 Mastery Motivation

Mastery motivation is a theory closely related to attribution theory. According to Santrock (2001:429) researchers have identified mastery as one of the three types of achievement orientations - the other two being helpless and performance. Adolescents exhibit two distinct responses to challenging or difficult circumstances. They can have a mastery orientation where they ask 'what do I need to do to make an A?' In such a situation learners believe they can succeed rather than fail. They remain focused and determined to achieve mastery over the outcome despite any difficulties and setbacks. They adjust their behaviour and strategies to regain control over the outcome (O'Donnell *et al.* 2005:148). Such adolescents make themselves pay attention, think carefully and remember strategies that worked for them in the past. Alternatively, adolescents can have a helpless orientation where they focus on their personal inadequacies, often attribute their difficulty to a lack of ability and display boredom and anxiety. Such orientations undermine their performance. The mastery orientation is like the attribution combination of internal locus, unstable and controllable cause. The helpless orientation is like the attribution combination of internal locus, stable and uncontrollable cause (Santrock 2001:429).

There is a relationship between the cognitive and social cognitive perspectives and conative development. In the cognitive and social cognitive perspectives an adolescent's beliefs, expectations and need for order, predictability and understanding are emphasised. Adolescents are naturally motivated to learn when their experience is inconsistent with their current understanding and they have a need to understand and make sense of the world (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:307). What is stated here indicates that conative development is taking place. Conative development is defined as being concerned with the basic driving forces which give rise to human behaviour (see 2.4.2). In the cognitive and social cognitive

perspectives the basic driving forces giving rise to certain adolescent behaviour are a need to understand and make sense of the world - because of this, adolescents are naturally motivated to learn. These two perspectives also stress the importance of goal-setting, planning and monitoring progress towards a goal (Santrock 2008:452) - goal-setting being a key aspect of conative development.

In this section the various perspectives which present different sources of motivation were identified. The first perspective to be examined was the behaviourist perspective. The key element in this perspective was the use of external rewards and punishments. The second perspective to be examined was the humanistic perspective. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which is closely aligned to this perspective, was explored in depth. The third perspective to be examined encompassed the cognitive and social cognitive perspectives. Personal goals, intentions, beliefs, values and expectations are the key elements of these perspectives. When discussing each of the perspectives, attempts were made to link the perspective to conative development in order to identify commonalities and differences.

2.8 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this chapter was to examine the different aspects in the development of the adolescent, namely physical, cognitive, affective, social, normative and conative. Conative development was then analysed in more depth because motivation was recognised as a key element of this development. Other key elements of conative development were identified as aspirations, choice, the will and goals. Goal-setting was found to be very important in an adolescent's conative life and it was further stated that it was a powerful way of motivating an adolescent and thus the link to motivation was established. The chapter then continued with an exploration of the term 'motivation' and 'intrinsic and extrinsic motivation'. Every effort was made during this discussion to link motivation to conative development. The chapter ended with a detailed look at the perspectives which identify the different sources of motivation in an adolescent. Again, every effort was made to link the discussion to conative development.

This chapter contributes to the answering of the research question (what motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn) by identifying conative development as one of the

aspects in the development of adolescents or FET phase learners. It was found in the literature review that a key feature of conative development is motivation. Therefore links were made between motivation and the FET phase learner. In the next chapter the influence of the multicultural classroom on FET phase learners' motivation will be examined.

CHAPTER THREE

THE MOTIVATION OF AN THE FET PHASE LEARNER IN A MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM

> Because students differ in terms of language, culture, economic privilege, personality, knowledge and experience, they will also differ in their needs, goals, interests, emotions and beliefs. Teachers encourage motivation to learn by taking this diversity into account … (Woolfolk 2010:407).

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The third chapter of the study starts with a discussion on culture and diversity in order to provide an understanding of multicultural education. The chapter then moves on to examine the various aspects involved in multicultural education. This is followed by a discussion on the link between culture and motivation and how this manifests itself in a multicultural classroom.

3.2 CULTURE AND DIVERSITY

Perhaps one of the most significant ingredients in quality schools is quality teachers. To be successful, teachers must engage their learners in high quality, caring and supportive relationships. It is unlikely that a teacher will be able to build a quality, caring and supportive relationship with learners if the teacher does not respect the culture of such learners (Campbell 2009:175). Without caring, nurturing relationships and an understanding of the culture of the learners, teachers could face difficulty motivating their learners or developing an intrinsic motivation which is innate in most learners. It is therefore important that teachers (and those involved in education) understand the learners' cultures and the concept of cultural diversity in order to better understand how learners from different cultures can be motivated.

In order to put the concepts of culture and diversity in context, it is necessary to firstly examine the concept of cultural diversity. This will be followed by a discussion of culture and micro- and macro-cultures. This section of the study will conclude with an examination of Hofstede's method of analysing culture (Hofstede, Pedersen & Hofstede 2002:x).

3.2.1 Diversity

The term ‘diversity’ originates from the Latin term *diversus* meaning more than one of a different kind or variety. Diversity constitutes any kind of variety in humans including sexual orientation, disability, learning styles, nationality, educational level, age, marital status, aptitude, personality, ethnicity, language, socioeconomic class, race, culture and gender (Lemmer, Meier & Van Wyk 2006:14-15; Wasonga 2005:68).

Cultural diversity is defined by Nieto (2009:79) as the coexistence of people from different ethnic, racial and social class backgrounds. According to Campbell (2009:1), Santrock (2008:144) and Tiedt and Tiedt (2010:8), cultural diversity is rather the rule than the exception in many countries around the world. A good example of cultural diversity is the United States where the cultural composition of the population has changed over the years. The only population group to decrease in size between 1985 and 2003 were the whites whilst all other population groups, especially the Latinos, rose (Campbell 2009:23). Minority groups, which currently constitute about one-third of the American population, are expected to become a majority by around 2042 and will constitute 54% of the population by 2050 (Tiedt & Tiedt 2010:8). Tuckman and Monetti (2011:36) estimate that by 2020 one in five Americans will be identified as Hispanic.

As a result of the cultural shifts in the population of the United States, it is estimated that by the year 2025, 50% of all public school learners will be from backgrounds classified as ‘minority’ (Santrock 2008:144). Woolfolk (2010:167) maintains that this figure could even be higher. She says that by 2020 almost two-thirds of the school-age population in the United States will be from minority groups other than white. In New York alone, 48% of the learners in the public schools come from immigrant-headed households. The wave of immigration absorbed by the United States during the 1990s was the largest in seventy years. Today at least one out of every four people in the United States speak a language other than English at home (Ginsberg & Wlodkowski 2009:1,5).

The situation is no different in other countries around the world. In Western Europe schools and classrooms have also become increasingly diverse in terms of culture - the reason for this being the non-European immigration that started in the 1960s (Andriessen *et al*. 2006:827; Phalet, Andriessen & Lens 2004:59). Since 1994 classrooms in South Africa have also

become more culturally diverse. This growth has resulted in increased racial, cultural, ethnic, language and religious diversity in schools. Culturally pluralistic schools and classrooms are now replacing mono-cultural schools and classrooms (Kumar 2004:137; Maehr & Yamaguchi 2001:124).

The implications of these statistics for education and schooling are significant. The main inference is that there is now more extensive contact between people from various cultures. This has resulted in a growing pool of cultural resources existing in countries like the United States (Santrock 2001:259). However, this has also led to many problems - one of the main problems being a growing misunderstanding and resentment amongst the different cultural and ethnic groups (Sleeter & Grant 2007:3).

Other more pressing problems have started to emerge within the education system of countries like the United States. Education policymakers are now being faced with the challenge of how to deal with teaching and learning in a multi-ethnic environment (Andriessen *et al*. 2006:827). Teachers are having to cope with learners who differ in terms of their cultural norms, identities, achievement styles, needs, goals, interests and beliefs. This in turn will probably impact on the motivation to learn of such learners (Lemmer *et al*. 2006:2). In addition, styles of teaching and established classroom practices that worked for one culture may now not necessarily work for other cultures (Andriessen *et al*. 2006:827). An example of this is given by Snowman and McCown (2012:140) who state that learners who are brought up with American mainstream values accept the practice of working individually and competing with others for academic rewards. However, many Native American and Mexican American children have been taught to de-emphasise competition and individual accomplishment in favour of co-operation and group solidarity. There is a possibility then that the differing cultures will clash in a school environment.

As a result of the challenges being faced by the education fraternity, cultural diversity now has to be taken into account when designing tasks, supporting autonomy, recognising accomplishments, making evaluations and managing time in the classroom (Banks 2003:ix) and when motivating learners to learn. If cultural diversity is not considered, then a decent education cannot be offered to learners (Carignon, Pourdavood, Lonnie & Feza 2005:383). It is important that cultural diversity in the classroom should not be viewed as a burden or a problem, but rather as a challenge and a resource when trying to provide learners with

educational equity (Carignon *et al*. 2005:383; Rasool & Curtis 2000:66). The term culture, being an important element of diversity, will now be more fully explored.

3.2.2 Culture

Culture is a complex concept which is central to the understanding of multicultural education. A great variety of behaviours and values exist within and among cultures. Understanding cultural patterns and cultural differences will assist teachers in understanding learner behaviour, resolving conflicts in school and more pertinent to this study, motivating learners (Campbell 2009:71). In this section of the literature study the concept of culture and macro- and micro-cultures will be examined. This section will conclude with a discussion of Hofstede's method of analysing cultures (Hofstede *et al*. 2002:x).

3.2.2.1 The nature of culture

According to Campbell (2009:71) culture is a complex concept. Prior to the 1950s, anthropologists and sociologists typically defined culture in terms of patterns of specific behaviours or customs. This implied that within a culture there was a shared knowledge and belief system as well as shared habits and behaviours. Culture was also referred to as a historically transmitted pattern of meanings employed in symbols by means of which people communicate, perpetuate and develop their knowledge about and attitudes towards life. In short, culture was initially defined as the acquired knowledge that people used to interpret their experience and to generate social behaviour (Mushi 2004:181).

Since the 1950s culture has been defined in different ways. Hofstede *et al*. (2002:34) define culture as that which distinguishes one group of people from another. Culture can also be interpreted as an adaptation of a person to the conditions of life and when these conditions change, cultures are then put under pressure. The world of the child in each culture is filled with symbols, heroes and rituals that together embody and recreate culture. Behind these manifestations are the values of the culture. These values are taught from birth and manifest themselves in similar ways across social settings such as in the family, school and in the work-place. These cultural values can range from individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance to long-term orientation. Each dimension spans

a continuum from one extreme position to another and can be used to study the values of cultures (Hofstede *et al.* 2002:39-40).

Culture, according to McDevitt and Ormrod (2010:65), refers to the characteristic behaviours and beliefs of a long-standing social group. Culture provides a framework for how group members decide what is normal and appropriate. The effects of culture can be observed by comparing the customs of people in distinct groups or separate regions. Different cultural groups exhibit variations in meal practices, division of responsibility in families and in communication styles - an example being that in some cultures children are expected to take a turn in adults' conversations whilst in other cultures children are shooed to the sidelines of adults' discussions (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:65).

Kimmel and Volet (2011:41) define culture as a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by people as a member of society.

Snowman and McCown (2012:139) perceive culture to be a blueprint that guides the ways in which individuals, within a group, do important things - examples being how they communicate both verbally and nonverbally with others, how they handle time and space, how they express emotions, and how they approach work and play.

In this study, culture is defined as the accepted traditional customs, moral attributes, behaviour and belief systems, knowledge and attitudes as practiced by a particular cultural group (see 1.5.2). This definition shows some important elements of culture which will now be discussed.

Culture is made up of ideals, values and assumptions about life which in turn guides people's behaviour (Santrock 2001:258). According to Vinken, Soeters and Ester (2004:8) the core element of culture is values. Vinken *et al*. (2004:8) define values as the fundamental tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others and are held by individuals and collectivities. Culture is made by people and is transmitted from generation to generation by parents, teachers and community leaders. When cultural values are violated, people react emotionally as they believe that what happens in their culture is natural and correct and what happens in other cultures is unnatural and incorrect (Santrock 2001:258). Cultural customs are

also perceived as universally valid. People behave in ways that favour their cultural group. They feel proud of their cultural group and hostile towards other cultural groups (Santrock 2001:259). Culture is therefore a dynamic intellectual creativity shaped by different forces. It is not a static phenomenon. Cultural practices keep evolving to accommodate generation changes so that the needs of a wider society are met. Ultimately, culture has to evolve or else it will die (Mushi 2004:181,183).

Lemmer *et al*. (2006:15-16) and Hofstede *et al*. (2002:41) outline the following characteristics of culture. They state that:

- culture is a complex composite of significant and interrelated factors all of which have significance for the teaching and learning process,
- cultures are processes of social and human interactions,
- cultures embrace a body of knowledge,
- culture is a dynamic, creative and continuous process (and can be changed by internal and external factors),
- culture changes continuously,
- cultures have their own system of values, beliefs, norms and attitudes,
- cultures are shared and learned, and
- culture influences the way people think, feel and behave.

Culture can be compared to a tree or an iceberg (see Fig 3.1). One-third of the tree or the iceberg is visible whilst the rest is hidden and unknown. This is the same for culture. The highly visible explicit signs of any culture such as food, language, art and clothing are only a small part of such cultures. Most of a culture can be found ‘below the surface’ and is hidden from view. These invisible signs of a culture include implicit, unstated and even unconscious biases, attitudes, perceptions, communication styles, values and beliefs. Educators need to be aware of both these explicit and implicit cultural forms (Lemmer *et al*. 2006:17; Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:189,196) especially when trying to motivate learners.

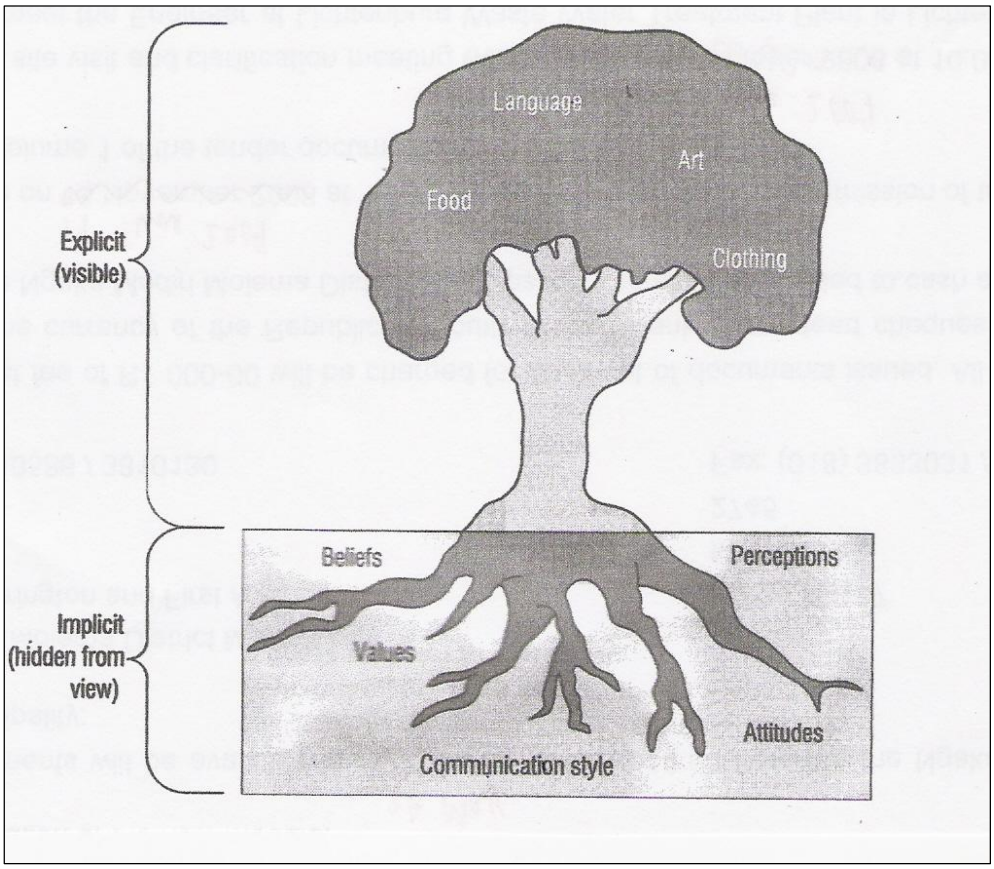


Figure 3.1: Implicit and explicit culture

(Source: Lemmer *et al*. 2006:16)

Culture was earlier defined as that which distinguishes one group of people from another. However, people live in a multicultural world where there is not just one dominant culture but many different cultures living under one overarching culture. This concept is known as macro- and micro-cultures and will be discussed next.

3.2.2.2 Macro- and micro-cultures

Due to increased cultural diversity in the world we live in, it is rare to find a stable independent culture. People from different cultures influence each other and modify each other's cultures. Individuals have multiple cultural identities by virtue of their nationality, religion, ethnicity, gender and other affiliations. These cultural identities are dynamic and change continually. A multi-culturalised person has many internalised cultures that in turn guide their thoughts and feelings (Salili & Hoosain 2007:4,5).

There is always a dominant culture within the individual - this is known as the national or the macro-culture (Salili & Hoosain 2007:4,5). A macro-culture is a culture shared by all. A

micro-culture, on the other hand, is a culture in which members share a belief in certain rules, roles, values and behaviours. Examples of micro-cultures are classrooms, offices, religious groups and sports groups. People are also able to vacillate between different micro-cultures (Lemmer *et al*. 2006:17). Many micro-cultures make up a macro-culture.

The concept of a macro- and a micro-culture is shown in Figure 3.2. In this figure the macro-culture is made up of several different micro-cultures (examples being a place where a person resides: Johannesburg, language spoken - English and age - sixteen years old). A huge challenge facing multicultural education in general, and more specifically multicultural schools, is mediating between these different micro-cultures and teaching skills and competencies to learners so that they are able to function in different settings across national and world macro-cultures (Banks & Banks 2010:11; Salili & Hoosain 2007:4,5).

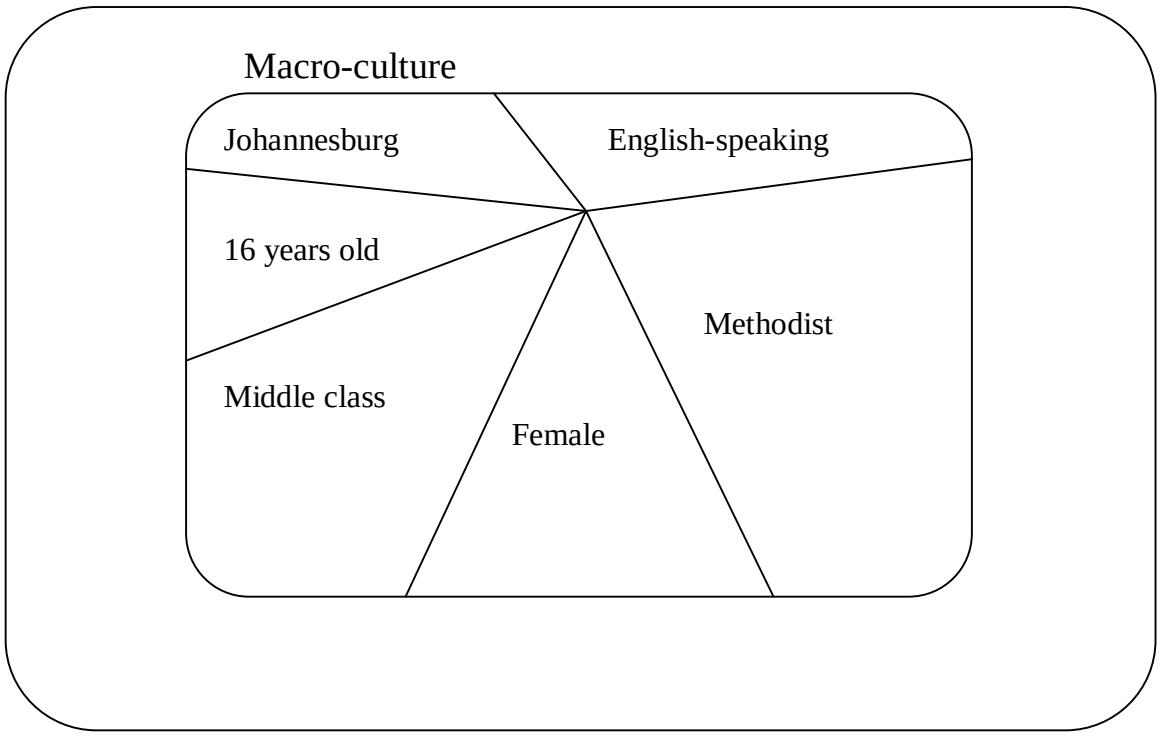


Figure 3.2: Micro- and macro-cultures

(Source: Lemmer *et al*. 2006:18)

To ensure that effective learning occurs within the classroom, teachers need to transmit and interpret the knowledge of the dominant culture (the macro-culture) and that of the different

micro-cultures (Mushi 2004:180). The classroom is a micro-culture where different cultures of learners (further micro-cultures) meet to form one complex and unique classroom culture. Each learner is a unique individual who brings to the classroom a distinct set of values, beliefs and experiences that influence attitudes, behaviours and perceptions. The classroom is also a setting in which cultural transmission takes place and in which learners become socialised. However, there may be cultural alienation and discontinuity when learners and educators from different cultures come together (Lemmer *et al*. 2006:19).

Another cultural mismatch can occur when the learner's home culture (an example of a micro-culture) and the culture of the school (an example of a macro-culture) create conflicting expectations for the learner's behaviour. Eggen and Kauchak (2010:97-98) state that the parents of Asian American learners have high expectations for their children and encourage academic work at home. In a study done on this subject, it was found that Chinese American parents were ten times more likely to provide school-related practice activities at home for their children than Caucasian American parents. In other research done, according to Eggen and Kauchak (2010:98), it was found that Vietnamese and Laotian refugee children in America achieved high scores at school despite only being in the country for less than four years. It was found that these children's families emphasised hard work, autonomy, perseverance and pride. There was a nightly ritual of homework where both parents and older siblings helped younger members of the family. In both the cases of the Asian American families and the families of the Vietnamese and Laotian refugees, the learners' home cultures (an example of a micro-culture) and the cultures of the schools (an example of a macro-culture) corresponded.

However, there are many times when the culture of the learner (an example of a micro-culture) and the school (an example of a macro-culture) do not meet. An example of this is given by Eggen and Kauchak (2010:98) where they explain resistance cultures. Resistance cultures are often minority groups who have experienced a long history of separatism and low status. Such groups have a culture with beliefs, values and behaviour that reject the values of the mainstream culture. To maintain their identity within their chosen group, members of resistance cultures reject attitudes and behaviours that can lead to school success such as doing homework, studying and participating in class. To become a high achiever is to 'become white', and learners who study because they want to succeed and become actively involved in school risk losing the respect and friendship of their peers. The result is often low

grades, classroom management and motivation problems, truancy and high dropout rates (Eggen & Kauchak 2010:98).

To avoid the development of cultural alienation and resistance cultures and to ensure that learning is effective within a multicutural classroom, the teacher has to infiltrate both the micro-cultural values of the different ethnic groups represented in the classroom and the macro-cultural values of the wider society. Eggen and Kauchak (2010:98) suggest that teachers should encourage members of cultural minorities to adapt to the dominant culture without losing their cultural identities - a process called 'accommodation without assimilation'. Teachers need to help learners understand the 'culture of schooling' - the norms, the procedures and the expectations for success whilst still honouring the value and integrity of the learners' home culture.

Even though teachers need to help learners understand the 'culture of schooling', teachers also need to understand the culture of the learners in their classes. This point is emphasised by Wood (2005:37) who states that teachers in the United States need to consider the cultural traits of the many different micro-cultures which are found in their classrooms. Micro-cultures such as Hispanics and Native Americans prefer co-operation rather than competition. Unfortunately, mainstream youth in the United States are taught early at school to compete. Given this cultural difference, teachers who continue to emphasise competition in their classes may not be operating in the best interest of their diversified classrooms. As a consequence, learning and motivation may be impaired.

The discussion above highlights the different definitions of culture and the concepts of micro- and macro-culture. In order to analyse the differences and convergences in culture, Hofstede *et al*. (2002:x) proposed a model consisting of five cultural dimensions which will be discussed next. The reason for including Hofstede's model is that it shows some of the differences in cultures which would need to be taken into account by a teacher when trying to motivate learners from different cultures.

3.2.2.3 Analysing cultures according to Hofstede's model

One way of analysing differences and convergences in culture was developed by Geert Hofstede. From 1967 to 1973 Hofstede conducted a groundbreaking study of correlations and

connections between cultural backgrounds and work-related value patterns found among employees of IBM from around the world. Hofstede scored the results from fifty three cultures and placed them on a continuum. He identified five cultural dimensions (see 3.2.2.3.1-3.2.2.3.5) namely individualism-collectivism, power distance, masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation (McLean 2007:15-16).

Hofstede's analyses of the world's cultures focuses on how rather than what people think, feel and act. The cultural dimensions Hofstede suggests can also be applied to the education field. Since the development of Hofstede's dimensions, other theories have been developed about the way cultures can be compared. An example is Bhawuk's 1998 study which contrasted cultures on only the identity (individualism-collectivism) dimension (Hofstede *et al*. 2002:x). The relevance of these cultural dimensions to the motivation of FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom will be investigated further in Chapter Five.

3.2.2.3.1 Individualism-collectivism

McLean (2007:16) and Vinken *et al*. (2004:9) state that individualism stands for a society in which the ties between individuals are loose and everyone is expected to look after himself and only his immediate family. Many families from the United States and Western Europe raise their children in an individualistic manner (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:65).

On the other hand collectivism stands for a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong cohesive in-groups. These groups offer protection in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. Many families in Asia, Africa and South America raise their children in a collectivistic manner (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:65).

It is possible to relate individualism-collectivism to the classroom. According to McDevitt and Ormrod (2010:65) individualistic cultures encourage independence, self-assertion, competition and expression of personal needs. Learners from these types of societies would be more willing to work on their own rather than in groups. Woolfolk (2010:188) gives an example of this when discussing Navajo children. These children are socialised to be more solitary. They will not work together in one group nor will they participate willingly in co-operative learning.

Alternatively, the core ideas in collectivistic cultures are that people should be obedient to and dependent on authority figures; honourable and co-operative; and invest in the accomplishments of the group rather than personal achievements (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:65). Learners from collectivist countries hesitate to speak up when in large groups (such as in a classroom) especially with strangers they perceive as members of the out-group. However, hesitation decreases when in smaller groups (McLean 2007:16; Vinken *et al*. 2004:9).

It is also possible to relate individualism-collectivism to the motivation to learn. Learners from individualistic cultures will possibly not be as motivated to learn if they are placed in groups rather than being allowed to work on their own. Conversely, if learners from collectivistic cultures are encouraged to work on their own rather than in groups, they would possibly be just as unmotivated to learn.

3.2.2.3.2 Power distance

According to Hofstede *et al*. (2002:36) and McLean (2007:17) power distance refers to the degree of inequality between people that is assumed to be normal, or the level of tolerance towards inequalities of power and wealth within a society. If people are equal, their power distance is small whereas if they are not equal, the power distance is large. The power distance is smaller in North and Eastern European cultures than in Eastern and Southern Europe.

It is possible to relate power distance to an educational setting. In high power distance cultures the classroom is very teacher-centred with strict orders. In low power distance cultures the educational process is learner-centred and mutual communication between the teacher and learner is encouraged (McLean 2007:17).

It is also possible to relate power distance to the motivation to learn. In high power distance cultures where the teachers control the classes and there is very little free thought, there is a possibility that learners will not be motivated to learn. However, in classrooms with a low power distance the learner is probably more inclined to be motivated to learn because the educational process is learner-centred.

3.2.2.3.3 Masculinity-femininity

Masculinity and femininity refer to the equal or unequal role distribution between genders. Masculinity stands for a society in which social gender roles are clearly distinct - men are supposed to be assertive, tough, achievement-oriented and focused on material success. Women, on the other hand, are supposed to be more modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life. A society which is described as feminine has social gender roles which overlap - both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life. Cultures in the Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries are feminine whereas those of Austria and Germany are masculine (Hofstede *et al*. 2002:37; Vinken *et al*. 2004:9).

In order to relate masculinity-femininity to an educational setting, it is necessary to look at an example of a masculine society such as Japan. In this country the best learner is the norm, failing school is unacceptable, excellence in learner achievement is rewarded and teacher excellence is appreciated. In feminine societies the average learner is the norm, failing school is a minor incident, friendliness of teachers is valued and social skills and learners' social adaptation is emphasised (McLean 2007:17).

It is also possible to relate masculinity-femininity to the motivation to learn. In masculine societies learners will most probably be very motivated to learn as there are high expectations of them achieving and failing school is unacceptable. The case could be different in feminine societies. If an average learner is seen to be the norm, there is a possibility that learners will not be as motivated to learn as there is not as much drive to reach goals or to achieve.

3.2.2.3.4 Uncertainty avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as the extent to which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations (Vinken *et al*. 2004:9). Learners in cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance (such as Japan) prefer highly structured classroom practices and a teacher who is an expert. These learners also never intellectually disagree with the teacher. Learners from a culture with weak uncertainty avoidance (such as the United States) are more susceptible to flexible and accommodating approaches. These learners are encouraged to intellectually disagree with teachers and honest responses are encouraged (McLean 2007:16).

In relating uncertainty avoidance to the motivation to learn, learners with strong uncertainty avoidance would possibly be more unmotivated to learn than learners with weak uncertainty avoidance. If learners feel they have more power over their destiny (as they would with weak uncertainty avoidance) they would probably be more motivated to learn.

3.2.2.3.5 Long-term orientation

This dimension refers to fostering virtues oriented towards future rewards such as perseverance and thrift. The opposite pole, short-term orientation, stands for the fostering of virtues which are related to the past and present like respect for tradition and fulfilling social obligations. Countries like China and Japan are long-term oriented whereas European, African and American countries are short-term oriented (Hofstede *et al*. 2002:39; Vinken *et al*. 2004:9).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Dimension	One Extreme	Other Extreme
Identity	Collectivism	Individualism
Hierarchy	Large power distance	Small power distance
Gender	Femininity	Masculinity
Truth	Strong uncertainty avoidance	Weak uncertainty avoidance
Virtue	Long-term orientation	Short-term orientation

(Source: Hofstede *et al*. 2002:40)

In this section of the literature study the term 'diversity' was defined and the nature of diversity was explored. It was concluded that the world we live in is an extremely diverse one and is becoming even more diverse in terms of culture. The term 'culture' was then defined and the various characteristics of culture were explored. One interesting characteristic of culture was examined in more depth, namely the implicit and explicit signs of culture. In this respect the concept of a culture was compared to an iceberg or a tree as most of the signs of a

culture are in fact hidden from view. This was followed by an examination of the concepts of micro- and macro-cultures. This section concluded with a discussion of Hofstede's model of analysing cultures. The five cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede were examined and applied to the situation found in multicultural classrooms. One particular dimension, individualism-collectivism will be examined again in more depth in 3.4.2.1. All the concepts discussed in this section have a bearing on the motivation of FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom. Multicultural education will therefore be the topic for the next section.

3.3 MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

In this section of the literature study the development and nature of multicultural education will be examined.

3.3.1 The development of multicultural education

Since the beginning of the twentieth century immigrants into many developed countries were expected to assimilate - that is, they were expected to enter the cultural melting pot and adopt the behaviours, values, beliefs and lifestyle of the dominant culture (Bennett 2011:55; Domnwachukwu 2010:62). Melting pot is defined by Campbell (2009:54) as a metaphor for the absorption and assimilation of immigrants into the mainstream of society so that ethnic differences melt away and a new culture is created. In the case of the United States, education and public schools were seen to be the 'fire' under this melting pot (Snowman & McCown 2012:141; Woolfolk 2010:167) and as such, two goals characterised the American educational institutions of the time, namely to rid ethnic groups of their unique traits and to enforce them to acquire Anglo-Saxon values and behaviours (Domnwachukwu 2010:62).

The melting point theory, according to Campbell (2009:55), was not successful and caused several problems. One such problem was that learners from minority-status cultures were often negatively affected. Such groups suffered from cultural alienation, lowered self-esteem and lowered self-concept (Campbell 2009:55). Due to these problems, immigrant groups became increasingly reluctant to forsake their cultural traditions and values, and many of them decided that they did not want to assimilate completely into mainstream society. They

rather wanted to maintain their culture and identity whilst still being respected (Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:187-188). This was especially true of the main migrant groups into the United States namely the Asians and Hispanics. Such groups were often reluctant to give up their ethnic customs and traditions in favour of middle-class European American habits. The reason for this was that these habits might contradict beliefs that were taught to them in their early life (Manning & Baruth 2004:28,31).

The notion of America as a great melting pot was generally accepted up until the social unrest of the late 1960s and early 1970s (Snowman & McCown 2012:141). With the resultant growth of the civil rights movement in the United States, the country was propelled further away from the philosophy of an assimilationist melting pot and closer to the philosophy of cultural diversity or cultural pluralism - the preferred term (Rasool & Curtis 2000:4; Snowman & McCown 2012:141). Cultural pluralism assumes that every society should maintain different cultures, every culture in a society should be respected, members of diverse cultural groups should have equal opportunities for success and that individuals have the right to participate in a society without giving up their cultural identities (Bennett 2011:56; Domnwachukwu 2010:64; Snowman & McCown 2012:141). As a result of this shift, schools in the United States became desegregated and minority groups began to demand that American schools better reflect the diversity of the learner body (Ginsberg & Wlodkowski 2009:20; Langer de Ramirez 2006:10; Rasool & Curtis 2000:4). The metaphor of the melting pot was therefore replaced in the United States by other metaphors which created an image more appropriate to describing the diversity of America namely rainbow, quilt, mosaic or tossed salad (Tiedt & Tiedt 2010:6).

The impact of the civil rights movement in the United States was also felt by governments in Canada, Britain and Australia (Banks 2009:13). Governments in many of these developed countries started coming under increasing pressure to recognise the existence of immigrant groups and to provide equal educational opportunities for all. Attention therefore became focused on the development and implementation of multicultural education (Bennett 2011:3; Lemmer *et al*. 2006:4; Sleeter & Grant 2007:150) which is the topic in the next section of the literature study.

3.3.2 The nature of multicultural education

In this study multicultural education is defined as an educational ideology which teaches learners from diverse ethnic, cultural and racial backgrounds how to live and work together harmoniously (see 1.5.4). Some of the key elements of this definition are that learners will learn respect for others, will appreciate cultural diversity and will overcome ethnocentric and prejudicial attitudes. This should result in a better society where there is greater equality and freedom for all people and the democratic principles of social justice will ultimately be promoted (Rasool & Curtis 2000:11-12).

Another key element of this definition is that multicultural education is based on a commitment to pluralism (Campbell 2009:42; Rasool & Curtis 2000:12). The main purpose of multicultural education is to prepare learners to be active participants in a diverse and democratic society. This will be accomplished through social change involving the transformation of the self, schools and schooling and society (Sleeter & Grant 2007:149). Multicultural education therefore operates in a society that values cultural diversity. The idea of the melting pot theory is rejected and a 'salad bowl' of many contributions is encouraged (Woolfolk *et al*. 2008:188-189).

Multicultural education also aims to provide learners with experiences and materials that help them develop positive attitudes and behaviours towards individuals from different groups regardless of their culture, ethnicity, social class, sexual orientation, religion, special needs and gender. Multicultural education further aims to instil in these learners, during their crucial developmental years, a sense of responsibility as well as a commitment to work towards the democratic ideals of justice, equality and democracy. The result of this would be learners who would be capable of functioning in a culturally diverse society (Banks 2003:202; Manning & Baruth 2004:4,6). This point is critical as learners often come to school with stereotypes, misconceptions and negative attitudes about other ethnic groups. Their racial attitudes and behaviours tend to become more negative and harder to change as they grow older (Banks 2003:202). It is therefore necessary that learners develop respect for all people from all different cultural backgrounds (Santrock 2008:144). Therefore, for multicultural education to achieve its goals, culture cannot be ignored (Lemmer *et al*. 2006:15).

The world is an increasingly cultural diverse place and cultural diversity is rather the rule than the exception in today's modern societies (see 3.2.2.1). It is therefore imperative that multicultural education be encouraged as some countries in the world have already started exhibiting a deepening ethnic texture which is causing interracial tension and conflict to emerge (Banks 2003:ix) - evidence of this has been seen in countries like Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia. Increasing cultural diversity is also placing a strain on education in many countries around the world (see 3.2.1). Teachers are becoming more and more aware of the problems of educating learners who diverge from a presumed cultural norm. As a result, schools have been unable to ignore the trend towards cultural diversity and the move away from mono-cultural classrooms to multicultural classrooms (Maehr & Yamaguchi 2001:124). This has resulted in teachers having to develop a professional sensitivity and awareness of the differences in the types of motivation that exist amongst those learners who come from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds (Salazar & Russell 2005:118).

In this section the term multicultural education was defined and the development of education from a mono-cultural to a multicultural institution was explored. The main aims of multicultural education were discussed. It was concluded that multicultural education is an important element of the diverse world we live in. The all-important thread throughout this discussion was the term culture. The many cultures found in the world today (leading to increased cultural diversity) necessitate the need for multicultural education. However, Meece & Daniels (2008:163) state that one of the major challenges facing teachers in the multicultural classroom is how to motivate learners, who come from diverse cultural backgrounds, to learn and succeed academically. In the next section the relationship between culture and the motivation to learn will be further explored.

3.4 THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURE ON MOTIVATION

In this section of the study the link between culture and motivation will be examined. This will be followed by a discussion on the different motivational practices which are found in various cultures.

3.4.1 The link between culture and motivation

Learners differ in terms of language, culture, economic privilege, personality, knowledge and experience. They also differ in terms of their needs, goals, interests and beliefs (Woolfolk 2007:403). These culturally diverse learners and the classrooms they occupy frequently challenge the resources of educators. Many learners, according to Henson (2004:324), come from cultures which do not reflect Western traditions. What once worked for teachers when they motivated their learners to learn in a mono-cultural classroom may now be clearly inadequate in a multicultural classroom.

A major challenge for teachers in a multicultural classroom is to understand how the motivation to learn differs amongst the different cultures found in the classroom. Research has shown that different nationalities differ in their type of motivational beliefs. This disparity could result from differing family cultural background values, socio-cultural adaptations, socio-economic status, perceptions and responses to schooling (Rueda & Chen 2005:209,223). It therefore follows that an essential backdrop to teaching is the cultural understanding of the development of motivation (Manning & Baruth 2004:270-271; Salazar & Russell 2005:122; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:147).

Teachers also need to understand the complex relationship between motivation and cultural diversity and the need to avoid perceiving motivation through the eyes of one particular culture. Middle-class European Americans might be motivated, for example, by competition or by the desire to work independently. However, learners from culturally different backgrounds may not hold these same values and might appear unmotivated when they do not want to stand out amongst their peers or to excel at the expense of others (Manning & Baruth 2004:270-271).

According to Ginsberg and Wlodkowski (2009:5) it is also inaccurate, inappropriate and culturally insensitive to simply apply the intrinsic-extrinsic motivation paradigm to ethnic minority groups without appropriate consideration for the role that culture plays in the development of the motivation to learn. Generic motivational goals such as success or achievement and personal traits such as ambition or initiative may not only have different meanings to different people, but may also be undesirable in certain cultures. In short, motivation is not a universal trait and is not free of cultural influence (Salazar & Russell

2005:119). Motivation, a key component of successful education and learning, is therefore culturally fused and embedded (Ellsworth 2009: vii) and needs to be investigated to ensure optimal learning.

The relationship between culture and motivation can also be extended to include multicultural education and learning (Salili & Hoosain 2007:7). Culture plays an important role in the growth of the individual's orientation to learning. A learner's cultural background can influence many educationally relevant variables such as the relevance they attach to learning and their motivation to learn (Boekarts & Hijzen 2007:116). Learning experiences need to be created through which learners can maintain the integrity of their own cultural identity as well as succeeding in their educational goals (Salili & Hoosain 2007:7). Teachers, by adjusting their teaching methods to incorporate the varied cultural traits of their learners, can make content more relevant thus encouraging learners to capitalise on their cultural knowledge (Wood 2005:37-38). This will positively affect the motivation to learn and the academic achievements of these learners. Unfortunately, this does not happen often enough in the classroom (Woolfolk 2010:408). In the next section the different motivational practices of learners from different cultures will be discussed.

3.4.2 Some of the different motivational practices carried out by learners from diverse cultures

In this section of the study the different motivational practices used by learners of different cultures will be discussed. The reason for discussing this is to show that motivation can be influenced by a learner's culture. When researching this section, very little material was found on the motivational practices of learners in Africa or South Africa. The overwhelming literature was on learners from the United States and Australia (Western culture) and learners from China (Eastern culture). However, this literature will still be discussed as it has a bearing on the research topic.

3.4.2.1 Individualism-collectivism

According to Boekarts (2003:16) research has shown that there are divergent motivational practices between Western and Eastern cultures. Kumar and Maehr (2007:49) and Santrock (2008:145) define Western cultures (such as those from the United States, Canada, England

and the Netherlands) as individualistic (see 3.2.2.3.1). This term refers to a set of values that gives priority to personal goals rather than group goals. Individualist values are emphasised such as feeling good, personal distinction and independence. The focus is on the self who is seen to be egocentric, independent, autonomous and unique. As a consequence, learners in most Western cultures are usually viewed as autonomous persons with distinctive characteristics that determine how they feel, think and do in a school context. Examples of these characteristics are attribution to ability, self-esteem, self-efficacy, optimism, internal locus of control and intrinsic or extrinsic aspects. In order to boost learners' self-esteem, self-efficacy, school achievement, well-being and self-confidence, parents and teachers encourage learners to be optimistic. They focus on their strengths and encourage them to generally believe in themselves thereby discouraging self-criticism. By focusing on their strengths, learners are motivated to invest effort in what they are doing (which hopefully will translate into a motivation to learn) (Boekarts 2003:16; Brophy 2010:300; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:456).

On the other hand, learners from Eastern or Asian cultures (such as China, Korea and Japan) are not viewed as individualistic autonomous persons with distinctive characteristics (Brophy 2010:300). Kumar and Maehr (2007:46,49), Santrock (2008:145) and Watkins (2000:167) define these Eastern cultures as collectivist because they have a set of values that support the group (see 3.2.2.3.1). The self is seen to be socio-centric, connected and interdependent. Personal goals are subordinated to preserve group integrity. Priority is given to the wants of the group rather than the self and group harmony is valued. Another example of a collectivist or Eastern society is the Arab society. Arab people tend to stress relationships and the obligations and responsibilities of the individual towards his community (Suliman & McInerney 2006:248; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:456).

Eastern cultures also tend to be oriented toward harmonising themselves with others rather than towards achieving self-actualisation by accomplishing a personal agenda (Brophy 2010:300). The result of this is that the motivation to learn will only be encouraged when the learner is working or competing in groups rather than working on their own.

The United States, while being earlier labelled as individualistic, also has many collectivist subcultures - or micro-cultures (see 3.2.2.2) - such as the Chinese American, the Mexican American, the native American and the Hispanic people (Santrock 2008:145). Shih (2004)

outlines some of the problems that do occur because of the clash between these macro- and micro-cultures. According to Shih (2004:68) Native American children are brought up with strong norms of co-operation and sharing (a collectivist culture). However, this is at odds with the predominant competitive goals stressed in mainstream American classrooms (individualist cultures). When relating this to the motivation to learn, a problem could occur when a teacher tries to motivate learners who come from an individualistic macro-culture but have collectivistic micro-cultures. The teacher would be faced with a dilemma - should she encourage competition (as a way of motivating learners) on an individual basis or should she use a group setting?

Suliman and McInerney (2006:248) outline the differences between individualist-oriented Western industrialised cultures and collectivist non-Western traditional cultures (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Differences between individualistic and collectivist cultures

Individualist-oriented Western industrialised cultures	*Collectivist non-Western traditional cultures*
Individuals think of themselves as autonomous entities	Individuals think of themselves as belonging to a collective
Behaviour reflects personal belief	Behaviour is dictated by in-group norms and expectations
Stress independence	Emphasise interdependence and values such as security, obedience, duty
Emphasise pleasure	Individual goals reflect in-group goals
Are competitive	Focus is on group goals such as affiliation and social concern
Seek power and control over others	Seek recognition and praise from the family and the community
Foster individualistic goals such as competition and power and task/effort	

(Source: Suliman & McInerney 2006:248,250).

With regard to education and learning, learners from Eastern cultures are expected to adjust to the context of school, improve their academic and social skills and avoid embarrassing

their family. These learners are encouraged by their parents, teachers and peers to invest effort, to be self-critical and to pay attention to weaknesses and imperfections. In the classroom the focus is on constructive criticism and investing effort and learning in partnership. It is hoped that the result of this would be an improvement in the learner's self-discipline and school achievement (Boekarts 2003:17) which would probably translate into a higher motivation to learn.

The clashes that occur between Eastern and Western cultures and the impact they have on the motivation to learn of such learners is further explored in research conducted on Singaporean learners attending university in Australia. These learners are from an Eastern culture but are attending universities which are oriented towards a Western culture (Zusho & Pintrich 2003:42-43). When these learners attend their home university in Singapore their affectivities match the cultural context. In Singapore there is a heavy emphasis on testing. As a consequence, learners have developed a strategy called cue-seeking whereby they seek information related to upcoming exams and assignments from peers and teachers. This is considered acceptable by teachers in Singapore. However, when these same learners studied in Australia they found that cue-seeking was ineffective. Professors in Australia are accustomed to encouraging independent thought and self-direction and therefore frown on strategies like cue-seeking. As a consequence, these learners started feeling frustrated and anxious and their motivation to learn suffered.

What is shown in this example is that the cultural process will shape the type of motivation that will appear in the learner. Singaporean learners will feel motivated and will do well in their home culture where their mentality and strategies represent a good 'fit' to the testing and cultural context. However, the opposite happens when these same learners study in Australia. Their motivation to learn rapidly diminishes due to a clash of cultures (Zusho & Pintrich 2003:42-43). One can therefore conclude that in this case culture influenced the level of motivation to learn amongst such learners.

Biggs (2001) also examines the achievement and motivation of the Asian learner. Biggs (2001:298) states that Westerners teaching in Asian countries encounter a highly authoritarian climate where the main thrust is to prepare for external exams. Such conditions in the West are associated with low level learning strategies and poor learning outcomes. However, research has shown that learners from Asian countries outperform their Western

counterparts particularly in Maths and Science. Biggs (2001:298) explains this conundrum. He states that children from Asian cultures internalise characteristics that predispose them to accept formal teaching. This probably gives them a sense of diligence and receptiveness which does not fit comfortably into the more familiar American concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Watkins (2000:167) also adds that Asian learners use highly adaptive learning strategies which allow them to achieve better results in high-level academic tasks.

3.4.2.2 Attributions

Attribution studies in the context of Asian learners have also shown that Asian learners tend to attribute their academic performance and motivation to internal and controllable factors (see 2.7.3.2). Research has shown that Chinese learners attribute both failure and success to internal rather than external causes (Rueda & Chen 2005:214). The most important internal causes are effort, study skills, interest and ability (with the effort attribution predominating). An example of attributes is given by Ho, Hau and Salili (2007:72) who state that Chinese mothers cited a lack of effort as the main cause of their children's failure in Maths. On the other hand, Western learners often attribute success (and therefore motivation) to both effort and ability and not just effort alone - as in the case of Eastern learners (Watkins 2000:166).

The attributions for academic tasks and activities thus differ from culture to culture (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:497). According to Kumar and Maehr (2007:47,50) Eastern cultures place a high value on effort as this value is emphasised in the teachings of Confucius and Hindu. Working hard and doing one's best in an Eastern culture is linked to maintaining social harmony and carrying out one's social responsibility. On the other hand, in Western cultures the ethic of hard work for the purpose of personal success through one's own initiative is often emphasised (Kumar & Maehr 2007:47,50).

Research conducted on the attributes of Russian adolescents showed that these adolescents are more likely to attribute high achievement to ability rather than to effort. Russian learners also spend more time on schoolwork than their American and British counterparts. Mastery orientation is maintained amongst Russian learners even though they have little opportunity for autonomy or choice making. From an early age Russian children are socialised to value education and become strongly motivated to acquire an education. Teachers are seen as guides and supporters, and classmates as collaborators - therefore there is less need for

Russian teachers to work on the value aspects of motivation as compared to British and American teachers (Brophy 2010:299).

3.4.2.3 Values attached to achievement and education

Salili and Hoosain (2007:7) maintain that learners from different cultural backgrounds attach different values and meanings to achievement and approach their achievement tasks in different ways. In one such study conducted on Chinese and British high school learners, it was found that Chinese learners rate academic achievement as important whereas British learners considered a career as more important (Salili & Hoosain 2007:7).

According to Zusho and Pintrich (2003:48) the United States (an industrialised country) is an achievement-oriented culture with more achievement-oriented adolescents than any other country. Many American parents socialise their children to become achievement-oriented and independent. Anglo-American adolescents are also more achievement-oriented and less co-operative than Mexican and Mexican American adolescents. In addition, Anglo-American youth are more individualistic whilst Mexican youth are more collectivist and family-centred. However, adolescents from Japan, China and Asian American adolescents are more achievement-oriented than Anglo-American adolescents (Zusho & Pintrich 2003:48). In research done in Kenya (a non-industrialised country) a different picture emerged. It was found that Kenyan parents place a higher value on obedience and responsibility rather than on achievement (Santrock 2001:260-261). It could therefore be concluded that Kenyan learners may not be as motivated to learn as their Asian counterparts.

There are also differences in the value different cultures attach to education. It has been argued convincingly that learners from different cultures have different ways of motivating themselves for achievement. These learners are exposed to different child rearing practices, different teaching methods and to different motivational practices found in the family and at school. These different exposures lead to different values being attached to academic goals and to different expectancies and conceptualisations of achievement and attributions (Boekarts 2003:16). The motivation to learn of such learners will therefore be affected.

According to Kumar and Maehr (2007:53) it was found in much of the research done on Asian and American children that most Asian learners appear to see school as central to their

lives whereas American learners do not. More than 80% of families in Japan and Taiwan set aside a quiet space for their children to study. More Asian than American parents were also found to help their children with their homework. Kumar and Maehr (2007:53) concluded that American parents were not found to place a great emphasis on academic achievement or hold as high academic standards of excellence as Asian parents. It would therefore follow that Asian learners could be more motivated to learn than their American counterparts due to the heavy emphasis being placed on schooling.

Adolescents from many other different ethnic and cultural groups also place high value on getting a good education. Different cultural groups seem to encourage different kinds of values related to school learning (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:496). In Indian families, according to Kumar and Maehr (2007:54), formal education is viewed as a gateway to power, prestige and status. Adolescents in India are under tremendous pressure to achieve high grades in order to gain admission to prestigious Indian colleges and thereby bring pride to their families (Sulkowski & Deakin 2009:159). The focus of parents and other elders is to ensure the child spends as many hours as possible studying, attending coaching classes and cramming for exams. The motivational goals promoting achievement behaviour in these cases are extrinsic, utilitarian and social (see 2.6.1.2). These goals are directed towards achieving upward mobility, recognising parental sacrifices, fulfilling family obligations of achieving success and making the family proud (particularly in social comparisons with other families). It is important in these cultures for learners to work hard and persist in academic studies even if these studies are not intrinsically enjoyable (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:496). However, learners from European American backgrounds are less likely to be diligent when classroom topics have little intrinsic appeal. Such learners only find value in academic subject matter that arouses their curiosity and in assignments that require creativity (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:496). Such a cultural difference would have to be taken into account when deciding how best to motivate such learners to learn.

3.4.2.4 Goals

Goal theory, according to Rueda and Chen (2005:213), has made significant contributions in explaining the relationship between learners' motivation and their consequent school achievement (see 2.6.1). Learners' goal setting can be influenced by many elements such as

personal and family values as well as cultural values. The link between goals and the motivation to learn will be discussed next.

In Western cultures, according to Boekarts (2003:26), teachers and parents often complain that learners do not diligently pursue academic goals (whereas in Eastern cultures learners do pursue academic goals). When learners do not pursue academic goals, conflicts of interest and frustration start to grow in both the learners and the teachers. In Western cultures it is no longer expected that learners spend their days studying to the exclusion of other personal goals. Learners in Western countries are part of the consumer society. They follow their own interests and determine for themselves how they will resolve conflicts between goals. Parents and teachers grant them freedom of action leading to academic goals often being put on hold. Once academic goals are not being pursued, questions need to be asked whether such learners are motivated to learn.

However, in Asian cultures the situation is very different and learners are not allowed as much freedom of action as their Western counterparts. Their world is well-structured and their academic goals are protected (Boekarts 2003:26). Asian American learners have been found to set higher goals for themselves and evaluate their performance against stricter criteria than other learners. These higher goals motivate the learners to devote more effort and time to reach family expectations (Rueda & Chen 2005:213).

Further fundamental differences in the goal-setting and goal-striving processes of Eastern and Western cultures are explored by Boekarts (2003). According to Boekarts (2003:14,19) evidence suggests that the effort learners are prepared to invest (goal-setting) and actually invest (goal-striving) in curricular activities and extra-curricular tasks is culture-dependent. Researchers agree that learners from different cultures hold different views on what constitutes optimal learning settings, and this conception has a strong impact on the effort they are prepared to invest and their motivation to learn. Results indicate that higher quality learning strategies are associated with higher learner self-esteem across a number of very different cultures (which should translate into a greater motivation to learn). However, these higher quality learning strategies are not always reflected in higher academic grades in both Western and non-Western samples (Boekarts 2003:14,19).

In research done in Japan (an example of an Eastern culture) it was found that the environment in Japanese homes encourages Japanese learners to adopt a mastery orientation. Co-operative reward structures and group instruction are used in Japanese classrooms and Japanese teachers also encourage effort and perseverance. On the other hand, American (an example of a Western culture) children favour competitive or individual pursuits. Researchers therefore concluded that the mastery-oriented nature of Asian learners could explain their academic accomplishments (Zusho & Pintrich 2003:49) and their motivation to learn.

According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002:400) mastery, performance and social goals were assessed among three groups of Australian high school learners, namely Anglo Australian, Aboriginal Australian and immigrant-background Australian. Results showed that all three groups were similar in their goal beliefs in that greater emphasis was placed on satisfying mastery needs. However, Aboriginal Australian learners were less likely to believe that their success depended on satisfying mastery and performance-goal needs. The Aboriginal group was more socially oriented and less individually oriented. These particular learners came from families that emphasised traditional values such as affiliation and social concern (Pintrich & Schunk 2002:400). When trying to encourage a motivation to learn in such learners, teachers would have to take the cultural values of the learners into account.

3.4.2.5 Family and family values

The diversity of learners and their cultural backgrounds with regard to how they value family and family ties can have an impact on how and what motivates such learners. When examining the literature no information was found on the value placed on family and family values by learners living in Africa. Most of the literature which was examined covered Hispanic children in the United States and this will form the focus of the discussion in this section of the literature study.

Salazar and Russell (2005:120-121) and Tuckman and Monetti (2011:36) found that Hispanic children are more oriented towards their family and exhibit strong group loyalty. These children tend to value family connectedness and relationships over personal achievement and accomplishments (a value known as *familismo*). The enduring and powerful value of *familismo* is especially found in those Hispanic families of Mexican descent living in the rural areas along the US-Mexico border. Examples of *familismo* include social events and

weekend visits to extended family members as attending to family needs is vitally important in Hispanic culture.

The implications of *familismo* are that Hispanic learners often prefer co-operative classroom activities rather than individual activities. If put into situations where there is a high level of individual competition, their motivation to learn could be negatively affected along with their marks. Further implications of *familismo* are that Hispanic learners will often attend to the needs of a sick family member before attending class. Such a micro-culture (see 3.2.2.2) may then be in conflict with the macro-culture of the school (Salazar & Russell 2005:120-123; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:36). Hispanic learners may then feel that their culture is not being respected and could feel dispirited. This could negatively affect their work and their motivation to learn.

Other key cultural values within the Hispanic community are *simpatia* which refers to a greater value being placed on being in harmony with others rather than aggressively expressing issues and problems; *respeto* which refers to paying homage and respect to people in authority (such as teachers); *personalismo* which refers to the value placed on interpersonal relationships and *gregarismo* which refers to the good of the family and the community (Salazar & Russell 2005:121; Tuckman & Monetti 2011:36-37; Woolfolk 2010:187). The implications of such values are that the Hispanic culture of the learners and the prevailing school cultures may be in conflict. If these learners emphasise their own cultural values over the ideals of the school (again an example of a micro- and macro-culture in conflict), the conflict that may ensue may cause decreasing motivation to learn in these learners. However, by respecting and being aware of the culture of these learners, teachers can motivate such learners to achieve their academic potential. In the case of the Hispanic learners, teachers could achieve an increased motivation to learn by not confronting these learners as it goes against the value of *simpatia*. Teachers could mindfully use the degree of authority such learners afford to teachers (the value of *respeto*) and make such learners more comfortable by sharing information about themselves with their learners (the value of *personalismo*) (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:36-37). This could all add up to the teacher being able to encourage such learners to become motivated to learn.

Elbers (2010:280) summarises the above discussion in his description of the Discrepancy Theory. He states that there can be differences between the socialisation practices in cultural

groups and the norms of school. Schools (as macro-cultures) are institutions with rules and practices for which some learners from certain cultures (a micro-culture) may be ill-prepared. What learners have learnt at home in terms of language, understandings, styles and habits may well differ from what is expected in the school. These differences could result in a discrepancy occurring between the home culture of the learners and the culture of the school. This could give rise to misunderstandings and problems for these learners when adapting to the educational system. These learners may fail to respond to the demands of school, may achieve 'below par' results and could become poorly motivated (Elbers 2010:280).

In this section of the chapter the various motivational practices of learners from different cultures were identified. The first practice to be examined was that belonging to learners from individualist (Western cultures) and collectivist societies (Eastern cultures). The key element in this practice was that those learners from Western cultures prefer working alone whilst pursuing personal goals, whereas those from Eastern cultures prefer group work and thus give priority to group goals. The second practice to be examined was that of attributions. Eastern cultures primarily attribute achievement to effort whereas Western cultures mainly attribute success to ability, luck and effort.

The third practice to be examined was the value attached by different cultures to achievement and education. It was found that different cultures attach different values and meanings to achievement and education. The fourth practice to be examined was that of goals. The key element here was that learners from Eastern cultures often diligently pursue academic goals whereas learners from Western cultures often pursue social over academic goals. The last practice to be examined was that of the different values attached to family and family values. The diversity of learners and their cultural backgrounds with regard to how they value family and family ties can have an impact on how and what motivates such learners.

When discussing each of these practices, attempts were made to link the practice to motivation in order to show how culture influences the motivation to learn. Unfortunately, very little information was found on the motivational practices of African and more specifically South African learners.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this chapter was to examine the motivation to learn of FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom. The terms ‘culture’, ‘cultural diversity’ and ‘micro-’ and ‘macro-cultures’ were firstly examined in order to understand these concepts in the context of a multicultural classroom. The chapter then continued with an exploration of the concept of ‘multicultural education’. Multicultural education is an integral part of the diverse world we live in. The chapter ended with a detailed look at the link between culture and motivation and the various motivational practices of learners belonging to different cultural groups. Evidence in the literature suggests that learners from different cultures exhibit different motivational tendencies.

This chapter contributes to the answering of the research question by recognising that culture can influence the type of motivation shown by a learner in a classroom, and by identifying that various micro-cultures in a multicultural classroom can influence each other and may also be influenced by other macro-cultures. In the next chapter the research design to be used in the study will be discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The fourth chapter of the study starts with a description of the research design and methods that were used to answer the research question. This is followed by an in-depth investigation into the different data collection methods that were used by the researcher. The chapter then moves on to examine the concepts of trustworthiness and ethics. The chapter concludes with an analysis of the manner in which the data was collected through the questionnaire and the focus group interviews.

4.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM, RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The research problem concerns investigating the motivation to learn of FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom (see 1.2.3). Since 1994 classrooms in South Africa have become more multicultural. In these multicultural classrooms there may be learners who merely sit in the class and do nothing. As a teacher, one wonders how one can motivate such learners to learn. The problem is further exacerbated by the fact that many of these learners are from differing cultural orientations. As a teacher, one then begins to wonder how the culture of the learners affects their motivation to learn. The question therefore arises as to what motivates learners to learn in a multicultural classroom and what role does culture play in the motivation to learn of such learners.

The primary aim of this research is to investigate the nature of the motivation to learn of FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom (see 1.2.3). The investigation will try to identify and describe the factors that contribute to a learner's motivation to learn specifically in a multicultural classroom (sub-question 1) (see 1.2.3). This will involve exploring the extrinsic and intrinsic nature of a learner's motivation to learn. Other factors such as the relevance of learning to personal goals, responsibility (self-determination) for learning, confidence (self-

efficacy) in learning and the role played by teachers, parents and peers in developing a motivation to learn in a learner will also be examined. These specific components of motivation were identified and explored in the second chapter.

A further aim of the research is to explore the relationship between the culture and the motivation to learn of the learner (sub-question 2) (see 1.2.3). Results from the quantitative study will be examined to investigate whether different cultures have different patterns of motivation. This aspect will also be more fully explored in the qualitative part of the study (the focus group interviews). The findings from the questionnaire will form the basis of the focus group interviews.

4.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

> Husserl agreed with Hume that when one looks at an object, a table for example, one is aware of the object and not oneself. He proposed that philosophy should base itself on the method of examining what is directly experienced, and should not make unprovable assumptions about the existence of anything else - this approach became known as phenomenology (Magee 1998:210).

Phenomenology is one example of a research paradigm. A research paradigm, according to Babbie (2010:32-33), is an approach to social research based on philosophical assumptions about the purpose of science and the nature of social reality. Wisker (2001:123) states that a paradigm is an underlying set of beliefs about how the elements of the research area fit together and how one can enquire of it and make meaning of discoveries. Neuman (2006:81), on the other hand, maintains that a paradigm is a basic orientation to theory and research. It includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research and methods for seeking answers. A research paradigm is defined by Johnson and Christensen (2008:33) as a perspective held by a community of researchers that is based on a set of shared assumptions, concepts, values and practices. An alternative definition of a research paradigm is given by Babbie (2010:33) who states that a paradigm is a model or a frame of reference through which to observe and understand. Most researchers operate primarily within one paradigm but many times elements from other paradigms are also combined. As such a researcher can study the same topic using different paradigms (Babbie 2010:33-34).

The research paradigm used in this study is phenomenology. Phenomenology has been practised in various guises for centuries but it came into its own in the early 20th century in the works of Husserl, Heidegger, Sartre, Merleau-Ponty and others. Phenomenology is defined by Smith (2008) as the study of structures of consciousness as experienced from the first-person point of view. Cerbone (2006:3) adds to this definition by stating that phenomenology means 'the study of phenomena' where the notion of phenomenon coincides with the notion of experience. Phenomenology, according to Cerbone (2006:3), invites one to stay with 'the experience itself' and concentrate on its character and structure rather than what might be causally responsible for it.

According to Smith (2008) phenomenology does not attempt to speak about things but only about the way they manifest themselves. It asks the question of whether or not it is possible to say anything, with absolute certainty, about the nature of appearance. When something appears, phenomenologists ask whether the appearing has any general features which can be identified - thus phenomenology focuses not on what appears but on how it appears (Smith 2008). However, appearances in phenomenology do not appear in splendid isolation - they must appear to something and that something is usually a 'consciousness'. Appearance is a form of giving as appearances are given to consciousness. Phenomenologists often ask how consciousness is constituted if it is able to receive such a gift (Lewis & Staehler 2010:1).

In order to fully understand phenomenology, it is necessary to consider some typical experiences one might have in everyday life - these are all characterised in the first person:
I intend to finish my writing by noon
I imagine a fearsome creature like that in my nightmare
I am searching for words to make my point in conversation.
Each of these sentences is a simple form of a phenomenological description where the structure of the type of experience is described. The subject term 'I' indicates the first-person structure of the experience, and the intentionality (which is also a key feature of phenomenology) proceeds from the subject. The verb indicates the type of intentional activity being described. Of central importance is the way that objects of awareness are presented or intended in the experiences, especially the way one sees, conceives or thinks about objects. The overall form of the given sentence articulates the basic form of intentionality in the experience: subject-act-content-object (Smith 2008).

In summary, the research paradigm used in this research is phenomenology. The reason for using phenomenology is that it is investigates how 'I', an individual, experiences a phenomenon like motivation and thus suits the character of this particular research. Various aspects of the life of learners will be examined in this respect from their point of view - that is why most of the questions in the questionnaire start with 'I' thereby implying that a phenomenological point of view is being used in the research.

In the next section the research setting, research design and method will be examined.

4.4 THE RESEARCH SETTING, OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND THE RESEARCH METHOD

The research problems, aims and the research paradigm were discussed in the preceding section of this chapter. The research setting, research design and research method used by the researcher will now be described.

4.4.1 Research Setting

For practical reasons the study has been restricted to the International School of South Africa in the North-West Province. Only learners in Grade 10 (Form 4) through to post-matric (Upper 6^{th}) were used in the research.

4.4.2 The research design

Rugg and Petre (2007:61-62) state that a research design is about finding things out systematically and is used to answer a research question. According to McCaig (2010:30) a research design is an overarching strategy for unearthing useful answers to problems. Babbie (2010:117) adds to McCaig's definition by stating that a research design involves a set of decisions regarding what topic is to be studied, among what population, with what research methods and for what purpose.

When deciding what research design will be used, a researcher needs to look at what kind of study will be done and what type of study will best answer the question that has been

formulated. The focus must therefore be both on the point of departure (the research problem/question) and on the end product (the kind of result being aimed for). For that reason the focus is always on the logic of the research and the kind of evidence that is required to address the research question adequately (Mouton 2001:56).

It is also very important for a researcher to know the purpose of doing the research. According to Neuman (2006:33) the purpose of doing social research can be organized into three categories, one to explore a new topic, one to describe a social phenomenon and one to explain why something occurs. Studies may have multiple purposes but one purpose is usually dominant.

In the next section the elements of the research design that were used in this study, namely quantitative and qualitative approaches, will be discussed in detail.

4.4.3 Research Method

There are two main types of research methods, namely qualitative and quantitative, that can be used when doing social research. Qualitative research refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols and description of things. This approach provides perspectives that prompt the recall of common or half forgotten sights, sounds and smells. The researcher is able to assess the quality of things using words, images and descriptions. The researcher generates new hypotheses and grounded theory from data collected during fieldwork. Popular methods of research used in this approach are videotaping, historical analysis, document and textual analysis, socio-drama and other unobtrusive techniques.

On the other hand, quantitative research refers to counts and measures of things and relies heavily on numbers. With this type of research method the researcher can test hypotheses and theory with data (Johnson & Christensen 2008:34). Table 4.1 shows the difference between qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Table 4.1: Differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods

Quantitative	Qualitative
Associated with numbers as the unit of analysis	Associated with words or images as the unit of analysis
Associated with analysis	Associated with description
Associated with large-scale studies	Associated with small-scale studies
Associated with a specific focus	Associated with holistic perspective
Associated with researcher detachment	Associated with researcher involvement
Associated with a predetermined research design (hypotheses are established)	Associated with an emergent research design (theories and methods will emerge during the course of the research)

(Source: Denscombe 2007:248-251)

In this research a quantitative method (a structured questionnaire) and a qualitative method (focus group interviews) were both used. This mixed methods research design was deemed most suitable for the following reasons:

- there is an emphasis on the practical approaches to research problems (Denscombe 2007:108),
- the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provides an understanding of a research problem (Cresswell 2003:23),
- there is an assumption that the data received will be more accurate due to the process of triangulation. Barbour (2007:157), Krathwohl (2009:285) and Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007:34) define triangulation as an attempt to compare data which is obtained using two or more methods of data collection. This process is therefore based on the notion of corroboration and validation. If different research methods produce data that is more or less the same, then the process of triangulation will show the researchers that they can be confident that their findings are accurate (Denscombe 2007:109; McCaig 2010:35; Neuman 2006:150), and
- it compensates for the strengths and weaknesses of the different research methods (quantitative and qualitative) being used (Denscombe 2007:110).

According to Cresswell (2003:16) a mixed method approach can be:

- sequential - the researcher seeks to elaborate on or expand the findings of one method with another method. A researcher could begin with a quantitative method in which theories and concepts are tested and then follow this with a qualitative method involving detailed exploration with a few cases or individuals,
- concurrent - the researcher combines qualitative and quantitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. The investigator collects both forms of data at the same time during the study and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results, and
- transformational - the researcher uses a theoretical lens as an overarching perspective within a design that contains both quantitative and qualitative data. This lens provides a framework for topics of interest, methods for collecting data and outcomes or changes anticipated by the study. The data collection method involves a sequential or concurrent approach (Cresswell 2003:16).

A sequential approach was used in this research. The reason for using this approach was that it was felt that it was more advisable to gain a large amount of data at the beginning of the fieldwork. During the analysis of this data, pertinent points would be picked up and explored further in a smaller setting such as in a focus group interview. The sequential approach started with the structured questionnaire (a quantitative research method) where information regarding the learner's biographical details (e.g. gender and nationality), and the factors that contribute to a learner's motivation to learn were collected. This stage was then followed by focus group interviews (a qualitative research method). There were two main reasons why focus group interviews were used. The first reason was to obtain information which was difficult to obtain during the quantitative process. The second reason was to further explore interesting points that were identified during the analysis of the structured questionnaire.

According to Cresswell (2003:210) problems can occur when a mixed method approach is used. One such problem is that this approach can add extra time because of the need to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data. Such problems with time were factored into the timetable when doing this research. Another problem identified by Cresswell (2003:210) revolved around the difficulties that might emerge from analysing both numeric

and text data. In order to overcome this particular problem, the researcher familiarised herself with both the quantitative and qualitative forms of research.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Two main data gathering techniques were used in the research, namely structured questionnaires and focus group interviews. These two different data collection techniques will now be discussed. For each data collection method, details will be given on the different participants and how they were selected as well as information on the design and administration of the particular data collection method.

4.5.1 The structured questionnaire

4.5.1.1 Details on the learners who took part in the completion of the structured questionnaire

All learners in Forms 4, 5, Lower 6th and Upper 6th[1] at the International School of South Africa were asked to participate in the structured questionnaire. Three weeks preceding the completion of the questionnaire and the focus group interviews, the learners were informed about the research and its purpose during the Headmaster's period.[2] Consent forms (see Appendix 1) were handed out to the learners who were asked to give the forms to their parents to sign and then return them to the researcher. Completed forms were then collected by both the researcher and the various form tutors. Many learners lost the forms and had to be given new forms. The researcher had to return several times to the Headmaster's period and to the various form tutor classes to remind the learners to return the forms. Those learners who did not return their consent forms were not included in the research. Altogether 79% (or two hundred and one) of the learners from Forms 4 to 6 completed the questionnaire (see Table 4.2).

[1] Form 4 is Grade 10, Form 5 is Grade 11, Lower 6th is Grade 12 and Upper 6th is one year post-matric
[2] Headmaster's period is one period a week run by the Headmaster, the deputy heads or the directors with each form. Personal and social development is done during this period.

Table 4.2: Details of the learners who participated in the structured questionnaire

FORM		***4***	***5***	***L6***	***U6***	***Total***
No. of learners who participated in questionnaire		70	68	55	8	201
Total number in each form		89	82	64	14	253
% of learners who participated in questionnaire		79%	83%	86%	57%	79%
Gender	***Male***	43%	47%	51%	12%	45%
	Female	57%	53%	49%	88%	55%
Ages		Between 14 and 18 yrs old	Between 16 and 19 yrs old	Between 16 and 20 yrs old	Between 17 and 20 yrs old	

Of those who completed the questionnaire, 55% were female and 45% were male. The different nationalities of these learners are given in Table 4.3. The vast majority of the learners (61%) were South African followed by Zimbabwean (17%).

Table 4.3: Details of the different nationalities who participated in the structured questionnaire

	Namibian	***Dutch/Tanzanian***	***Congolese***	***Swazi***	***Cameroon***	***Filipino***	***Nigerian***	***Tanzanian***	***Kenyan***	***Mozambican***	***Malawian***	***Zambian***	***Zimbabwean***	***Botswana***	***South African***	***TOTAL***
No.	2	1	5	1	1	1	2	7	1	2	9	3	34	9	123	201
%	1	0.5	2.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	1	3.5	0.5	1	4.5	1.5	17	14.5	61	100

The numbers who completed the questionnaire and the total numbers in each form do not tally. The difference is made up of those learners who did not return their consent forms (and were thus not included in the research), were absent on the day and spoilt questionnaires.

4.5.1.2 The design of the structured questionnaire

A structured questionnaire was designed by the researcher and was used to collect data from the learners. The questionnaire technique was chosen as one of the methods of data collection as it allows the researcher to collect original data that describes a population which is too large to observe directly. Questionnaires are also excellent vehicles, according to Babbie (2010:254), for measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population.

When drawing up the questionnaire the researcher recognized the following 'most common errors' as identified by Mouton (2001:103-104):

- use of ambiguous or vague terms (words that are undefined, too vague or assume too much about respondent),
- double-barreled questions (questions that combine two or more questions in one),
- item order effects - the order or sequence of questions may affect accuracy and response rates,
- fictitious constructs - asking people about matters they have no knowledge about,
- leading questions - questions where a respondent is being led or influenced to give a certain response,
- negatively phrased questions or double negatives,
- poor or confusing layout of the questionnaire leading to non-response or other errors,
- a questionnaire that is too long, and
- sensitive or threatening questions which may lead to non-response or refusal to participate.

The following hints on wording questions in a questionnaire were also taken into account by the researcher:

- try and avoid questions which are ambiguous or imprecise,
- questions that ask respondents to recall events that occurred a long time ago may be answered with a lesser degree of accuracy,

- two or three simple questions are usually better than one very complex one,
- try not to draft questions which presume a particular answer - rather allow for all possible responses,
- avoid too many questions couched in negative terms,
- do not ask too many open-ended questions as they take too long to answer properly and too much time to analyse,
- the questionnaire should be piloted before being used in a full survey as this allows the questionnaire to be refined,
- if poorly laid out, respondents tend to tick boxes in the same pattern and on scales respondents usually opt for the middle point of the scale,
- yes/no and Likert scale-type questions (on a range of 1-5 where 1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree) are easier to code,
- a coding box on the right hand side should be put in, and
- the questionnaire should start off with simple questions and then become more complicated (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight 2008:182; Wisker 2001:142,148-149).

The structured questionnaire that was used in this research consisted of two main sections. The first section (consisting of four items) requested the learner's biographical details namely:

- age,
- gender,
- ethnic background, and
- nationality.

The second section provided data of a quantitative nature. Forty-eight closed questions were used. Closed questions structure the answers by allowing only answers which fit categories that have been established in advance by the researcher (Denscombe 2007:166). The questions were structured in such a way that the participants were asked to select the most appropriate answer on a general four point Likert scale. The options were:

1. Always true
2. Mostly true
3. Sometimes true
4. Not at all.

The advantages of using a Likert Scale, according to Babbie (2010:179) and Neuman (2006:209-210), are that the scaling method is fairly easy to understand and use, reliability and content validity are improved and the difference in intensity between items can be demonstrated.

The structured questionnaire (see Appendix 2) was based on The Inventory of School Motivation Questionnaire designed by McInerney and Ali (2006). The questionnaire assessed ten components of motivation: task, effort, competition, social concern, social power, affiliation, token, praise, goals and self-determination/self-efficacy. These components were also examined in Chapter Two and Chapter Three.

4.5.1.3 The Pilot Study

The questionnaire was pretested in a pilot study. Piloting, according to Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007:98), is a vital part of questionnaire design and construction. It is done for the following reasons:

- to improve reliability - that is that people understand the questions in the same way as each other (Babbie 2010:233; Leman 2010:181),
- to test for validity - respondents' answers mean what you take them to mean (Leman 2010:181), and
- to test for the layout, language use, possible ambiguity, clarity of instructions and acceptability of the statements and the length of the questionnaire (Babbie 2010:98).

In the pilot study that was done for this research, the researcher personally administered the questionnaire to thirty-nine learners (16% of the total sample). These learners were randomly selected from Forms 4, 5 and 6. The learners were informed that this was a pilot test of the questionnaire and that all responses were to remain anonymous. The learners answered the questions and provided feedback to the researcher on any difficulties they had with the questionnaire. The following changes were made to the questionnaire following the feedback received from these learners:

- on page 1 an extra instruction was added that learners, when answering the questionnaire, must mark with an 'X' what they feel is the correct answer,

- there were two spelling and grammatical mistakes on the questionnaire which were corrected,
- on page 1 an extra instruction was added that learners, when answering the questionnaire, must mark one correct answer per line,
- Q1 was changed from 'what is your present age?' to 'what is your form' (in the feedback from the pilot study learners told the researcher that they were embarrassed to put down their age and their form as some learners are older than others in a particular form),
- some questions were repeated,
- the way in which some of the questions were asked was simplified as some of the Form 4s did say that the questions were quite difficult to understand,
- one learner wrote 'bisexual' under sex (Q2) so the question was changed from 'sex' to 'gender' and boxes were inserted instead of lines,
- the researcher thought that the learners may be offended with the question on ethnic backgrounds (Q3). However, no learner indicated that they had a problem with this question. One learner did suggest that 'Black' be changed to 'Afro American',
- there were queries from learners regarding Q4 as some of these learners hold two different passports or hold the passport of one country but are actually born in another country (they were advised to put down the nationality of their passport),
- some learners did not answer the questions on the back page of the questionnaire. In order to avoid this 'please turn over for page 2' was inserted at the bottom of page 1 and the learners were reminded to answer the questions on all the pages, and
- on the original questionnaire each set of questions had a heading such as 'Token' or 'Reward'. These headings were definitely influencing the learners' answers. To avoid this, these headings were removed.

The questionnaire was refined according to the comments received. The group of learners who participated in the pilot study was also included in the final group that completed the questionnaire.

4.5.1.4 The administration of the structured questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered to two hundred and one learners in Forms 4, 5, Lower and Upper 6th at the International School of South Africa during March 2011. The questionnaire was completed during the Headmaster's period. At the start of the period the researcher introduced herself and explained the purpose of the questionnaire. The respondents were assured of the confidentiality of their replies. The instructions on the front of the questionnaire were clear and the questionnaire was not cramped in appearance. The typefaces were in Times New Roman, Comic Sans and Arial in order to make the appearance attractive and to differentiate certain questions from instructions. These were all points highlighted by Blaxter *et al*. (2008:183) and Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007:99) and taken into account when administering the questionnaire.

The questionnaire took the learners about twenty minutes to complete. The questionnaire was completed in the presence of the researcher and the various Directors of Studies. Two Lower 6th learners also assisted the researcher in the handing out and collection of the questionnaires. The researcher informed the respondents that they were free to ask if they were unsure of the meaning of any of the questions. Some respondents had problems with Question 3 and 4 in the questionnaire. With regards to Question 3, a learner asked what she should put down as her mother is a black Congolese married to an Arab man from Qatar. She was told to mark 'coloured'. With regards to Question 4, some of the learners did not know what nationality to mark down as they were born in one country but have lived most of their lives in other countries of which they also have citizenship. They were informed to take the nationality of their passports.

When the learners handed in their questionnaires, the researcher, the Director of Studies and the two assistants checked to see that the questionnaires had been completed in full. Various problems were picked up at this stage - the main problem being that respondents had forgotten to answer the last page of the questionnaires. The questionnaire was then immediately returned to the respondent to complete.

4.5.2 Focus Group Interviews

4.5.2.1 Details of the learners who took part in the focus group interviews

As part of the qualitative study, four focus group interviews were held after the completion of the structured questionnaire. It was felt by the researcher that it was important to hold focus group interviews with each form group so as to find information specific to that particular year group. Details of the composition of the focus group interviews are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Details on the learners who participated in the focus group interviews

Focus Group	**Form**	**Total**	**Composition of Focus Group**											
			South African		**Zimbabwean**		**Malawian**		**Mozambican**		**Tanzanian**		**Zambian**	
			Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1	4	**12**	4	3	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	5	**9**	5	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	L6	**15**	4	4	3	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
4	U6	**4**	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total		**40**	13	10	6	7	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0

Each group consisted of between four and fifteen members with a total of forty learners being involved. The different focus groups were not equally split along gender or racial lines but rather assembled in such a fashion that all the members knew each other and were comfortable and confident to speak in each other's company. It was felt that if the information from these focus groups was to be of any value to the research process and was also to be considered reliable and valid, the members of these groups would have to feel relaxed around each other. Consequently, the researcher used her knowledge of the different individuals when selecting them for the different groups.

4.5.2.2The design and administration of the focus group interviews

Focus groups are defined by Barbour (2007:2) as any group discussion where the researcher is actively encouraging of and attentive to the group interaction. According to Babbie (2010:322) focus groups are essentially a qualitative method that is based on structured, semi-structured or unstructured interviews. They consist of small groups of people (five to fifteen) who have certain common features or characteristics. These groups are brought together by a researcher so that attitudes, perceptions, feelings and ideas about a specific topic can be explored (Babbie 2010:322; Denscombe 2007:178; Wellington & Szczerbinski 2007:89).

Focus groups are called that because the researcher keeps the individuals in the group focused on the topic being discussed (Johnson & Christensen 2008:209). The participants in a focus group are a relatively homogeneous representative of a target population (Krathwohl 2009:304-305). Focus group interviews are often used to complement survey research as they give insights of an exploratory or preliminary nature (Wellington & Szczerbinski 2007:88).

The discussion in a focus group is triggered by a 'stimulus' such as a research question. This question could be something introduced by the moderator or the researcher at the beginning of a session. The session will then proceed with all the participants being encouraged to discuss the topic amongst themselves with one individual's comments stimulating others. Through this process the moderator should be able to find out what participants think and why they think the way they do. Typically more than one focus group is convened in a given study because there is a serious danger that a single group of seven to twelve people will be too atypical to offer any general insights (Denscombe 2007:178, 179; Krathwohl 2009:305).

There were various reasons why focus groups were used in the research. Focus groups are useful in capturing people's responses, feelings and records of experience (Wisker 2001:141). Focus groups, according to Babbie (2010:323) and Johnson and Christensen (2008:210), are also flexible, have high face validity, produce speedy results, provide in-depth information, are low in cost and bring out aspects of the topic that would not have emerged from one-to-one interviews with individuals. However, there are problems with focus group interviews. The data received from focus groups can be difficult to analyse. The groups can be difficult to assemble. The researcher needs to develop the skills of a moderator and stand back and let the group talk amongst themselves. Finally, the researcher needs to control the dynamic

within the group thus avoiding one interviewee from dominating the group (Babbie 2010:323; Denscombe 2007:181; Krathwohl 2009:305).

The focus group interviews done for this research were held after the completion of the structured questionnaires as the information gathered in the structured questionnaires was used in the focus group interviews. The members of the focus group were contacted two weeks prior to the meeting to ensure that they were available. The interviews were held in the researcher's classroom and lasted between seventy minutes and two and a half hours. The interviews were recorded using the school's recording machine. At the beginning of each of the four focus group interviews the researcher welcomed and thanked the participants for their presence and participation as the researcher wanted to make all the participants feel at ease. The researcher informed the learners that they should feel free to communicate their feelings and thoughts as there were no wrong answers. The researcher further assured the participants that their contributions would only be used for the purposes of the study, and all responses were confidential and anonymous as their names would not appear in the research document.

The researcher then informed all the participants the reasons why they were at the interviews. Once the interviews started, the researcher introduced key questions in order to get the discussion moving. The discussions were then allowed to progress as the participants saw fit. The amount of researcher input was kept to a minimum so as to allow the discussion to flow in the direction that the participants chose. The researcher tried to avoid head nodding and any signs of approval. Where necessary, the researcher made a brief summary of a statement that had become muddled or during a lull in the discussion. Data was collected using a tape recorder and detailed notes were also taken. The researcher wrote a summary of the key points as soon as the meeting finished.

The purpose of the questions asked in the interviews was twofold - the first being to try and elicit more information from the learners regarding results from the structured questionnaires, and secondly to try and find out more information on certain issues which were difficult to ask in the questionnaire (such as opinions regarding culture). Initially some of the participants were shy to answer the questions. The researcher tried to include them by asking them by name what their opinions were. The interview schedule used for each form is included in Appendix 3. The researcher started out each interview session with the same schedule of

questions. As the interviews unfolded, the researcher gauged whether it was appropriate to ask a certain question as the researcher did not want to break the flow of discussion. This is the reason why each focus group was not asked the same questions.

Some problems were experienced during the process. There were learners in each form group who dominated the interviews - this was probably not done intentionally. The researcher had to keep bringing in other members of the group. The Form 4 and 5 learners were also very reticent to speak and the answers they gave were very brief and to the point. However, the situation changed with the Lower and Upper 6th learners who were more than willing to give their opinion.

4.6 TRUSTWORTHINESS

According to Neuman (2006:188,190) and Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007:43) reliability and validity are central issues in all forms of measurement and are widely used to discuss the quality of research. Both reliability and validity help to establish the truthfulness, credibility and believability of findings. According to Johnson and Christensen (2008:144) reliability refers to the consistency and stability of a set of test scores. Reliability therefore implies dependability, consistency, repeatability and replicability (in that if the same thing is repeated or recurs under the identical or similar conditions, the researcher will get the same results and not erratic, unstable or inconsistent results) (Wellington & Szczerbinski 2007:43). Blaxter *et al*. (2008:221) states that reliability also has to do with how well a research project is carried out. If a researcher finds that other researchers who were looking at the same questions, in the same setting, come up with essentially the same results, then the researcher can conclude that the research is trustworthy and reliable.

Validity suggests truthfulness. It refers to how well an idea 'fits' with reality (Neuman 2006:188). Blaxter *et al*. (2008:221) state that validity refers to whether the researcher's methods, approaches and techniques indeed relate to or measure the issues that are being explored. In other words, validity is concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research. Validity requires that other researchers will achieve similar results using the same methods on the same subjects (McCaig 2010:34-35). According to McCaig (2010:35), an accepted method of ensuring validity is to use the

triangulation data analysis method (see 4.4.3). This method enhances the confidence in the validity of the findings, allows for the accuracy of the findings to be checked and enhances the completeness of the findings (Denscombe 2007:137-138).

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher has a moral and professional obligation to be ethical even when research subjects are unaware of or unconcerned about ethics. The term 'ethics' is defined by Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007:59) as referring to the moral principles or guidelines for conduct which are held by a group or profession. The ethical issues are the concerns, dilemmas and conflicts that arise over the proper way to conduct research. Many ethical issues involve a balance between two values - the pursuit of scientific knowledge and the rights of those being studied or of others in society. Potential benefits of doing the research (such as advancing the understanding of social life) must be weighed against potential costs (the loss of dignity and the loss of self-esteem) (Neuman 2006:129). For the purposes of this study the following ethical considerations were continuously borne in mind: obtaining informed consent, protecting vulnerable research participants, violation of privacy, and the actions and competence of researchers. Each of these points will be discussed next.

4.7.1 Obtaining informed consent

The goal of all social researchers should be the conduct of ethically informed social research. Most common ethical issues arise with research designs that use qualitative methods of data collection as close relationships can develop between the researcher and the researched. Other ethical issues that have to be addressed revolve around privacy, anonymity, secrecy, being truthful, the desirability of the research and getting the informed consent of those being interviewed, questioned and observed (Blaxter *et al*. 2008:158).

It is important that participants know the purpose of the study so that they can understand the nature of the research and its likely impact on them. Respondents also need to know the procedure to be used in the study so they know what to expect. Respondents have the right to ask questions, to obtain a copy of the results and to have their privacy respected (Creswell 2003:64-65). The researcher needs to explain to the participants that they can opt out of the

research at any stage. The participants must be assured of the researcher's respect for their confidentiality and a summary of the research results should be offered to them (Mouton 2001:244). The participants in the study were informed that they could discontinue with the study at any time. They were assured of anonymity and that their responses would be used only for the purposes of the study. The respondents also asked to see the results of the questionnaires which the researcher did organize.

Besides asking permission from participants, permission from individuals in authority must also be obtained. This could involve writing letters identifying the extent of time, potential impact and outcomes of research (Cresswell 2003:65). Permission to proceed with the research at the International School of South Africa was received from the Head of the school during a meeting the researcher had with him to discuss the investigation. Further written explanation of the research was forwarded to him after this meeting (see Appendix 4).

4.7.2 Protecting vulnerable research participants

When doing research, participants must not be put at risk. Vulnerable populations such as those under the age of nineteen (children), mentally handicapped, illiterate and those with low social status need to be respected. The anonymity of individuals, roles and incidents must also be protected. In order to do this coding must be used. Researchers also need to provide an accurate account of the information (Creswell 2003:64,66; Mouton 2001:245).

In this investigation every effort was made to avoid putting the participants in the study at risk and to ensure that all participants were respected. In order to ensure anonymity, participants did not put their names on the questionnaire, and in the focus group interviews each participant was referred to as 'Participant 1'; 'Participant 2' and so on and not by their name. It is very important in such a study that participants be protected in order to ensure that the information from the study is not used against a certain learner.

4.7.3 Violations of privacy

The researcher needs to make every effort to protect the information given by the participants. All information needs to remain anonymous - anonymity referring to the identity

of the individual being kept secret (Mouton 2001:243-244; Neuman 2006:138-139). The researcher took all necessary precautions to protect the privacy of the respondents.

4.7.4 Actions and competence of researchers

Researchers are powerful as they can influence their research and their findings (Blaxter *et al*. 2008:83). The researcher has certain opinions and views about a wide range of issues associated with the research and every effort has to be made to ensure that these thoughts do not find some expression in the research and the reporting thereof. The researcher tried at all times to maintain objectivity and integrity in the research. This implies that the researcher had to adhere to the highest possible technical standards in the research. The limits of the findings and the methodological constraints which determine the validity of the findings were indicated by the researcher. Results were not misrepresented and theories, methods and research designs were fully disclosed.

4.8 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

According to Blaxter *et al*. (2008:183) analysis is an ongoing process which may occur throughout the research with earlier analysis often informing later data collection. Analysis is about the search for explanation and understanding in the course of which concepts and theories will likely be advanced, considered and developed. Analysis is meant to be a rigorous process using data that has been carefully produced and managed (Blaxter *et al*. 2008:206-207). Mouton (2001:108) states that analysis involves 'breaking up' the data into manageable themes, trends, patterns and relationships. The aim of the analysis is to understand the various constitutive elements of the data by inspecting the relationships between concepts, constructs and variables. Patterns and trends in the data need to be identified and themes established. The aim of the data analysis in this study was to provide answers to the questions raised in the first chapter.

Once the data is collected, it needs to be sorted, coded, reduced and summarized so that it can be analysed (Blaxter *et al*. 2008:201). As this particular study was mixed method in nature (see 4.4.3), two types of analysis were done:

- *Analysis of the group-administered questionnaires*

  The questionnaires used in the research lent themselves to quantitative forms of analysis as discrete items of information in either words or numbers were collected. This data was then coded. Coding, according to Blaxter *et al*. (2008:203), is the process by which items or groups of data are assigned codes. This is done to simplify and standardise the data for analytical purposes. Coding can also be seen to be the process by which significant parts of the data are tagged with names thus indicating their importance to the study. Coding allows for the quantity of data to be reduced - an example being when characteristics like gender or age are replaced by numbers (Krathwohl 2009:337).

  The information from the questionnaires was manually entered into Microsoft Excel. Once the data was entered, a process of cleaning was done. According to Haughton and Stevens (2010:201) data cleaning involves working methodically, question by question, to ensure the data is as accurate as possible. In this research the data cleaning process involved checking whether the data was within the expected parameters and ranges and that data was not missing.

  Once the data was entered into the computer, use was made of the following descriptive statistics:

  - measures of central tendency (mean and mode) and dispersion (variance and standard deviation),
  - descriptive tables, and
  - percentages (Haughton & Stevens 2010:205-215; Krathwohl 2009:372-395; Wellington & Szczerbinski 2007:119).

- *Analysis of the focus group interviews*

  The analysis of the focus group interviews was done in the following stages as suggested by Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007:101-108):

  - *Immersion* - the researcher immersed herself in the data in order to get an overall sense or feel for the data. This involved rereading the transcripts, listening to the tapes and highlighting and annotating transcripts. The researcher looked for buzzwords and other commonly used words and phrases in the transcripts.
  - *Reflecting* - after immersing herself in the data, the researcher 'stood back' from the data and literally 'slept on it'.
  - *Analysing the data* - the researcher started coding the data in order to create categories, patterns or recurring themes which could be used to 'make sense of the data'. According to Smith and Davies (2010:152) codes are labels for the data that allow for categorization of such data so that it can be used in the research. The following aspects were coded: specific acts or behaviours, events, activities, practices, relationships, consequences and reflections. When approaching the coding of the data, the strategy - as outlined by Smith and Davies (2010:154) - was used. Firstly, the initial coding of the transcripts was carried out. This was followed by the data being re-read and overlapping codes identified. Codes were combined where necessary and the validity of the codes for the new data was checked.
  - *Recombining/synthesizing data* - at this stage the researcher looked for patterns, themes, regularities, contrasts and irregularities in the data. Every effort was made to not make the categories too large as the information might become too disparate and unwieldy.
  - *Relating and locating data* - during this stage the researcher compared and contrasted the data to what was found in the literature review. This allowed the researcher to reflect upon the data and make sense of it.
  - *Presenting qualitative data* - the researcher, in this last stage of analyzing the data, tried to present the data as fairly, clearly, coherently and attractively as possible.

After analyzing the data gathered in the structured questionnaires and focus group interviews, the researcher was able to attempt to answer the initial research problem (see 1.2.3) outlined in the first chapter.

4.9 SUMMARY

The main aim of this chapter was to provide information on the research design that was used in this study. The chapter started with a discussion of the main aim of the research, namely to investigate the nature of the motivation of FET phase learners to learn in a multicultural classroom. The research paradigm that was used, namely phenomenology, was then described. This was followed by an examination of the mixed methods research design which was deemed to be the most suitable design to use in this type of research. The mixed methods research design is made up of qualitative and quantitative research methods which were both described in the chapter. In order to ensure that the quantitative research method that was used was reliable and valid, the researcher did a pilot study - the results of which are given in the chapter. The two methods used to collect the data, namely the structured questionnaires and the focus group interviews, were then considered. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the ethical aspects of the research as well as the reliability and validity of the various measuring instruments that were used.

This chapter contributes to answering the research question: 'What motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn' by identifying how the research would be done in order to retrieve the data that would then be analysed in order to answer this research question. In the next chapter the results and findings of the research are analysed and presented.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results of the structured questionnaire and the focus group discussions are discussed. These findings are then used to answer the main research question: 'What motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn?' and the two sub-questions, namely 'What factors contribute to a learner's motivation to learn in a multicultural classroom?' (sub-question 1) and 'What is the relationship between culture and the motivation to learn?' (sub-question 2). The chapter ends with a discussion of the relationship between the literature and the empirical research.

5.2 RESULTS OF THE STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE WITH REGARD TO ANSWERING SUB-QUESTION 1

In this section of the chapter the results of the structured questionnaire are discussed in so far as they answer the first sub-question.

5.2.1 Sub-question 1: What motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn?

When analysing the data from the structured questionnaire, the 'always true' (coded '1') and 'mostly true' (coded '2') answers were combined as positive answers and were indicated in green on the tables. On the other hand, the 'sometimes true' (coded '3') and 'not at all' (coded '4') answers were combined as negative answers and were indicated in red on the table.

5.2.1.1 Task involvement

Table 5.1 provides information on the importance of task involvement for the learners. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class. Due to the overwhelming positive responses on task involvement in all the forms, the negative responses were not analysed per form.

Table 5.1: Task Involvement

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q5. I like being given the chance to do something again to make it better	87%	72%	87%	88%	84%	17%
Q6. I try harder when the work is interesting	92%	90%	85%	100%	92%	8%
Q7. I like to see that I am improving in my school work	91%	97%	98%	100%	97%	4%

The information from this table shows that in all the questions asked, the majority of the respondents like being given the chance to do something again to make it better (Q5), try harder when the work is interesting (Q6), and like to see that they are improving in their schoolwork (Q7) (this question also showed the greatest average positive mark).

Table 5.2 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of task involvement. The mode scores were between 1 (always true) and 2 (mostly true). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers did not vary widely (as the scores were below 1).

Table 5.2: Statistical analysis of Task Involvement

TASK INVOLVEMENT	*Mode*	*Variation*	*Std deviation*
Q5. I like being given the chance to do something again to make it better	2	0.6	0.8
Q6. I try harder when the work is interesting	1	0.5	0.7
Q7. I like to see that I am improving in my school work	1	0.3	0.6

The conclusion that can be drawn from questions 5, 6 and 7 is that task involvement does tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of learners across all form levels.

5.2.1.2 Effort

Table 5.3 provides information on the importance of effort to the learners. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

The information from this table shows that the majority of the respondents do not mind working for a long time at schoolwork that they find interesting (Q8), try hard to make sure they are good at their schoolwork (Q9), do work hard to try to understand new things at school (Q11) and do feel they put enough effort into their subjects (Q12). The only exception to these results is the Form 5s who answered negatively to question 8 and question 11. In question 10, the majority of the respondents (with the exception of the Form 4s) indicated that they do not try harder as problems get harder.

Table 5.3: Effort

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q8. I don't mind working a long time at schoolwork that I find interesting	60%	47%	83%	75%	66%	33%
Q9. I try hard to make sure that I am good at my schoolwork	78%	69%	74%	100%	80%	20%
Q10. The harder the problem, the harder I try	51%	41%	45%	37%	44%	57%
Q11. I work hard to try and understand new things at school	75%	46%	81%	63%	67%	34%
Q12. I put enough effort into learning my subjects	72%	59%	76%	63%	68%	33%

Table 5.4 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of effort. The mode scores were between 2 (mostly true) and 3 (sometimes true). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers did not vary widely.

Table 5.4: Statistical Analysis of Effort

EFFORT	*Mode*	*Variation*	*Std Deviation*
Q8. I don't mind working a long time at schoolwork that I find interesting	2	0.9	1
Q9. I try hard to make sure that I am good at my schoolwork	2	0.5	0.7
Q10. The harder the problem, the harder I try	3	0.6	0.8
Q11. I work hard to try and understand new things at school	2	0.6	0.7
Q12. I put enough effort into learning my subjects	2	0.6	0.8

The conclusion that can be drawn from questions 8, 9, 11 and 12 is that effort does generally tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of learners across all forms. However, the responses to question 10 indicate that when problems get hard, learners are not generally motivated to try harder.

5.2.1.3 Competition

Table 5.5 provides information on the importance of competition to the learners. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per form class.

Table 5.5: Competition

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q13. Coming first is very important to me	50%	46%	36%	37%	42%	58%
Q14. I work harder if I am trying to be better than others	74%	45%	46%	50%	54%	46%
Q15. I expect to do as well or even better than other learners in my class	75%	67%	57%	51%	63%	38%

The information from this table shows that the majority of the respondents do not feel coming first in class is important to them (Q13), they work harder if they are trying to be better than others (Q14) and expect to do as well or even better than other learners in their classes (Q15).

Table 5.6 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of competition. The mode scores were between 2 (mostly true) and 3 (sometimes true). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers did not vary widely in question 13 and 15. However, question 14 did show some variation.

Table 5.6: Statistical Analysis of Competition

COMPETITION	*Mode*	*Variance*	*Std deviation*
Q13. Coming first is very important to me	3	1	1
Q14. I work harder if I am trying to be better than others	2	1.1	1.1
Q15. I expect to do as well or even better than other learners in my class	2	0.8	0.9

The conclusion that can be drawn from questions 13, 14 and 15 is that some forms of competition can contribute to the motivation to learn of learners across all grade levels.

5.2.1.4 Social concern

Table 5.7 provides information on the importance of social concern to the learners. The table gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

Table 5.7: Social Concern

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q16. I enjoy helping others with their schoolwork	47%	65%	55%	63%	58%	42%
Q17. It makes me unhappy if my friends are not doing well at school	50%	52%	60%	75%	59%	41%

The information from this table shows that in most cases (with the exception of the Form 4s) the majority of the respondents enjoy helping others with their schoolwork (Q16), and are unhappy if their friends are not doing well at school (Q17).

Table 5.8 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of social concern. The mode scores were between 2 (mostly true) and 3 (sometimes true). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers do vary widely in question 17 but not in question 16.

Table 5.8: Statistical Analysis of Social Concern

SOCIAL CONCERN	*Mode*	*Variance*	*Std deviation*
Q16. I enjoy helping others with their schoolwork	2	0.8	0.9
Q17. It makes me unhappy if my friends are not doing well at school	2	1.1	1

The conclusion that can be drawn from questions 16 and 17 is that social concern does tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of learners across all forms.

5.2.1.5 Social power

Table 5.9 provides information on the importance of social power to the learners. The table gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

The information from this table shows overwhelmingly that the majority of the respondents do not work hard at school so that they will be put in charge of a group (Q18), do not work hard because they want to feel important in front of their school friends (Q19), and do not work hard because they want to be noticed in the class (Q20). However, the answers were different for question 21. For all the forms, with the exception of the Form 4s, the majority of the respondents indicated that their school friends do value success at school.

Table 5.9: Social Power

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q18. I work hard at school so that I will be put in charge of a group	20%	9%	11%	12%	13%	87%
Q19. I work hard at school because I want to feel important in front of my school friends	23%	13%	16%	0%	13%	87%
Q20. I work hard at school because I want the class to notice me	13%	10%	9%	25%	14%	86%
Q21. My school friends value success at school	49%	50%	54%	63%	54%	46%

Table 5.10 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of social power. The mode scores were between 3 (sometimes true) and 4 (not at all). The variation and standard deviation scores showed that the answers do not vary widely.

Table 5.10: Statistical Analysis of Social Power

SOCIAL POWER	*Mode*	*Variance*	*Std Deviation*
Q18. I work hard at school so that I will be put in charge of a group	4	0.7	0.8
Q19. I work hard at school because I want to feel important in front of my school friends	4	0.7	0.8
Q20. I work hard at school because I want the class to notice me	4	0.5	0.7
Q21. My school friends value success at school	2	0.9	0.9

The conclusion that can be drawn from questions 18, 19, 20 and 21 is that social power does not tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of learners.

5.2.1.6 Affiliation

Table 5.11 provides information on the importance of affiliation to the learners. The table gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

Table 5.11: Affiliation

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q22. I do my best work at school when I am working in a group	40%	32%	40%	12%	31%	69%
Q23. I try to work with friends as much as possible at school and after school	22%	32%	29%	25%	27%	73%
Q24. I prefer to work alone	73%	61%	58%	63%	64%	36%

The information from this table shows that the majority of the respondents do not do their best work when in a group (Q22) and do not try to work with friends at and after school (Q23). The answers to question 24 confirm these findings as the majority of respondents in each form indicated that they prefer to work alone.

Table 5.12 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of affiliation. The average and the mode scores were between 2 (mostly true) and 3 (sometimes true). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers do not vary widely.

Table 5.12: Statistical Analysis of Affiliation

AFFILIATION	*Average*	*Mode*	*Variance*	*Std Deviation*
Q22. I do my best work at school when I am working in a group	2.7	3	0.8	0.9
Q23. I try to work with friends as much as possible at school and after school	2.9	3	0.6	0.8
Q24. I prefer to work alone	2.1	2	0.9	0.9

The conclusion that can be drawn from these set of questions (as determined by questions 22, 23 and 24) is that affiliation does not tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of learners across all the forms.

5.2.1.7 Token

Table 5.13 provides information on the importance of token to the learners. The table gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

The information from this table shows that the majority of the respondents do not work hard in class for rewards from the teacher (Q25) but do work hard in class for rewards from their parents (Q26). The majority of the respondents consider that the subject matter is not as important as the grades received (Q27) but do feel that understanding the subject matter does give them a sense of accomplishment (Q28). The majority of the respondents do not necessarily like the subjects that challenge them (Q29); however they do find learning interesting (Q30).

Table 5.13: Token

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q25. I work hard in class for rewards from the teacher	27%	17%	71%	25%	35%	65%
Q26. I work hard in class for rewards from my parents	60%	65%	56%	25%	52%	49%
Q27. The subject matter I learn is more important to me than the grades I receive	43%	43%	38%	63%	47%	53%
Q28. Understanding my subjects gives me a sense of accomplishment	94%	91%	93%	88%	92%	9%
Q29. I like the subjects that challenge me	51%	50%	45%	37%	46%	54%
Q30. I find learning my subjects interesting	50%	46%	65%	50%	53%	47%
Q31. Earning good grades in my subjects is important to me	61%	91%	67%	63%	71%	30%

Table 5.14 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of token. The mode scores were between 1 (always true) and 4 (not at all). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers do not vary widely in question 25, 27, 28, 30 and 31. However in questions 26 and 29 the answers are either equal to 1 or greater indicating that the answers do vary.

Table 5.14: Statistical Analysis of Token

TOKEN	*Mode*	*Variance*	*Std Deviation*
Q25. I work hard in class for rewards from the teacher	4	0.9	0.9
Q26. I work hard in class for rewards from my parents	1	1.3	1.1
Q27. The subject matter I learn is more important to me than the grades I receive	3	0.8	0.9
Q28. Understanding my subjects gives me a sense of accomplishment	1	0.4	0.6
Q29. I like the subjects that challenge me	3	0.9	1
Q30. I find learning my subjects interesting	3	0.7	0.8
Q31. Earning good grades in my subjects is important to me	1	0.5	0.7

The conclusion that can be drawn from this set of questions (as determined by questions 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, and 31) is that certain elements of token do tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of learners across the different forms.

5.2.1.8 Praise

Table 5.15 provides information on the importance of praise to the learners. The table gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

The information from this table shows that the majority of the respondents find that praise from teachers is important to them (Q32) - however these scores were marginal and the mean score was probably affected by the high Upper 6^{th} score; praise from friends for good schoolwork is not important to them (Q33); praise in general is not important (Q34); praise from parents for good work is important (Q35), and rewards rather than praise for good work is preferred (Q36).

Table 5.15: Praise

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q32. Praise from my teachers for my good school work is important to me	46%	47%	49%	75%	54%	46%
Q33. Praise from my friends for my good school work is important to me	30%	32%	33%	25%	30%	70%
Q34. At school I work best when I am praised	33%	27%	35%	24%	30%	70%
Q35. Praise from my parents for good school work is important to me	73%	70%	76%	76%	74%	26%
Q36. I prefer to receive praise for good work rather than rewards	44%	32%	35%	50%	40%	60%

Table 5.16 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of praise. The mode scores were between 1 (always true) and 4 (not at all). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers do not vary widely in Q25, Q27, Q28, Q30 and Q31.

Table 5.16: Statistical Analysis of Praise

Q32. Praise from my teachers for my good schoolwork is important to me	2.5	3	0.9	0.9
Q33. Praise from my friends for my good schoolwork is important to me	2.9	3	0.9	0.9
Q34. At school I work best when I am praised	3	4	1	1
Q35. Praise from my parents for good schoolwork is important to me	1.9	1	1	1
Q36. I prefer to receive praise for good work rather than rewards	2.7	3	1	1

The conclusion that can be drawn from this set of questions (as determined by questions 32, 33, 34, 35 and 36) is that only praise from parents contributes to the motivation to learn of learners across all forms.

5.2.1.9 Goals

Table 5.17 provides information on the importance of goals to the learners. The table gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

Table 5.17: Goals

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q37. I think about how the subjects I learn will be helpful to me	85%	75%	88%	100%	87%	13%
Q38. I think about how learning my subjects at school can help me get a good job	89%	86%	89%	75%	85%	15%

The information from this table shows that the majority of the respondents think about how the subjects they learn will be helpful to them (Q37), and how learning their subjects at school can help them get a good job (Q38).

Table 5.18 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of goals. The average and the mode scores were between 1 (always true) and 2 (mostly true). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers do not vary widely.

Table 5.18: Statistical Analysis of Goals

GOALS	*Mode*	*Variance*	*Std Deviation*
Q37. I think about how the subjects I learn will be helpful to me	1	0.7	0.8
Q38. I think about how learning my subjects at school can help me get a good job	1	0.5	0.7

The conclusion that can be drawn from this set of questions (as determined by questions 37 and 38) is that goals do contribute to the motivation to learn of all learners across all forms.

5.2.10 Self-determination, self-efficacy and self-regulation

Table 5.19 provides information on the importance of self-determination, self-efficacy and self-regulation to the learners. The table gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per form class.

The information from this table shows that the majority of the respondents enjoy learning (Q39), believe they can master the necessary knowledge and skills in their subjects (Q40), are confident that they will do well in the subjects they take (Q41) and use strategies to ensure they will learn their subjects (Q42). Interestingly, the majority of the respondents acknowledged that they do not prepare well for their tests (Q43). The majority of the respondents also acknowledged that it is their fault when they fail a test (Q44) - this also fits in with the responses to question 46 where the respondents overwhelmingly acknowledged that it is not the teacher's fault if they fail a test.

Table: 5.19: Self-determination

	Positive responses (Always true and Mostly true)					*Negative responses (Sometimes true and Not at all)*
	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6L	Form 6U	Mean	Mean
Q39. I enjoy learning	71%	54%	63%	76%	66%	34%
Q40. I believe I can master the necessary knowledge and skills in my subjects	92%	78%	93%	63%	82%	19%
Q41. I am confident I will do well in the subjects I take	79%	72%	90%	76%	79%	21%
Q42. I use strategies that ensure I learn my subjects well	64%	52%	55%	50%	55%	45%
Q43. I prepare well for tests	48%	29%	33%	24%	34%	67%
Q44. It is my fault when I fail a test	76%	63%	80%	50%	67%	33%
Q45. It is my fault if I do not understand my subjects	47%	41%	47%	37%	43%	57%
Q46. It is the teacher's fault when I fail a test	26%	9%	6%	24%	16%	84%
Q47. It is the teacher's fault if I do not understand my subjects	33%	11%	16%	12%	18%	82%
Q48. If I am having trouble with my subjects, I try to figure out why	78%	57%	78%	88%	75%	25%

The answers to question 45 and question 47 are contradictory as the majority of the learners state that it is not their fault if they do not understand their subjects, but in question 47 they also stated that it is not the teacher's fault if they do not understand their subjects. The

majority of the respondents also stated that they try to figure out why they are having trouble with their subjects (Q48).

Table 5.20 shows the statistical analysis of the various questions under the theme of self-determination. The mode scores were between 1 (always true) and 4 (not at all). The variation and standard variation scores showed that the answers do not vary widely.

Table 5.20: Statistical Analysis of Self-determination

SELF-DETERMINATION	*Mode*	*Variance*	*Std Deviation*
Q39. I enjoy learning	2	0.7	0.8
Q40. I believe I can master the necessary knowledge and skills in my subjects	2	0.5	0.7
Q41. I am confident I will do well in the subjects I take	1	0.6	0.8
Q42. I use strategies that ensure I learn my subjects well	2	0.8	0.9
Q43. I prepare well for tests	3	0.6	0.8
Q44. It is my fault when I fail a test	1	0.9	0.9
Q45. It is my fault if I do not understand my subjects	3	0.9	0.9
Q46. It is the teacher's fault when I fail a test	4	0.7	0.9
Q47. It is the teacher's fault if I do not understand my subjects	3	0.7	0.8
Q48. If I am having trouble with my subjects, I try to figure out why	2	0.8	0.9

The conclusion that can be drawn from this set of questions (as determined by questions 39 to 48) is that self-determination, self-efficacy and self-regulation do tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of learners across the forms.

Table 5.21 summarises the findings from the structured questionnaire regarding answering the first sub-question (see 1.2.3). The following key can be used in this table:

Positive Answer *'Always true' and 'Mostly true'*	Negative Answer *'Sometimes true' and 'Not at all'*	50% Positive Answer 50% Negative Answer

Table 5.21: An overall summary of the findings from the structured questionnaire for sub-question 1

	Question Numbers	*Form 4*	*Form 5*	*Form L6*	*Form U6*	*OVERALL*
Task	5					
	6					
	7					
Effort	8					
	9					
	10					
	11					
	12					
Competition	13					
	14					
	15					
Social Concern	16					
	17					
Social power	18					
	19					
	20					
	21					
Affiliation	22					
	23					
	24					
Token	25					
	26					
	27					
	28					
	29					
	30					
	31					
Praise	32					
	33					
	34					
	35					
	36					
Goals	37					
	38					
Self-determination	39					
	40					
	41					
	42					
	43					
	44					
	45					
	46					
	47					
	48					

5.3 RESULTS FROM THE STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE WITH REGARD TO ANSWERING SUB-QUESTION 2

In this section of the chapter the results of the structured questionnaire are discussed in so far as it answers sub-question 2.

5.3.1 Sub-question 2: What is the relationship between culture and the motivation to learn?

5.3.1.1 Task involvement

Table 5.22 provides information on the importance of task involvement for the different nationalities of learners. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality (see 5.2.1). Due to the overwhelming positive responses on task involvement in all nationalities, the negative responses were not analysed per nationality.

Table 5.22: Task Involvement

Nationality	**Q5:** I like being given the chance to do something again to make it better (%)	**Q6:** I try harder when the work is interesting (%)	**Q7:** I like to see that I am improving in my school work (%)
South Africa	84	89	96
Botswana	89	100	100
Zimbabwe	57	94	94
Zambia	67	100	100
Mozambique	50	50	50
Malawi	78	78	89
Nigeria	50	100	100
Namibia	100	100	100
Tanzania	86	100	100
Kenya	100	100	100
Congo	80	80	100
Cameroon	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100	100

The information from this table shows that task involvement does tend to contribute to the motivation to learn of the majority of the participants of all nationalities. This corresponds to the overall task involvement figures in Table 5.3. The nationalities that show the greatest positive response are Namibians, Kenyans, Cameroons, Philippine, Swazi, Dutch/Tanzanian and South African. The nationality showing the lowest responses are Mozambicans where the responses were split.

5.3.1.2 Effort

Table 5.23 provides information on the importance of effort for the learners. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses as well as the responses per nationality.

Table 5.23: Effort

Nationality	**Q8:** I don't mind working a long time at schoolwork that I find interesting (%)	**Q9:** I try hard to make sure that I am good at my schoolwork (%)	**Q10:** The harder the problem, the harder I try (%)	**Q11:** I work hard to try and understand new things at school (%)	**Q12:** I put enough effort into learning my subjects (%)
South Africa	63	74	65	67	67
Botswana	67	67	67	78	78
Zimbabwe	62	82	56	76	76
Zambia	100	66	67	67	33
Mozambique	100	100	100	50	100
Malawi	78	89	78	100	67
Nigeria	50	100	100	50	50
Namibia	100	50	100	50	50
Tanzania	86	100	71	71	71
Kenya	100	100	100	100	100
Congo	80	66	80	80	80
Cameroon	100	100	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100	100	100	100

The information from this table shows that effort does tend to contribute to the motivation to learn as the majority of the respondents of most of the nationalities do not mind working a

long time at interesting schoolwork (Q8), try hard to make sure they are good at their schoolwork (Q9), try hard to understand new things at school (Q11) and feel they put enough effort into learning their subjects (Q12). However, the Mozambican and Kenyan respondents answered negatively to most of these questions. Most nationalities answered question 10 with a negative response.

5.3.1.3 Competition

Table 5.24 provides information on the importance of competition for learners from various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

Table 5.24: Competition

Nationality	**Q13**: Coming first is very important to me (%)	**Q14**: I work harder if I am trying to be better than others (%)	**Q15:** I expect to do as well or even better than other learners in my class (%)
South Africa	59	54	63
Botswana	56	89	56
Zimbabwe	56	74	79
Zambia	100	100	67
Mozambique	50	50	100
Malawi	56	56	78
Nigeria	100	100	50
Namibia	100	100	100
Tanzania	100	100	71
Kenya	100	100	100
Congo	60	60	60
Cameroon	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100	100

The information from this table shows that most of the nationalities do not feel that coming first in class is important to them (Q13); they work harder if they are trying to be better than others (Q14), and they expect to do as well or even better than other learners in their classes (Q15).

5.3.1.4 Social concern

Table 5.25 provides information on the importance of social concern for learners from various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

Table 5.25: Social Concern

Nationality	**Q16:** I enjoy helping others with their schoolwork (%)	**Q17:** It makes me unhappy if my friends are not doing well at school (%)
South Africa	63	63
Botswana	56	56
Zimbabwe	53	59
Zambia	67	67
Mozambique	50	100
Malawi	67	56
Nigeria	100	50
Namibia	100	100
Tanzania	71	71
Kenya	100	100
Congo	80	60
Cameroon	100	100
Philippines	100	100
Swazi	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100

The information from this table shows that most of the respondents in most of the nationalities do not enjoy helping others with schoolwork (Q16), and are not unhappy if their school friends are not doing well at school (Q17).

5.3.1.5 Social power

Table 5.26 provides information on the importance of social power for learners from various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

Table 5.26: Social Power

Nationality	**Q18:** I work hard at school so that I will be put in charge of a group (%)	**Q19:** I work hard at school because I want to feel important in front of my friends **(%)**	**Q20:** I work hard at school because I want the class to notice me (%)	**Q21:** My school friends value success at school (%)
South Africa	88	86	91	55
Botswana	89	89	100	56
Zimbabwe	88	71	85	53
Zambia	100	100	100	67
Mozambique	50	50	50	50
Malawi	67	78	67	56
Nigeria	100	100	100	50
Namibia	100	100	100	50
Tanzania	57	57	86	86
Kenya	100	100	100	100
Congo	100	100	100	40
Cameroon	100	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100	100	100

The information from this table shows that most of the respondents in all the different nationalities are not motivated by the thought of being put in charge of a group (Q18) or looking important in front of their friends (Q19). Respondents of only one nationality (Cameroonian) answered positively to question 20; otherwise most of the respondents from all the other nationalities responded that they do not work hard because they want the class to notice them. The responses were mixed for question 21 with most of the Botswanan, Zimbabwean, Tanzanian, Kenyan, Cameroonian and Philippine respondents answering that their school friends do not value success at school.

5.3.1.6 Affiliation

Table 5.27 provides information on the importance of affiliation for learners from various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

Table 5.27: Affiliation

Nationality	**Q22:** I do my best work at school when I am in a group (%)	**Q23:** I try to work with friends as much as possible at school and after school (%)	**Q24:** I prefer to work alone (%)
South Africa	60	72	63
Botswana	78	67	67
Zimbabwe	68	74	74
Zambia	100	100	100
Mozambique	50	50	100
Malawi	56	56	56
Nigeria	100	100	100
Namibia	100	100	100
Tanzania	86	86	57
Kenya	100	100	100
Congo	80	80	60
Cameroon	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	76	85	75

The information from this table shows that most of the respondents in most of the nationalities, except for Malawians and Namibians, do not do their best work when in a group (Q22) and prefer to work alone (Q24). Most of the respondents in most of the nationalities indicated that they do not try to work with friends at school or after school (Q23).

5.3.1.7 Token

Table 5.28 provides information on the importance of token for learners from various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

Table 5.28: Token

Nationality	**Q25:** I work hard in class for rewards from the teacher (%)	**Q26:** I work hard in class for rewards from my parents (%)	**Q27:** The subject matter I learn is more important to me than the grades I receive (%)	**Q28:** Understanding my subjects gives me a sense of accomplishment (%)	**Q29:** I like the subjects that challenge me (%)	**Q30:** I find learning my subjects interesting (%)	**Q31:** Earning good grades in my subjects is important to me (%)
South Africa	81	54	52	95	50	50	89
Botswana	100	56	67	89	56	56	100
Zimbabwe	62	65	59	91	50	62	91
Zambia	100	67	67	100	67	67	100
Mozambique	100	100	50	50	50	50	50
Malawi	56	89	56	78	89	56	100
Nigeria	100	50	100	50	50	50	50
Namibia	100	50	50	100	100	50	50
Tanzania	57	86	57	86	71	57	86
Kenya	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Congo	100	60	80	100	100	60	80
Cameroon	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The information from this table shows that most of the respondents in most nationalities indicated that they do not work hard in class for rewards from the teacher (Q25); however they do work hard in class for rewards from their parents (Q26). Most of the respondents in most of nationalities like subjects that challenge them (Q29), find learning their subjects interesting (Q30), and feel that earning good grades in their subjects is important to them (Q31). Most of the respondents in all of the nationalities indicated that understanding their subjects gives them a sense of accomplishment (Q28). The respondents from the different nationalities were split on their answers to question 27 which examined whether the subject matter they learn is more important to them than the grades they receive. The respondents from Botswana, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Nigeria, Tanzania, Kenya, Swaziland and

Dutch/Tanzania responded negatively to this question by saying that the grades they receive are more important to them than the subject matter.

5.3.1.8 Praise

Table 5.29 provides information on the importance of praise to the learners from the various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

Table 5.29: Praise

Nationality	**Q32:** Praise from my teachers for my good schoolwork is important to me (%)	**Q33:** Praise from my friends for my good schoolwork is important to me (%)	**Q34:** At school I work best when I am praised (%)	**Q35:** Praise from my parents for good schoolwork is important to me (%)	**Q36:** I prefer to receive praise for good schoolwork rather than rewards (%)
South Africa	59	72	70	67	67
Botswana	56	56	78	78	56
Zimbabwe	59	74	76	85	53
Zambian	100	67	67	100	67
Mozambique	100	100	50	100	100
Malawi	56	56	67	78	67
Nigeria	100	100	100	100	100
Namibia	100	50	100	100	100
Tanzania	71	86	57	100	57
Kenya	100	100	100	100	100
Congo	60	80	60	80	100
Cameroon	100	100	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100	100	100	100

The information from this table shows that most of the respondents from most of the nationalities indicated that praise from their teachers for good schoolwork is important to them (Q32), praise from their friends for good schoolwork is not important to them (Q33), praise does not makes them work at their best (Q34), praise from their parents is important to them (Q35), and rewards rather than praise are preferred for good work (Q36).

5.3.1.9 Goals

Table 5.30 provides information on the importance of goals to the learners from the various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

Table 5.30: Goals

Nationality	**Q37:** I think about how the subjects I learn will be helpful to me (%)	**Q38:** I think about how learning my subjects at school can help me get a good job (%)
South Africa	81	89
Botswana	67	78
Zimbabwe	91	79
Zambian	67	100
Mozambique	50	100
Malawi	89	89
Nigeria	100	50
Namibia	100	100
Tanzania	71	86
Kenya	100	100
Congo	100	80
Cameroon	100	100
Philippines	100	100
Swazi	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100

The information from this table shows that most of the respondents from most of the nationalities indicated that they think about how the subjects they learn will help them (Q37), and they think about how learning their subjects at school can help them get a good job (Q38).

5.3.1.10 Self-determination/self-efficacy/self-regulation

Table 5.31 provides information on the importance of self-determination/self-efficacy/self-regulation to the learners from the various nationalities. It gives an indication of the percentage of respondents (n=201) in each of the categories ranging from positive responses to negative responses per nationality.

The information from this table shows that most of the respondents in most of the nationalities indicated that they do like learning (Q39), they believe they can master the necessary knowledge and skills in their subjects (Q40) and they are confident that they will do well in the subjects they take (Q41). The respondents in the different nationalities were split on whether they use strategies to ensure that they learn their subjects well (Q42). Most of the respondents in the different nationalities indicated that they do not prepare well for their tests (Q43), it is their fault when they fail a test (Q44), and it is not the fault of the teacher when they fail a test (Q46) or when they do not understand their subjects (Q47). Most of the respondents from most of the nationalities indicated that if they are having trouble with their subjects they try to figure out why (Q48).

Table 5.31: Self-determination

Nationality	**Q39:** I enjoy learning (%)	**Q40:** I believe I can master the necessary knowledge and skills in my subject (%)	**Q41:** I am confident I will do well in the subjects I take (%)	**Q42:** I use strategies that ensure I learn my subjects well (%)	**Q43:** I prepare well for tests (%)	**Q44:** It is my fault when I fail a test (%)	**Q45:** It is my fault if I do not understand my subjects (%)	**Q46:** It is the teacher's fault when I fail a test (%)	**Q47:** It is the teacher's fault if I do not understand my subjects (%)	**Q48:** If I am having trouble with my subjects, I try to figure out why (%)
South Africa	63	89	79	53	65	71	55	89	85	71
Botswana	67	100	78	67	56	89	56	78	78	78
Zimbabwe	62	53	79	74	56	76	53	76	76	71
Zambia	100	33	100	67	67	33	67	67	67	100
Mozambique	100	50	100	100	50	50	50	50	100	100
Malawi	67	78	89	67	67	78	78	89	56	56
Nigeria	100	100	100	50	50	50	50	100	50	50
Namibia	50	100	100	50	50	100	100	50	50	100
Tanzania	86	71	57	71	71	71	71	100	86	57
Kenya	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Congo	60	60	100	20	60	20	60	80	80	80
Cameroon	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Philippines	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Swazi	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Dutch/Tanzania	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 5.32 summarises the findings from the structured questionnaire. In order to look for possible relationships or trends in the data, the researcher decided to exclude from the analysis those nationalities like Swazi and Kenyan which were very poorly represented as it was felt that their answers could not be considered reliable. The researcher decided to only include those nationalities that were represented by five or more responses therefore only the respondents' answers from South Africa, Botswana, Zimbabwe (all Southern African countries) and Malawi, Tanzania and Congo (Central Africa) were analysed.

This table shows some similarities in what motivates these different cultures/nationalities. However, there are also some differences. The similarities that could be identified were:

- Theme: *Task Involvement* - all these particular nationalities are motivated by the chance to do something again to make it better (Q5), interesting work (Q6) and seeing an improvement in schoolwork (Q7),
- Theme: *Effort* - all these nationalities are motivated to make sure they are good at their schoolwork (Q9),
- Theme: *Effort* - all these nationalities are motivated enough to put effort into learning their subjects (Q12) - with question 9 and question 12 being related,
- All these nationalities scored positively in four out of five questions under the theme of Effort,
- Theme: *Social Power* - all these nationalities indicated that they are not motivated to work hard so that they will be put in charge of a group (Q18), to feel important in front of their friends (Q19) or for the class to notice them (Q20),
- Theme: *Token* - all these nationalities indicated that they are not motivated for rewards from their teachers (Q25),
- Theme: *Token* - all these nationalities indicated that understanding their subjects gives them a sense of accomplishment (Q28),
- Theme: *Token* - all these nationalities indicated that earning good grades is important to them (Q31),
- Theme: *Praise* - all these nationalities indicated that praise from their parents for good schoolwork is important to them (Q35),
- Theme: *Goals* - all these nationalities indicated that they think how the subjects they learn will be helpful to them (Q37) and how these subjects will help them get a good job (Q38),

- Theme: *Self-determination* - all these nationalities indicated that they like learning (Q39),
- Theme: *Self-determination* - all these nationalities show high degrees of self-efficacy and self-determination as they believe they can master the necessary knowledge (Q40) and that they will do well (Q41), and
- Theme: *Self-determination* - interestingly all these nationalities acknowledged that they do not prepare well for their tests (Q43), it is their fault if they do not pass a test (Q44 and Q46), it is not the teacher's fault if they do not understand their work (Q47) and that they do try and figure out why they are having trouble with their subjects (Q48).

Out of a total of forty-four questions asked in the questionnaire, only twenty-three questions (52%) were consistently answered the same by all six nationalities. The themes that had the greatest commonality were task, effort, social power, goals and self-determination/self-efficacy and self-regulation. The themes that showed very little commonality were competition, social concern, affiliation, token and praise.

The analysis of the results enabled the researcher to come to the following conclusion - there is a relationship between culture and the motivation to learn. If this was not the case then there would have been a higher percentage of commonality between the answers from the different nationalities.

The data also showed how difficult it is for a teacher to motivate all these different nationalities if they are in one class. A teacher may well have a class with majority South African learners, but could also include a Botswana, a Malawian, a couple of Zimbabwean learners and a Congolese learner. The above data shows that all these different nationalities are generally motivated by different factors, so what would the teacher then do?

Insert Table 5.32

5.4 RESULTS OF THE FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS WITH REGARD TO ANSWERING SUB-QUESTION 1 AND SUB-QUESTION 2

In this section of the chapter the results of the focus group interviews are discussed with regard to answering sub-question 1 and sub-question 2.

5.4.1 Motivation to work

When asked what motivates them to work, participants from Form 4 not only indicated extrinsic motivators but also intrinsic motivators. Responses included receipt of rewards, certificates, medals and trophies; parents paying high school fees; the privilege of going to a private school and getting a good education. One learner stated that 'If one is not prepared to work, then one may as well go to a government school' and 'for personal gain'.

Many of the participants of Form 4 also said that they are more inclined to study those subjects they like. One particular learner gave an example of a subject that he does not bother to study as he has personal problems with the teacher. He finds the teacher is impatient and pays no attention in the learner which he finds very demotivating. As a result, he rather chooses to do other activities (like watch TV) rather than study for this particular subject.

Participants in Form 4 mentioned the following as factors that stop them from working: 'laziness', 'Noise in the hostels stops me working.' 'Distractions like cell phones stop me working.' 'Socialising with my friends stops me working.' 'Teachers not pushing us enough in class and this is what stops me working.' 'We are allowed to do what we like in class, therefore very little work takes place and I think this is what stops me working.'

The Form 5 participants gave mixed responses regarding their motivation to work. One respondent indicated that he studies because he does not want to fail whilst another learner said 'I will not study now as it is too late. I actually need teaching done again of the basics. I find that once the syllabus is finished then the teacher finishes teaching and does not assist any further.' Many of the learners did indicate that they would be more motivated to work if the school was quieter.

Participants in Form 6 indicated some external factors that cause demotivation - the following responses were given in this respect: 'I find some teachers demotivating.' 'Smart learners in the class demotivate me.' However, some internal aspects were also mentioned. One learner stated: 'I only work in subjects I like' and another commented 'Even if I try I still get low marks - this is why I do not work.' Many of the Form 6 learners did also acknowledge that distractions like their bed, the internet, laptops and TVs do stop them from studying. However, many of them are motivated to work because 'The thought of a test makes me study', 'Previous bad marks motivate me and make me study' and 'The exams at the end of the year make me study and motivate me.'

5.4.2 The influence of family and friends on the motivation to work

With regard to the influence of their family on their motivation to work, most of the Form 4s stated that their mother is the main motivator in their life. With regard to the influence of their friends on their motivation, most of the Form 4s stated that their friends, to a certain extent, do motivate them - however, they do not always find friends supportive. One learner stated that their friends do sleep a lot and when this happens, that particular learner does not feel like studying.

The participants in Form 5 gave many ways their parents have influenced their motivation. Some of these reasons are: 'My parents hit me' and 'My parents make me feel better - they encourage me and I get rewards for As and Bs.' However, one participant did indicate that his parents did not influence his motivation as he considered that 'motivation must come from inside me'. With regard to the influence of friends on motivation, most of the Form 5s stated that their friends do motivate them as their 'friends make failing normal' and 'Friends just laugh and then we have a zero party'!

The Lower 6th participants also gave many reasons as to how family influence their motivation. Some of these reasons are: 'My dad loved school - he accepts my abilities and just tells me to try my best. I do not want to disappoint him.' 'I want to show my parents gratitude by doing well at school.' 'I do not want to disappoint my parents.' 'My dad motivates me as he tells me stories about when he was at school' and 'My mom also motivates me as she tells me her dreams.' Nonetheless, there was one learner who did

acknowledge that his parents do not motivate him. He feels that ‘it is my life - if I mess it up then it is my problem.’

With regard to how friends motivate the respondents, the Lower 6th were very affirmative in answering this question. The different reasons given are: ‘I can pick up clues from people who are doing well.’ ‘We all worked together and passed chemistry, economics, physics and history last year. We even helped our friend (learner X) to pass. We pushed each other.’ ‘Friends comfort me when I fail.’ ‘My friend pushed me - she is like a “sister” to me’ and ‘Friends motivate me as I work hard to be able to help them. I also use friends when I have personal problems.’ However, one learner in this class stated that friends are of no value to her and do not influence her motivation as they take up time. She preferred home schooling where she could self-study. This particular learner is from Zimbabwe but has spent the last two years in Abu Dhabi where she was home-schooled.

This Lower 6th group also spoke about another member of their form group whom they feel does not need friends to do well (this particular learner, who is a high achiever, was not part of the focus group). He was described by the group as having nothing to lose and just ‘smashes school’ irrespective of friends.

The Upper 6th learners gave very comprehensive ways in which their families influence their motivation. One respondent stated that ‘My father does not ask what others got. He says that I must achieve what I want. My father sometimes pressurises me. He works hard to support me so I feel bad if I mess up. He is an inspiration. I only have one father (mother is dead). What happens if he dies - then what do I do - I find that this motivates me. When my mother was alive she never took stuff like cell phones away from me to punish me for bad marks. I appreciated that. My mother treated me like an adult. My father had a bad background. He came from a poor background and has done well. This also inspires me.’

Another respondent, when asked how family influence her motivation, said: ‘My aunt looks after me. I want to prove her wrong. She makes me feel stupid because all of her children are smart. She compares me to them. My uncle just tells me to work hard and rewards me. It also scares me if I mess up at school because then maybe I will not be successful in life.’

A third respondent in this particular group said ‘My mother motivated me (she is now dead). My father is remote and only ever says ‘I know you can do better.’ If my father confiscates things from me as punishment for doing badly, I will make a plan to get another of what has been confiscated. My mother also looked after all of us. She paid our school fees. She inspired me.’

The Upper 6th respondents also stated that friends influence their motivation. One learner stated that she depends on her friends. They say to her - ‘You know you can do better.’ Another learner said that her friends say ‘Do not worry, you will pass’ which she finds motivating. These respondents also spoke about how classmates can positively influence their motivation. They said: ‘I like revising as a group. In order for me to get a higher mark, I need to get help from classmates. Peer tutoring is helpful. If I work in groups of people I like, my self-esteem is not hurt. I do not like working with learner X - she makes me feel stupid.’ ‘Peers can often explain better than teachers.’ ‘I can work with certain people but I do not want to be put in groups of people I dislike’ and ‘I do not like working in groups. I can work in a group of up to two but we all need to be friends.’

5.4.3 The influence of teachers and school on the motivation to work

The Form 4s highlighted the following qualities teachers should have if they want to motivate learners - these qualities included being competent, able to teach, making learners work hard, being unconventional in teaching strategies so that ‘I always wonder what is coming next’, believing in the ability of learners, helpful, respectful, never favouring a particular learner, having high expectations of learners and controlling classes as it was considered by the learners that ‘it is the teacher’s responsibility to control the class as poor discipline in class leads to problems’. The Form 4s did state that they prefer a classroom which is learner-centred. However, one Form 4 learner did state that such a situation can lead to decreased discipline.

The Form 5s stated that they found the teachers and the school demotivating. The reasons they gave for saying this is that they find that some teachers try too hard and should rather just be themselves. Other teachers call out marks which one learner found embarrassing whilst another learner stated that some teachers ‘expose me regarding my friends and boyfriends which I find demeaning’. Some other reasons given by this group are that some

teachers say ‘good work, but....’, while some teachers use demeaning terms like calling learners ‘stupid’ or saying to learners that ‘Your grandmother is cleverer than you.’ One learner also discussed a particular teacher who has discipline problems in the class. This teacher is forever angry and regularly walks out of the class. This learner stated that ‘the teacher is playing ping pong with my head’ which he finds demotivating.

The Lower 6th learners stated that their various teachers have motivated them in many ways. In one case the learners wanted to show that the teacher was wrong because that particular teacher did not believe in them - this caused them to work hard. In another case, the learners stated that they were motivated by a particular teacher because ‘Teacher X made it personal. She hunted us down to make us do our French exam and university applications which we find motivating as she showed that she cared.’ The learners also spoke about another teacher they found very motivating. This particular teacher ‘praised for effort and even praised those learners at the bottom’.

On the other hand these same respondents also gave reasons why the school has not motivated them. They have the impression that the school ‘just wants our money’. They also find that the school does not help those average learners as they only focus on the bottom group. The learners also felt that the school is ‘piggy backing’ on the achievements of certain learners. One particular learner stated that the school took credit for his achievement even though no-one at the school ever helped him with the subject.

The Lower 6th learners said they would like a mixture of teacher- and learner-centred classrooms. The reason for this is that such classrooms allow for communication and interaction with some discipline. One learner quoted a class where there is no discipline as the teacher is not firm enough – the result being that no work is ever done.

The Upper 6th respondents stated that the school does not motivate them. They find that the school ‘just wants my money. If you pay your school fees then the school does not care what happens to you afterwards. The school calls you about your fees as if you can do something about it.’ An interesting point was also brought up by two learners from Zimbabwe and Zambia. These learners described the strict discipline they experienced in the schools in their respective countries. One of the learners stated that ‘I am more motivated to learn when there are strict controls and when I am forced to do something. I need to be put under pressure. In

Zambia there were strict rules allowing you to go from grade to grade and this forced me to work.' Both learners felt they would have done a lot better if they were back at school in Zimbabwe and Zambia.

The Upper 6th respondents also mentioned many reasons why they find the teachers at the school demotivating. One learner stated that 'A teacher sees that you are achieving an E - you want an A - the teacher then says that you should only aim for a C. I find this demoralising.' Another learner stated that 'A teacher is often a liability, not an asset - teachers complain too much that they have too much work and they cannot help with extra work. If I ask a question, the teacher should know the answer and not say how do you not know?' Other reasons given by these learners for finding the school demotivating are: 'I find that teachers indirectly say that you are stupid so you will never get better.' 'Teachers do not know the learners. Teacher X cannot distinguish Upper 6th learners from other forms. I also find teachers who use "do it" as offensive.' 'Teachers only know you if you do a bad thing and they expect the worst of you.' 'Teachers seem to think that learners should be of a high calibre - what happens if you are not?' and 'Some teachers do not care as long as they get paid.'

The Upper 6th learners talked about the schools they come from in Zambia and Zimbabwe which are very much teacher-centred. They did acknowledge that they prefer learner-centred classrooms as it is easier to communicate with the teacher and they are more easily able to express themselves. However, they did say that they worked harder in a teacher-centred classroom.

5.4.4 The role of competition in the motivation to learn

When the Form 5s were asked whether competition in class motivates them, there were varied responses. One learner said that competition in class does not motivate him as he never comes top in the class. He does not see why he should bother to learn if he always comes last. However, another learner said that competition does motivate him as he does not want to be last.

The Lower 6th learners stated that competition does not motivate them for the following reasons: 'I do not compete with others in my class as I am only worried about getting into university.' 'My aim is to reach my expectations and not to be top in the world.' 'I am not

motivated by the Top in the World prize'[1] and 'The best person to compete with is yourself' (this was from a learner who did home-schooling last year).

The Upper 6th learners also stated that competition does not motivate them. These learners stated that they are just relieved to pass so they do not really look at what marks others attain. They also acknowledged that they all have different expectations and 'a C grade for one learner is a pass whereas it is a fail for others'.

Even though most of the learners responded that they do not involve themselves in competition, many learners do 'chase' grades - this was confirmed by the Form 4s and Upper 6th learners who stated that the school heavily emphasises grades. The Upper 6th learners added that they chase grades because grades will get them to where they want to go which is university. They feel that it is important to get the grades now and use the knowledge later. One Upper 6th learner added that she chased grades like an 'A' or a 'B' because she wants to 'fit in' at the school.

5.4.5 The influence of culture on the motivation to learn

Many of the Form 4s agreed that culture does not make a difference in the school. One Form 4 added that they choose friends because of their personality and not their culture. Another learner mentioned that a teacher is a teacher irrespective of what culture they are.

The Form 5s all agreed that the nationality of a teacher does not make a difference. One learner added that a teacher is considered good because of their teaching technique and attitude rather than their culture. Another learner stated that the information and knowledge gained from the teacher is more important than the culture. However, one learner did add that teachers should get to know the nationalities of their learners.

The Lower 6th respondents named many advantages of the cultural diversity found at the school. One respondent stated that the 'different cultures make life interesting at school. We watch learner X doing Scottish dancing and learner Y speaking Setswana and it fascinates

[1] Every year the Cambridge Examination Board (which administers the IGCSE, AS and A level exams the learners write) publishes the names of those learners who have come top in South Africa and in the world in particular subjects. The school has received quite a few of these awards in the last five years.

me. It is boring with one culture.' Another learner said that 'Going to a school with many cultures teaches you tolerance' and added that more cultures are needed at the school 'so as to make it more international'.

All the Lower 6th respondents stated that 'The culture of the teacher is not important. It is rather what the teacher knows as teacher knowledge is the most important. A teacher needs to be understood by the learners.' Other learners emphasised this point by saying that 'Some teachers are respected as they have the formula to be able to teach and get you to pass.'

The Upper 6th also agreed that culture does not make a difference. They feel that globalisation has made them look more at the person and not at the nationality. One learner added that they look more at the background of the person than the colour or culture of the person. One Zimbabwean learner also stated that she did not connect any better with the Zimbabwean teachers at the school than any other teacher.

In conclusion Table 5.33 shows the factors that were generally identified by the respondents during the focus group interviews as motivators and demotivators.

Table 5.33: Motivating and demotivating factors identified during the focus group interviews

Motivators	***Demotivators***
Rewards, certificates, medals and trophies	Noise in the hostel/school Distractions like cell phones, girls, internet and laptops
Parents paying high school fees	Teachers not pushing learners enough
Privilege of going to a private school	Poor discipline in class resulting in no work being done
Working for themselves/for personal gain	Smart learners in the class
Subjects that are enjoyable/interesting	Continuous failure and low marks
Mothers and fathers	Teachers who are not prepared to go the 'extra mile'
Empathetic friends	Low marks
Working in groups of friends	Bossy teachers
Competent teachers	Being forced to give up sport
Do not want to fail	Teachers who do not care
Thought of a test/exam	School does not help the 'average' learners, only the low achievers
Being made to work hard	Teachers who demean learners
Good discipline in the classroom	School appearing as if it is only interested in school fees
Privileges	Lack of discipline in the classroom
Teachers who care and believe in their learners	Competition in class
The future - going to university	
Classrooms where there is communication and interaction	
Group work as long as the members of the groups are of similar ability	
Physical punishment	
Teachers who care	
Competition in class	

At the conclusion of the focus group interviews with the Upper 6th, one learner asked that this be added to the chapter: 'If a human wants to compete they will not succeed. If a human wants to achieve and they work for themselves, they will achieve. Success is achieved through labour'.

5.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LITERATURE AND THE RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

In the second and third chapters the concept of motivation and the relationship between culture and motivation was fully explored as part of the literature review. Some of this theory can be linked to the findings of the empirical study which were outlined in this chapter. Certain of these identified themes are discussed below.

5.5.1 Interest

In the literature review the concept of interest and its relationship with motivation was explored (see 2.6.4). It was noted that learners are more motivated to study topics they find interesting and teachers need to capitalise on this (Eggen & Kauchak 2010:309). This point was highlighted in the results of the empirical study where the majority of the respondents stated that they try harder when the work is more interesting (see Table 5.1). The majority of the respondents also stated that they do not mind working a long time at schoolwork they find interesting (see 5.2.1.2). In the focus group interviews many of the Form 4s said they were more inclined to study those subjects they like (see 5.4.1) and a 6th former said 'I only work in the subjects I like' (see 5.4.1).

5.5.2 Self-efficacy

Certain aspects concerning self-efficacy were identified in the literature review. It was noted that self-efficacy is one of the cognitive motivational forces and is represented by an 'I can do this' judgement showing that one can cope with the situation at hand (O'Donnell *et al*. 2005:140) (see Table 2.1). Adolescents who show a high degree of self-efficacy often say 'I know that I will be able to learn the material in this class' and 'I expect to do well in this subject' (Santrock 2001:430) (see 2.6.2).

These points were highlighted in the empirical study where the majority of the respondents stated that they believe they can master the necessary knowledge and skills in their subjects and they are confident they will do well in the subjects they take (see Table 5.24). The majority of the respondents also stated that they use strategies to ensure that they learn their subjects well (see Table 5.19).

5.5.3 Attributions

Attributions were discussed at length in the literature study. Attributions, according to O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:140), are one of the cognitive motivational forces (see Table 2.1). Attributions are essentially explanations of why success or failure outcomes occur (McDevitt & Ormrod 2010:491) (see 2.7.3.2).

In the empirical study the respondents were asked about what they attribute success or failure to. The majority of these respondents stated that they attributed failure in a test to themselves (see Table 5.19). However, the majority of the respondents did say that they feel it is not their fault if they do not understand their subjects (see Table 5.19). It is therefore assumed that learners feel that it is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure that they understand their subjects.

5.5.4 Intrinsic motivation

In the literature review it was stated by O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:140) that intrinsic motivation is one of the motivational forces involving needs, feelings and strivings and is defined as an inherent desire to engage one's interests and to exercise and develop one's skills (see Table 2.1). An example of intrinsic motivation is the adolescent's inner drive to achieve good marks (Gouws *et al*. 2000:60). It was further stated that teachers would love to work with intrinsically motivated learners but this is not always the case (Charles & Senter 2008:82).

In the empirical study it was found that the majority of the respondents enjoy learning (see 5.19) which generally shows a high degree of intrinsic motivation. Most of the respondents stated that understanding their subjects gives them a sense of accomplishment (see Table 5.13). In the focus group interviews it was found, particularly amongst the 6th Form, that there was a great deal of intrinsic motivation being shown. One 6th former stated that 'My aim is to reach my expectations and not be top of the world' and 'The best person to compete with is yourself' (see 5.4.5).

5.5.5 Extrinsic motivation

In the literature review O'Donnell *et al.* (2005:140) defined extrinsic motivation as an environmentally created reason (such as a reward) to engage in a behaviour (see Table 2.1). Extrinsically motivated learners respond to incentives and rewards that are given to the individual (Charles & Senter 2008:82).

In the empirical study the learners were asked about rewards and praise (as forms of extrinsic motivation). The majority of the respondents indicated that they are not, in general, motivated for rewards from the teacher. However, they do work for rewards from their parents (see Table 5.17). The majority of the respondents also indicated that earning good grades in their subjects is more important to them than the subject matter (see Table 5.13).

With regard to praise, the majority of the respondents indicated that praise from their parents is more important than praise from their teachers, and they would rather receive rewards than praise for good work (see Table 5.15).

5.5.6 Achievement strivings

In the literature study O'Donnell *et al*. (2005:140) stated that achievement strivings refer to the eagerness to exert high effort when facing a standard of excellence (see Table 2.1). This definition fits in with that of Mwamwenda (2004) and Woolfolk (2007) who define motivation as being a point where the learner will find academic achievements meaningful and worthwhile and will try to benefit from them (Mwamwenda 2004:231; Woolfolk 2007:395) (see 2.5.2).

In the empirical study examples of achievement strivings were found. In the structured questionnaire the majority of the respondents indicated that they like being given the chance to do something again to make it better (see Table 5.1). The majority of the respondents also indicated that they work harder if they are trying to be better than others (see Table 5.5).

In the focus group interviews some of the Upper 6th respondents stated they chase good grades because they want to go to university (see 5.4.5).

5.5.7 Goals and the possible self

In the literature study the concept of goals and possible selves was examined. Learners often have long-term goals representing what they would like to be in the future (a possible self). Without this possible self, learners would struggle to be motivated to work (O'Donnell *et al*. 2005:156-157) (see 2.6.1.1).

Examples of possible selves were found in the empirical study. The 6th formers definitely showed in the research that they were more motivated than the Form 4 and Form 5s. This is possibly due to them having created possible selves - becoming a university learner. These learners realise that to get there, they must work at school. Examples of this are some of the Upper 6th respondents stating that they chase (good) grades because they want to go to university (see 5.4.4), and the Lower 6th respondents stating that most of them also have as their goal going to university (see 5.4.4).

5.5.8 Goals

A key feature of motivation that was identified in the literature study was goals. According to Suliman and McInerney (2006:246) goals direct and guide learners and are powerful motivators (see 2.6.1). Goals can generate enough motivation to move learners from their present states (of maybe failing) to an ideal state (of maybe passing) (O'Donnell *et al*. 2005:153) (see Figure 2.5). Adolescents can also have a variety of goals such as affective goals, task goals or cognitive goals (Brophy 2010:6) (see 2.6.1.2).

In the empirical study many examples of goals were given by the respondents. These goals were similar to those expressed in the literature study. In the focus group interviews one Form 5 respondent stated that he studies because he does not want to fail - therefore his goal is not to fail (see 5.4.1). Another 5th former said that he is motivated to work as he does not want to come last (see 5.4.4). Many of the 6th formers also indicated that they 'chase' grades as this will help them attain their goal which is to go to university (see 5.4.4). Another goal which was identified by many of the 6th formers was to pass their tests and exams. Some of the respondents said that 'the thought of a test/exam' and 'previous bad marks' makes them study (see 5.4.1).

Results from the structured questionnaire also highlight some of the goals the learners have. The majority of the respondents indicated that they pursue affective goals as they work hard for a reward (see Table 5.13), they pursue task goals as they work for grades (see Table 5.13) and they pursue cognitive goals as they try to understand their subjects (see Table 5.13).

5.5.9 Aspirations

In the literature review Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1999:51) noted that aspirations remain a key element of the conative process and are therefore necessary when trying to motivate a learner towards a goal (see 2.4.2 and Figure 2.2).

In the empirical study there were many examples of learners expressing their aspirations and these aspirations ultimately motivating them. As stated earlier, many of the 6th formers aspire to go to university (see 5.4.4) and are therefore more motivated to work than the lower forms. Another aspirations expressed by the 6th formers was their wish to be successful as they did not want to disappoint their respective families (see 5.4.2). Interestingly, the majority of the respondents also stated that their school friends value success at school (see Table 5.9). Therefore, many of the learners do aspire to be successful at school.

However there were some interesting results that emanated from the structured questionnaire concerning aspects that the learners do not aspire to. The majority of the respondents stated that coming first is not important to them. Therefore they do not aspire to status and recognition (see Table 5.5). A large majority of the respondents also stated that they are not motivated to work hard so they will be put in a group, look important in front of their friends or for the class to notice them therefore they again do not aspire to status and recognition (see Table 5.9).

5.5.10 Link between culture and motivation

In the literature review Rueda and Chen (2005:209,223) stated that research has shown that different ethnic groups differ in terms of their motivational beliefs (see 3.4.1). According to Ellsworth (2009:vii) motivation is culturally fused (see 3.4.1). It therefore follows, as maintained by Manning and Baruth (2004:270-271), that an understanding of the motivation of different cultural groups is essential if teaching is to be successful.

In the empirical study it was concluded, after a statistical analysis was done on the results of the structured questionnaire, that there is a relationship between culture and the motivation to learn. This was shown by the lack of cultural commonality in the answers to the questionnaire (see Table 5.32). In spite of this, results from the focus group interviews showed that the respondents did not find that culture influenced them at school (see 5.4.5).

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the empirical investigation was discussed. The results from the processing of the raw data were summarised. Different themes and categories were identified in each phase of the process. The results from the structured questionnaire and the focus group interviews revealed various factors that motivate the learners thus answering sub-question 1. The data that was gathered was further split into the different form classes showing what motivational factors are particular to a form. Results from the structured questionnaire were also used to investigate whether there is a relationship between culture and the motivation to learn. It was found that in the most part the different cultures are motivated by different factors (thus answering sub-question 2). It therefore follows that a teacher who has a class of culturally diverse learners will have to be aware of the different motivational factors of these different groups.

This chapter contributes to answering the research question by identifying the factors that motivate learners at the private school in question (which happens to be an example of a multicultural institution). In the next chapter a summary of the findings, the limitations of the study and the possibilities for further research will be discussed.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the findings of the empirical study. In order to answer the main research question and the two sub-questions identified in the first chapter (see 1.2.3), learners in Form 4 through to Upper 6th were asked to complete a structured questionnaire and to participate in a focus group interview. The purpose of these two research methods was to try and identify factors which motivate these learners to learn, and to try and identify whether culture does in fact influence the motivation of these learners. The questions used in the focus group interviews were based on the findings of the questionnaire.

In this chapter, a summary of the findings of the entire study will be presented. The findings of the literature review and the empirical study will be summarised, compared and interpreted. This will be followed by a discussion of the limitations of the study, and recommendations and suggestions for further research will be made.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

As explained in the first chapter, motivation is identified as one of the most important factors influencing how much learners will learn, how successful they will be at school and how much they will accomplish throughout their lives (Eggen & Kauchak 2007:298; Reid 2007:14). According to Charles and Senter (2008:80) all learners, within a year of entering school, will have distinguished between school activities that interest them and ones that do not. It is from this point onwards that teachers need to 'step in' and start to motivate learners so that their interests correspond with what teachers are required to teach. This is a challenge for any teacher, but is even more challenging for those teachers who have classes comprising of learners from diverse cultural backgrounds (Salili *et al*. 2001:xiii).

As a teacher in a school which has learners from a diversity of cultures, the researcher became interested in understanding why some learners appear motivated to learn, whilst others could be called unmotivated as they merely 'bide their time' waiting for the bell to ring and the school day to finish. It is incredibly difficult to motivate such learners, but it is necessary if teachers are to fulfil their mandate. How exactly is a teacher supposed to do this?

The first step is to find out what motivates these learners. If the teacher has a multicultural class, the second step would be to examine whether the culture of the learners influences their motivation as it would be inappropriate for a teacher to implement a certain motivational practice (such as encouraging competition on an individual basis) if that particular culture prefers competition to be done in a group setting (see 3.4.2.1). If the teacher is not sensitive to the different cultures of the learners, the motivation of such learners will rapidly diminish due to a clash of these cultures (Zusho & Pintrich 2003:42-43). This could lead to poor results, discipline problems and general dissatisfaction from both the teacher and the learners. This point is reiterated by Charles and Senter (2008:80) who state that if you ask what troubles teachers the most about their jobs, they will mention these specific problems. It is therefore the view of the researcher that motivation should play a significant role in the life of a learner if that learner is to be successful at school.

Much research has been done on what motivates a learner to learn. However, the researcher could find very little on the factors that motivate a learner to learn in a multicultural classroom in Africa, let alone South Africa. The researcher, as a teacher in South Africa, therefore thought a need existed for such research to be done. This need translated into the following statement of the research problem (see 1.2.3). This is recapped for the benefit of the reader:

Some learners in a multicultural FET phase class are unmotivated to learn.

This statement of the problem led to the development of the research question:

What motivates learners in a multicultural FET phase class to learn?

and the sub-questions:

Sub-question 1: *What factors contribute to a learner's motivation to learn in a multicultural classroom?* and

Sub-question 2: *What is the relationship between culture and the motivation to learn?*

As stated in the first chapter (see 1.2.4) the aims of the research were: first, to do a literature study to determine the nature of the motivation to learn especially as it relates to learners in a multicultural classroom. The aspects covered in the literature study were:

- adolescents and the various aspects involved in adolescent development such as conative and volitional development (see 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4),
- the nature of motivation with regard to goal-setting and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (see 2.5, 2.6.1 and 2.7.2.3),
- the various perspectives on and related sources of motivation (see 2.7),
- culture and diversity and their connection to multicultural education (see 3.2 and 3.3), and
- the relationship between culture and motivation (see 3.4).

The second aim of the study was to do an empirical investigation to determine what motivates FET phase learners to learn in a multicultural classroom and the role played by culture in influencing this motivation.

Each of these aims is an important part of the research findings and will be integrated and explained in detail in the next section (see 6.3). Before moving to this next section, a brief review of the research process with reference to the above mentioned research question, in relation to each chapter, will be outlined.

In the first chapter the reader was introduced to the school, a private boarding and day school in the North-West Province, where the research took place. This school was selected because of its culturally diverse learner population (see 1.3.3) which fitted in with the theme of the research question. How the data was collected and analysed (see 1.3.4 and 1.3.5) was briefly outlined in this chapter along with a description of the main concepts that would be used in the study (see 1.5). An outline of the entire study was given at the end of this chapter (see 1.6).

The purpose of the second chapter was to undertake a literature study into the total development of learners in the FET phase while focusing on their specific development with regard to motivation. The different aspects in the development of the adolescent were investigated (see 2.3). One of these aspects, namely conative development, was then analysed

in more depth (see 2.4.1) as motivation was recognised to be a key element of conative development. Other key elements of conative development were identified as aspirations, choice, will and goals (see 2.4.2). Goal-setting was found to be an important part of the adolescent's conative life as well as a powerful way of motivating an adolescent (see 2.4.2). The terms 'motivation' and 'motivation to learn' (see 2.5.1 and 2.5.2) were then explored. This was followed by an examination of four key features of motivation namely goals, self-efficacy, self-regulation and interest (see 2.6). The chapter ended with a detailed analysis of the various perspectives which identify the different sources of motivation in an adolescent (see 2.7). Throughout the chapter the link between conative development and motivation was emphasized.

Chapter Three focused on examining the motivation to learn of FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom. The terms 'culture', 'cultural diversity' and 'micro-' and 'macro-cultures' were examined (see 3.2). The concept of 'multicultural education' was then explored as multicultural education is an integral part of the diverse world we live in (see 3.3). The chapter ended with a detailed look at the link between culture and motivation (see 3.4.1) and the various motivational practices of learners belonging to different cultural groups (see 3.4.2). Evidence in the literature suggests that learners from different cultures exhibit different motivational tendencies thus forming a link to the research question, the two sub-questions and the aims of the study as identified above.

In the fourth chapter an outline of the research design and methodology used and the rationale for using these methods was given. The researcher used a mixed methods approach (see 4.4.3). The instruments used for data collection (the questionnaire and the focus group interviews) and the justification behind the use of these instruments were explained in detail (see 4.5). The questionnaire was compiled using other questionnaires and the findings from the literature study (see 4.5.1). A pilot study was conducted in order to refine the questionnaire (see 4.5.1.3). The purpose of the questionnaire was firstly to gather information on the factors that motivate learners (so that sub-question 1 could be answered), and secondly, to provide data that could be statistically investigated to answer whether culture does influence the motivation of learners to learn (thus answering sub-question 2). Several focus group interviews were also conducted (see 4.5.2.2). The purpose of these interviews was to gather more 'respondent rich' data which could be fed into the answering of the two sub-questions and ultimately the research question. The most important aspect regarding the

empirical research was to ensure that ethical considerations were maintained at all times and that the researcher maintained her integrity (see 4.6 and 4.7).

In the fifth chapter the findings of the empirical investigation were presented. The results of the structured questionnaire with regard to answering sub-question 1 were summarized in Table 5.21. The results of the structured questionnaire with regard to answering sub-question 2 were presented in Table 5.32. The results of the focus group interviews with regard to answering both sub-questions were encapsulated in Table 5.33. The relationship between the literature and the empirical research was also described (see 5.5). By utilizing both quantitative and qualitative research methods, triangulation of the data was possible thus enhancing both the validity and reliability of the study as a whole.

6.3 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The findings of the literature review and the empirical study will be discussed in accordance with the research question and the aims as stated in Chapter One (see 1.2.3).

6.3.1 Summary of the literature study

The first aim of the study was to do a literature study to determine the nature of the motivation to learn of FET learners in a multicultural classroom. The following aspects (see 1.2.4) were investigated in order to meet this aim.

6.3.1.1 Adolescents and adolescent development

Adolescents were defined as FET learners who are in their middle to late adolescence (between fifteen and twenty-one years old) (see 2.2). There are many different aspects to the development of adolescents - the ones used in the study were physical, cognitive, affective, social, normative and volitional/conative development. The main aspect in this study was conative development and an important feature of conative development is motivation (see 2.3).

6.3.1.2 The nature of motivation with regard to goals and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Motivation was defined in the study as the process or force that maintains, directs and sustains behaviour towards a goal (see 2.5.1). This definition shows an important element of motivation namely goals. Adolescents, if they are motivated, are driven towards the achievement of goals (see 2.6.1.1). There are many different types of goals. Some examples are task mastery goals, performance goals, social goals, mastery/learning goals and performance/ego goals (see 2.6.1.2). Before adolescents attempt to achieve any goal, they will evaluate if they are able to meet such goals. When doing this they will explore their own self-efficacy, self-regulation and interest. Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's evaluation that he/she has the ability to accomplish a task (see 2.6.2). Self-efficacy thus influences motivation for if learners believe they can do something, they will then be motivated to do it (see 2.6.2).

Self-regulation, another important and relevant area of motivated behaviour, is the ability to exercise influence over what is done in order to attain certain goals (see 2.6.3). Self-regulated learners will take responsibility for their learning and will be motivated to meet their goals. Individuals will only self-regulate if they are interested in the content being learned (see 2.6.3). Therefore the concept of interest is also an important and relevant area of motivation. If learners are interested in the work being covered, they will be likely to have high levels of self-efficacy and self-regulation, will create opportunities for themselves and will probably be more motivated to try and accomplish a goal (see 2.6.4).

Two important types of motivation are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (see 2.7.2.3). Intrinsically motivated individuals want to perform because they like what they are doing, whereas extrinsically motivated individuals have to be offered something to get them to work. The preferred type of motivation is intrinsic motivation; however, individuals might have to be extrinsically motivated at first in order to develop their intrinsic motivation (see 2.7.2.3).

6.3.1.3 The various perspectives on and related sources of motivation

In order to identify the sources of motivation in an individual, it is necessary to know the perspectives which present different sources of motivation as possibilities (see 2.7). Three perspectives were discussed, namely the behaviourist perspective on motivation, the humanistic perspective on motivation and the cognitive and social cognitive perspectives on motivation. In the behaviourist approach reinforcers or extrinsic motivators such as praise and comments are used as the motivating force (see 2.7.1). In the humanistic perspective intrinsic motivators are emphasized (see 2.7.2). Key contributors to this perspective were Maslow (see 2.7.2.1) and Deci and Ryan (see 2.7.2.2). In the cognitive perspective an individual's learning behaviour is seen to be an internal process, thus intrinsic motivation is emphasized (see 2.7.3). Social cognitive theorists emphasise what the learner thinks about a task and the effort they need to put in to complete such a task (see 2.7.3). Three theories were discussed under this perspective namely Expectancy Motivation (see 2.7.3.1), Attribution Theory (see 2.7.3.2) and Mastery Motivation (see 2.7.3.3).

6.3.1.4 Culture and diversity and their connection with multicultural education

It is important for teachers to understand the culture of the learners in their class in order to better understand how these learners can be motivated. Culture was defined as the accepted traditional customs, moral attributes, behaviours, belief systems, knowledge and attitudes as practiced by a particular cultural group (see 3.2.2.1). Cultural diversity was defined as the coexistence of many different ethnic, racial and social-class backgrounds (see 3.2.1). Culture was compared to an iceberg or a tree - only a small amount of a culture is explicitly visible - most signs of a culture are found 'below the surface' (see 3.2.2.1). Cultures can also be split up into macro- or dominant cultures and micro-cultures (see 3.2.2.2). When analyzing a culture, it is possible to use Hofstede's model which is comprised of five cultural dimensions (see 3.2.2.3).

The increasing cultural diversity we live in has necessitated the development of multicultural education. Multicultural education is defined as an educational ideology which teaches learners from diverse ethnic, cultural and racial backgrounds how to live and work together harmoniously (see 3.3.2). With all these different cultures in a classroom, teachers face huge

challenges - what worked in a mono cultural classroom may clearly be inadequate in a multicultural classroom.

6.3.1.5 The relationship between culture and motivation

Evidence in the literature suggests that a relationship does exist between culture and the motivation to learn. Divergent motivational practices were found between Western (individualistic) and Eastern (collectivist) cultures (see 3.4.2.1). Attributions also differ between cultures with higher values being placed on effort in Eastern cultures (see 3.4.2.2). Learners from different cultures attach different values and meanings to achievement and approach achievement tasks in different ways. Differences were also found in the value cultures attach to education (see 3.4.2.3). Other cultural differences were also highlighted when discussing goals (see 3.4.2.4), family and family values (see 3.4.2.5).

The aim of the examination of the above aspects was to enquire from the literature what factors motivate learners in a multicultural FET phase classroom to learn. Once this was done, the research question could partly be answered.

The second aim of the study will be discussed in the next section.

6.3.2 Summary of the empirical study

The second aim of the research was to do an empirical study to determine what motivates FET phase learners to learn, and the role played by culture in influencing this motivation (see 1.2.4).

6.3.2.1 The factors that motivate FET phase learners to learn

The respondents indicated that they are motivated by the following factors which were examined under themes. The first theme to be examined was *Task Involvement*. Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated they are motivated by the chance to do something again to make it better, by interesting work and by seeing an improvement in their schoolwork (see 5.2.1.1)

The second theme to be examined was *Effort.* Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated they are motivated by interesting schoolwork, by being classed as good at schoolwork and by new things being taught in class (see 5.2.1.2).

The third theme to be examined was *Competition.* Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated they are motivated by competition. The respondents also showed relatively high degrees of self-efficacy (see 5.2.1.3).

The fourth theme to be examined was *Social Concern*. Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated that they enjoy helping others with their schoolwork (therefore they would be motivated to participate in programmes like peer tutoring) and that they are unhappy if their friends are not doing well at school. Thus they are motivated to help their friends be successful (see 5.2.1.4).

The fifth theme to be examined was *Social Power*. Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated that their friends value success at school therefore many of the learners will be motivated to do well at school (see 5.2.1.5).

The sixth theme to be examined was *Affiliation*. Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated that they prefer to work alone thus implying that they would not be motivated to learn if they were made to work in groups (see 5.2.1.6).

The seventh theme to be examined was *Token.* Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated that they are motivated to work hard for rewards from their parents, to achieve good grades and to understand their subjects (see 5.2.1.7). Other extrinsic motivators named by the respondents were rewards, certificates, medals and trophies (see Table 5.35).

The eighth theme to be examined was *Praise*. Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated that they are motivated to learn when they receive praise from their teachers and parents for good schoolwork and when they receive rewards rather than praise (see 5.2.1.8).

The ninth theme to be examined was *Goals.* Under this theme the majority of the respondents indicated that they do think about how their subjects will be helpful to them and help them

get good jobs. It therefore follows that learners will be more motivated in those subjects they see as being useful in the future (see 5.2.1.9).

The last theme to be examined was *Self-determination.* Under this theme the majority of the respondents showed that they have high degrees of self-efficacy and self-determination. They attribute failure in tests to themselves (see 5.2.10).

The respondents mentioned other factors which motivate them such as the positive role their parents play in their lives and competent teachers. Competent teachers are perceived to be teachers who apply good discipline in the classroom, make the learners work hard, hold tests frequently, communicate well and allow for classroom interaction and show that they care and believe in their learners (see Table 5.33).

Other interesting points that were identified during the research were that the majority of the respondents are not motivated by: problems which are considered to be hard (see 5.2.1.2), the thought of coming first (see 5.2.1.3), the thought of being made a leader if they do well (see 5.2.1.5), the thought of looking important in front of their friends or their class (see 5.2.1.5), group work (see 5.2.1.6) and challenging subjects (see 5.2.1.7). Interestingly, the majority of the respondents acknowledged that they did not prepare well enough for their tests (see 5.2.10). The respondents also mentioned many demotivators during the focus group interviews. One such demotivator concerned teachers who do not push their learners enough, do not apply proper discipline in class, do not go the extra mile, are bossy, do not care and often demean the learners (see Table 5.33). Interestingly, competition was mentioned as both a motivator and demotivator (see Table 5.33).

6.3.1.2 The relationship between culture and the motivation to learn

After statistically analyzing the results of the structured questionnaire, it was shown that out of forty-four questions asked in the structured questionnaire, only twenty-three questions were consistently answered the same by the six nationalities that were examined. The themes that showed the greatest commonality were task, effort, social power, goals and self-determination. The rest of the themes - competition, social concern, affiliation, token and praise - showed very little commonality. It was therefore concluded by the researcher that

there is a relationship between the culture of the respondent and their motivation to learn (see 5.3.2).

In conclusion, the above summaries of the literature review and the empirical study firstly show the various factors that motivate learners thus answering sub-question 1 (see 1.2.3), and secondly, that there is a relationship between culture and the motivation to learn thus answering sub-question 2 (see 1.2.3). Taking these answers into consideration, it is then possible to state that the research question (see 1.2.3) was answered.

Certain limitations to this study were identified and will be discussed in the next section.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several problematic areas were uncovered during the research. The most obvious limitation of the study was that most of the respondents were South African (61%) and nine out of fifteen nationalities were represented by less than five respondents (see Table 4.3). This skewed the data when the statistical analysis was done to answer sub-question 2. This seriously limited the information that could be gathered about what motivates different nationalities.

It was difficult in the quantitative stage of the research to explore reasons why certain nationalities exhibited certain motivational practices. An attempt was made in the qualitative stage to obtain this information but the researcher was not totally successful in this regard.

The information that was obtained in the research is specific to the learners at this particular school. This makes generalizing the results even more difficult.

The number of learners who participated in the structured questionnaire was large. It proved very difficult to get the consent forms from the learners and necessitated much follow-up from the researcher which was time-consuming.

6.5 POSSIBILITIES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It was felt by the researcher that further research could be conducted into the following areas.

6.5.1 The influence of the teacher's culture

An interesting area that could be further researched is the influence of the culture of the teacher on the learner's motivation to learn. This point was raised in the focus group interviews (see 5.4.5). The respondents replied that the culture of the teacher did not matter. However, this point needs to be more fully explored. A large number of the teachers at the school are from Zimbabwe and come with a different set of values and teaching methods - interestingly, 17% of the respondents in the questionnaire were from Zimbabwe (see Table 4.3). It would be noteworthy to know how Zimbabwean learners respond to South African teachers and vice versa. In addition, one of the teachers that were continuously mentioned by the respondents in the focus group interviews as being a motivational teacher is Zimbabwean.

6.5.2 The motivational practices of more traditional schools

Some of the respondents in the focus group interviews mentioned that their previous schools in Zimbabwe and Zambia were far stricter and they found this more motivational as it assisted them in achieving better results (see 5.4.3). The researcher can identify with this comment as she did part of her schooling at one of these strict schools in Zimbabwe (very teacher-centred), and then finished her schooling at a school in South Africa that was less strict and more learner-centred. It would be interesting to study whether more 'traditional', stricter schools are more successful in motivating their learners than the school where the research was done (which is more learner-centred).

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher would also like to make the following recommendations regarding this research. The teachers at the school need workshops on motivation as it was felt by the researcher that many of the teachers either do not understand motivation or do not take the concept very seriously. Results of the focus group interviews show that some of the teachers

are doing things which seriously demotivate the learners such as calling them names and not paying attention to the discipline in their classes (see 5.3.3). This is unfortunate as motivating learners is an extremely important part of a teacher's job.

In the focus group interviews the respondents continuously mentioned three specific teachers. The respondents were very complimentary of these teachers and indicated that they found them extremely motivating (see 5.4). The researcher recommends that the school encourage these teachers to share their 'tricks of the trade' with the rest of the staff.

A further recommendation is that the school do a 'climate study' amongst the learners. This could be done every year in order to find out how the learners feel about the school and what changes they would like to see. During the focus group interviews, the researcher came to the conclusion that the learners would like the school to be successful (and then they would be successful) but felt that nobody ever listened to them. Many of the demotivators that were identified by the learners such as the school's policy towards learners whose fees are not paid (see Table 5.33) could easily be adjusted. It was felt by the researcher that the school management may be unaware that they give the impression that the 'school just wants our money' when they speak to the learners about fees not being paid.

The last recommendation that can be made is that parents should be brought on board when trying to motivate learners. The research shows how important parents are to the respondents (see 5.2.1.7, 5.2.1.8 and 5.4.2). These parents can be used as positive influences in the life of many of the respondents.

6.7 A FINAL WORD

The reason for doing this research started in a class that the researcher taught a couple of years ago. This class was incredibly difficult to manage. The class was large, consisted of very opinionated learners and had one learner who controlled the rest of the class. Every time the class came for their lesson, this one learner tried to hijack the class and turn the members of the class against the teacher and the school. At the end of the two years this class wrote their external examinations, and to the surprise of the researcher, the whole class passed her subject with grade 'C' (60%) and above. The class had also managed to isolate the difficult

learner and no longer listened to him (in fact they stood behind the researcher in one last argument the researcher had with this learner). The researcher has always wondered why this class achieved such good results and showed so much motivation at the end of the two years and beyond as at least half the class continued with the researcher until post-matric (Upper 6^{th}). By doing the research the question has been answered.

With this specific class the researcher managed to create an interest in the subject being taught. Competition and good grades were encouraged and success was rewarded. Group work in class was never done and the learners were encouraged to work on their own. The researcher spoke regularly about what the learners could do with the subject she taught after they left school and the learners were encouraged to take responsibility for their marks (these marks were linked to success in later life). The researcher had to make sure she was 100% confident in the work being taught (or else the troublemaker learner would create problems). The researcher also made sure that the learners were busy with work all the time they were in the class so there was no 'down time' for discipline problems to occur. There were plenty of opportunities for communication and interaction in the class. The learners eventually began to trust the researcher, and the troublemaker learner was isolated. Unwittingly, the researcher applied much of what was highlighted in the study!

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Appendix 1: Consent Form

PO Box 201

Buhrmannsdrif
2867

NorthWest Province

14 February 2011

Dear ISSA Parent

I am running a project at ISSA aimed at investigating what motivates students to reach their full academic potential. The findings of the project will form part of a Masters in Education which I am currently doing through Unisa. The supervisor for my project is Professor AC Lessing of the Department of Education at Unisa.

Your child has been selected to participate in the completion of a questionnaire and a small group discussion which form the fieldwork for this project. All information gathered during the research process will be treated with strict confidentiality and anonymity.

The school has approved the research.

Kindly fill in the consent form below and return it with your child to their form tutor before 25 February 2011.

Kindly direct any enquiries you may have regarding this research to myself or to the Head (Mr Haupt).

Yours Sincerely.

_____

Anne Bosman

Economics Dept (ISSA)

(018-3811102)

CONSENT FORM

I, _____ the parent/guardian of _____ in Form _____

Student's name

hereby give permission for my child to participate in this project.

_____

PARENT/GUARDIAN SIGNATURE

Appendix 2: Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE ON STUDENT MOTIVATION

This is not a test but a questionnaire for which there is no right or wrong answer – only your opinion.

- **Do not write your name on the questionnaire. All respondents will remain anonymous. The answers to the questions will be treated as strictly confidential.**
- **Please answer all questions as honestly as possible. Read all options before answering.**
- **Thank you for your cooperation.**

SECTION A – GENERAL INFORMATION

Office Use
V1

Please circle the number at the right hand side to indicate your answer.

1 What is your form class?		**V2**
Form 4	1	
Form 5	2	
Lower 6	3	
Upper 6	4	
2 Indicate your gender		**V3**
Male	1	
Female	2	
3 Indicate your ethnic background		**V4**
Black	1	
Coloured	2	
Indian	3	
White	4	
4 Indicate your nationality		**V5**
South African	1	
Botswana	2	
Zimbabwean	3	
Zambian	4	
Malawian	5	
Mozambique	6	
Kenyan	7	
Tanzanian	8	
Nigerian	9	
Other (please specify)	10	

(Please turn over for page 2)

SECTION B – QUESTIONNAIRE

In order to better understand what motivates you as student, please respond to each of the following statements by marking with an 'X' what you feel is the correct answer.

		Always true (1)	Mostly true (2)	Sometimes true (3)	Not at all (4)	
5	I like being given the chance to do something again to make it better					**V6**
6	I try harder with my school work when the work is interesting					**V7**
7	I like to see that I am improving in my school work					**V8**
8	I don't mind working a long time at school work that I find interesting					**V9**
9	I try hard to make sure that I am good at my school work					**V10**
10	The harder the problem, the harder I try					**V11**
11	I work hard to try to understand new things at school					**V12**
12	I put enough effort into learning my subjects					**V13**
13	Coming first is very important to me					**V14**
14	I work harder if I am trying to be better than others					**V15**
15	I expect to do as well or even better than other students in my class					**V16**
16	I enjoy helping others with their schoolwork					**V17**
17	It makes me unhappy if my friends are not doing well at school					**V18**
18	I work hard at school so that I will be put in charge of a group					**V19**
19	I work hard at school because I want to feel important in front of my school friends					**V20**
20	I work hard at school because I want the class to notice me					**V21**
21	My school friends value success at school					**V22**
22	I do my best work at school when I am working in a group					**V23**
23	I try to work with friends as much as possible at school and after school					**V24**
24	I prefer to work alone					**V25**
25	I work hard in class for rewards from the teacher					**V26**
26	I work hard in class for rewards from my parents					**V27**
27	The subject matter I learn is more important to me than the grades I receive					**V28**
28	Understanding my subjects gives me a sense of accomplishment					**V29**
29	I like the subjects that challenge me					**V30**
30	I find learning my subjects interesting					**V31**

(Please turnover for page 3)

		Always true (1)	Mostly true (2)	Sometimes true (3)	Not at all (4)		
31	Earning good grades in my subjects is important to me						**V32**
32	Praise from my teachers for my good school work is important to me						**V33**
33	Praise from my friends for my good school work is important to me						**V34**
34	At school I work best when I am praised						**V35**
35	Praise from my parents for good school work is important to me						**V36**
36	I prefer to receive praise for good work rather than rewards						**V37**
37	I think about how the subjects I learn will be helpful to me						**V38**
38	I think about how learning my subjects at school can help me get a good job						**V39**
39	I enjoy learning						**V40**
40	I believe I can master the necessary knowledge and skills in my subjects						**V41**
41	I am confident I will do well in the subjects I take						**V42**
42	I use strategies that ensure I learn my subjects well						**V43**
43	I prepare well for tests						**V44**
44	It is my fault when I fail a test						**V45**
45	It is my fault if I do not understand my subjects						**V46**
46	It is the teacher's fault when I fail a test						**V47**
47	It is the teacher's fault if I do not understand my subjects						**V48**
48	If I am having trouble with my subjects, I try to figure out why						**V49**

THANK YOU FOR FILLING IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE!

Appendix 3: Interview schedule for focus group interviews

QUESTION
Q1. What motivates you to work?
Q2. Why do you not work?
Q3. How do your parents/family motivate you?
Q4. How do your friends motivate you?
Q5. How can teachers/school motivate you?
Q6. Why are grades more important than the work?
Q8. Should teachers be aware of culture when teaching?
Q9. Do you prefer a student or teacher-centred classroom?
Q10. If you have a choice between TV or studying, what makes you study?
Q11. Does competition in class motivate you?
Q12. Do you like learning alone?

Appendix 4: Letter to Mr Haupt

PO Box 201

Buhrmannsdrif 2867

North West Province

6 February 2011

Dear Mr Haupt

Reference is made to our discussion in November 2010 regarding the field work I wish to conduct at the International School of South Africa.

I am currently registered for a Masters in Education (specialising in Psychology of Education) through Unisa. The title of my dissertation is 'An investigation into the motivation to learn of FET phase learners in a multicultural classroom'. My supervisor is Professor Ansie Lessing who works in the Department of Education at Unisa (contact details: 0832840782).

I have now entered the phase of the study where I need to do the fieldwork. If possible, I would like to use all the students in Form 4, 5 and 6 (as they are in the FET phase) in the research process. The plan is to ask these students to fill in a questionnaire which should take about 20 minutes to complete. I also need to hold 3 small group interviews with about 8 students from each form year. I propose that the questionnaires and the interviews be completed during the form tutor period or the PSD period.

The focus of both the questionnaires and the small group interviews is to investigate what motivates students to reach their full academic potential. The following aspects will be explored namely the extrinsic and intrinsic nature of the students' motivation to learn, the relevance of learning to personal goals, the students' responsibility for learning and their confidence in learning and the role of teachers, parents and peers in developing a motivation to learn. I will also be examining the role played by culture in the motivation process. As ISSA is a very multicultural institution, I thought it would be an ideal place to do the fieldwork. All information gathered during the research process will be treated with strict confidentiality and anonymity.

I hope that it will be possible to conduct the research at the school? As I will be interviewing minors, I need to receive written permission from the parents of those students who will be participating in the study. I just wondered if it would be possible to speak to you regarding the logistics of obtaining this permission.

I would like to complete the whole research process by mid-March.

Yours Sincerely.

Anne Bosman

Appendix 5: Proof of language editing

Astute Editing and Research

December 2011

To Whom It May Concern

Dear Sir/Madam,

This is to certify that I have fully edited the MEd (Psychology of Education, University of South Africa) thesis of Ms Anne Bosman on AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE MOTIVATION TO LEARN OF FET LEARNERS IN A MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM and have found the use of language and technical production to be of a good standard.

Yours sincerely,

C.D. Schutte (D Litt et Phil; Member, Professional Editors Group)

Telephone 012-342-3518 Mobile 083-310-1806

4 Gospel Close, 821 Church Street, Arcadia 0083, Pretoria.