

Indonesian High School Student Motivational Orientations for Learning English as a Foreign Language: Some Preliminary Findings

Alberth

(alberth@programmer.net)

Universitas Halu Oleo, Indonesia

Abstract

Socio-educational Model, Self-Determination Theory, and, more recently, L2 Motivational Self System are arguably amongst the widely embraced theories of motivation in the field of foreign and second language learning. However, the relevance and validity of these theories across different sociocultural contexts and educational levels remain an open question, simply because motivation is context-specific. The present study seeks to fill this lacuna in research by exploring students' motivational orientations for learning English as a Foreign Language at a high school level within an Indonesian context. Fifty-one high school students were originally interviewed pertaining to the reasons why they had decided to learn English in the first place. Sixty-four orientations were identified during exhaustive interviews, but similar themes were subsequently merged resulting in fifty-four orientations. These fifty-four orientations were administered to 503 high school students. Following each orientation is a five-point Lickert scale (hereafter Lickert) of potential responses: very relevant, relevant, not sure, irrelevant, and not relevant at all. The results were subjected to a principal component analysis so that the underlying dimensions of students' motivational orientations for learning English in this particular context could be revealed. The principal component analysis resulted in the extraction of a five-component solution labelled as "ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and learning environment," "integrative orientation," "career orientation," "information access," and "self-confidence and intrinsic motivation" respectively. Implications of these findings on the theory of motivation in the realm of foreign/second language teaching and learning will be critically examined in this paper.

1 Introduction

The construct of motivation has long been considered important in language learning (Binalet & Guerra, 2014; Muftah & Rafik-Galea, 2013), but research in this area only started to flourish following the seminal work of Gardner and Lambert (1972). This theory of motivation is more commonly known as the socio-educational model. A crucial distinction is made between *integrative* and *instrumental* motivation. The former refers to the desire to learn a language due to an interest in the community or culture of the community speaking the language or desiring to identify with the target language community (Chang & Liu, 2013), whereas the latter refers to a utility-driven orientation, in that learning a language serves as an instrument to achieve a desirable goal (Fontecha, 2014; Gardner, 1985; Lucas et al., 2010; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). In comparison, the term *motivational orientation* was used to refer to the reason or reasons why a person is engaged in foreign or second language learning in the first place (Fontecha, 2014; Gardner, 1985; Muftah & Rafik-Galea, 2013).

In the early development of the theory, the importance of integrative over instrumental motivation was strongly accentuated by Gardner and his adherents (Norris-Holt, 2001), giving the impression that integrative motivation is more critical than instrumental motivation. Even more recent studies suggest that integrative motivation serves as the best predictors for students' participation in the classroom, language proficiency and persistence in learning a language (Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Liu, 2007). However, research findings from a diverse array of EFL contexts have not always been consistent concerning this position (Alaga, 2016; Petrides, 2006). For example, passing examinations has become one of the primary motives for learning English as a foreign language (Kaneko, 2012). Additionally, while some studies attested to the significance of integrative motivation (Gardner, 2001), other studies particularly highlighted the importance of instrumental motivation (Alaga, 2016; Shirbagi, 2010). As a result, conflicting findings have been reported in the literature.

Furthermore, Oxford and Shearin (1996) investigated L2 learning motivations of Japanese high school students learning English and reported that more than two thirds of students' comments reflected neither integrative nor instrumental orientations. Similarly, Kato, Yasumoto and Aacken (2007) investigated learners' motivation for studying Japanese in four universities located in the U.S and Australia and reported that neither integrative nor instrumental motivation could predict students' academic achievement. In other words, for these students, the reasons for learning Japanese have less to do with integrative or instrumental orientations.

Results of the above studies raise critical questions concerning the universal role of integrative and instrumental motivation across different language learning contexts (Matsumoto & Obana, 2001; Tan, Ismail, & Ooi, 2016). It appears that, whilst integrative motivation might play a dominant role in a certain educational context, it could be less significant in others (Alaga, 2016).

2 Literature review

2.1 *Criticism of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model*

To begin with, it is intuitively problematic to accept the assertion that the integrative and instrumental orientations can exhaustively account for a diverse array of students' motivational orientations for learning a language. It is entirely possible for language learners to have other types of motivational orientations that correspond to neither integrative nor instrumental orientations (Kato et al., 2007). In fact, a research study shows that the role of integrative and instrumental motivation on student learning hinges on the residential milieu and situation (Moriya, 2002, as cited in Keaney & Mundia, 2014). In other words, motivational orientations are context-specific and, perhaps, culture-specific. Thus, whereas such orientations (integrative or instrumental) may suffice in a certain context, they may prove to be inadequate in others. Obviously, a person can be motivated to learn a language simply because he/she is good at it (Iwaniec, 2014) and this has nothing to do with integrative or instrumental orientations.

Other criticism has been directed to the bifurcation between integrative and instrumental orientations, which implies that one is either integratively or instrumentally motivated, whereby it is entirely possible that a person can have both orientations concurrently (Birjandi, Mosallanejad, & Bagheridoust, 2006; Dörnyei, 2006; Kaneko, 2012). In fact, researchers are now convinced that integrative and instrumental orientations are not mutually exclusive (Chen, Jiang, & Mu, 2015; Hynes, 2002; Norris-Holt, 2001; Olaoye, 2009).

All in all, studies conducted in some non-English speaking countries suggest that students' motivational orientations are much more complex than integrative and instrumental orientations and that the significance of integrative motivation, central to socio-educational model, may vary considerably, depending on the research contexts.

2.2 *Three lines of research*

It has previously been argued that socio-cultural contexts play a crucial role in shaping student motivational orientation for learning a language and that the socio-educational model on its own appears to be insufficient. In fact, there are three streams of research in the field: L2 learners (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994a; Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005; Liuolienė & Metūnienė, 2006), sojourners (e.g. Alqahtani, 2015; Arifeen, 2013; Bretag & van der Veen, 2015; Chirkov, Vansteenkiste, Tao, & Lynch, 2007; Jiang, 2017; Lee, 2014), and immigrants (e.g. Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner, & Reyes, 2004; Kim, Kim, & Schallert, 2010; Mirici, Galleano, & Torres, 2013; Norton, 2000; Peirce, 1995; Wong, 2008).

The need to learn a language is primarily contingent upon the need of each group under investigation. A group of immigrants, for example, may want to learn a target language mainly for social or communication purposes. This orientation may be different from, or similar to, that of EFL students learning English in order to be able to pass an exam, for example. Thus, what appears to be conflicting findings reported in the literature regarding student motivational orientation for learning a language may simply be attributed to different streams of research mentioned above. Nonetheless, it is clear that to better understand the complexity of student motivational orientation, Gardner's socio-educational model needs to be expanded by including theoretical constructs drawn from other fields (Atay & Kurt, 2010; Dörnyei, 1994b; Takac & Berka, 2014).

2.3 *Self-Determination Theory*

Self-Determination Theory (hereafter SDT) introduces the notion of behaviour regulation to account for one's motivational orientations to perform certain behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When behaviour is enacted solely because of a sense of enjoyment, pleasure or satisfaction, the person is said to be intrinsically motivated, that is, the regulation of performing such behaviour emanates from oneself (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Lucas et al., 2010). Intrinsic motivation is highly self-determined and is the most autonomous type of behaviour (Black & Deci, 2000). With intrinsic motivation, the incentives or consequence for performing a task is within the activity itself (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Yaqoob, Ahmed, & Arshad, 2014). It is characterised by enjoyment, preference for a more challenging task, interest in the task and, most importantly, the presence of a sense of self-determination in performing certain behaviour (Lucas et al., 2010).

In contrast, when an individual performs a task in order to avoid punishment or gain rewards, he/she is said to be extrinsically motivated. In this case, the regulation of performing the task and the maintenance of such a regulation is controlled by *external contingencies* characterised by the presence of *coercion* (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Lucas et al., 2010). Individuals who are extrinsically motivated either do not enact their behaviours volitionally, or perform their behaviours with a limited sense of volition. Thus, extrinsically motivated behaviour is subsequently a lack of self-determination. However, SDT also posits that there are variations in the degree of autonomy of extrinsically-motivated behaviour, in that some types of extrinsic motivation are more autonomous than others (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Unlike intrinsic motivation, the incentive for performing certain behaviour is separated from the activity.

In early research, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were viewed as being antagonistic to each other, in that a person is regarded as being either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. However, later work suggested that extrinsic motivation can potentially become self-determined through a process known as internalisation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). However, so the theory goes, complete internalisation takes place only when social contexts support the fulfilment of the so called "basic psychological needs." Complete internalisation will in turn result in autonomous motivation having stronger self-determination. When basic psychological needs are not fulfilled, however, the result is controlled motivation which is lacking self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In other words, SDT recognises different types of extrinsic motivation, in which case, one type is more autonomous, thus more self-determined, than the other.

The first type of extrinsic motivation is referred to as *external regulation*. When behaviours are strongly externally regulated, people have no control over their own behaviour; instead, external contingencies are in control of their behaviour. When a student performs a task in order to get rewards or avoid punishment, he is said to be externally regulated (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In this case, performing behaviour is contingent upon the presence or absence of these external agents. This motivation is characterised by a *must* or *have to*, indicating the presence of external pressure. External regulation is the least autonomous or the least self-determined behaviour as far as extrinsic motivation is concerned.

The second type is *introjected regulation*. With introjected regulations, external regulations have partially been internalised, but they are not yet accepted as one's own (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Introjected regulations are characterised by such feelings as *ought to* or *should*, rather than *must* or *have to*, indicating feelings of guilt for not performing behaviour or enacting such behaviour to satisfy personal ego such as in order to look smart, competent and able. Introjected regulation shares some similarities with external regulation, in that both types of behaviour are controlled and not completely self-determined. However, "whereas with external regulation the control of behaviour comes from contingent consequences that are administered by others, with introjected regulation the contingent consequences are administered by the individuals to themselves" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 236). Thus, introjected motivation is more autonomous than external regulation despite the fact that both are lacking self-determination.

The next type is *identified regulation* where the regulation has been internalised by the learners and been taken as one's self or identity (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Identified regulation marks "greater freedom and volition because the behaviour is more congruent with their personal goals and identities" (Gagne & Deci, 2005, p. 334). Identified regulation is, therefore, more autonomous than both external regulation and introjected regulation. With identified regulation, students choose to perform the behaviour because they think it is useful or important. In other words, learners start to perceive the value of the activity they are involved in (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and to have control over their own activity. However, performing the behaviour is still dependent upon how valuable the activity is perceived to be.

The final and most autonomous of all external regulation processes is referred to as *integrated regulation*. This can be achieved "when identified regulations are fully assimilated to the self, which means they have been evaluated and brought into congruence with one's other values and needs" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 73). In other words, the regulations or values are not only viewed as being important, but have also been integrated into one's self or identity. Thus, performing certain behaviour is completely volitional. Regulations that have been fully internalised result in autonomous and self-determined behaviours where individuals have full control over their own behaviour. Language learners who have completely internalised external regulations would normally do self-study or extra work in their own time, even when they are not asked to do so by the teacher. Integrated regulation of extrinsic motivation shares some similarities with intrinsic motivation in terms of the degree of self-determination. However, whereas intrinsic motivation is characterised by the pleasure and enjoyment in enacting certain behaviour, this is not necessarily the case with integrated regulation.

Extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are, of themselves, incomplete. Another form of motivation, referred to as *amotivation*, has been introduced in the SDT framework. The term amotivation is defined as "a state in which people lack the intention to behave, and thus lack motivation" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 237). Intentionality distinguishes between motivated and amotivated behaviours, in that whilst motivated behaviours suggest the existence of intentionality, amotivated behaviours are lacking it.

Whereas the notions *amotivation*, *extrinsic motivation*, and *intrinsic motivation* help us understand the motives behind the act of learning a language, there are still other orientations which may not fit properly with the above framework. For example, there are students who decide to learn a foreign language simply, because they feel that they are good at it, the orientation of which is neither extrinsic nor intrinsic (not because somebody else asks these students to learn a foreign language; they may

not necessarily enjoy the process of learning). All in all, the relevance of SDT across different language learning contexts needs to be confirmed empirically.

2.4 *Motivational Self System*

More recently, Dörnyei (2005; 2009) introduced a new theory of motivation referred to as the L2 Motivational Self System. Since its inception, this new theory of motivation has started to dominate motivation research in the field of Second Language Acquisition.

The L2 Motivational Self System is an extension of, and improvement to, the construct integrativeness of Gardner's socio-educational model (Kiany, Mahdavy, & Ghafar, 2013). In this new theory of motivation, Dörnyei (2005; 2009) introduced three different, but inter-related constructs of motivation referred to as *ideal self* or *ideal L2 self*, *ought-to self* or *ought-to L2 self*, and *L2 learning experience* respectively. These three constructs are believed to play a critical role in facilitating students' motivation to learn a language.

To begin with, the term *ideal L2 self* has been used to refer to "the representation of the attributes that one would ideally like to possess" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 13). In an EFL context like Indonesia, *ideal L2 self* may be interpreted as being a proficient speaker of English, in which case the skills could enable the learner to interact with the international community or to get a better job in the globalised world. Since the envisaged *ideal L2 self* relates to both high proficiency in the target language and to certain benefits that could be gained, it becomes immediately apparent that the construct *ideal L2 self* comprises both the integrative and instrumental orientations of the socio-educational model. In fact, *ideal L2 self* has been found to correlate highly with integrativeness (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). These findings led Dörnyei (2005; 2009) to suggest that the notion of integrativeness should be reconceptualised as *ideal L2 self* to capture the broader spectrum of such orientations.

In comparison, the construct *ought-to L2 self* refers to the envisioned quality that an EFL learner should possess, either owing to their responsibilities or in order to avoid undesirable consequences (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei, & Ushioda, 2009). Typically, the construct *ought-to L2 self* is marked by the existence of pressure by others. Thus, in a sense, the construct *ought-to L2 self* in L2 Motivational Self System is akin to external regulation of extrinsic motivation from the standpoint of SDT. To this end, both *ideal L2 self* and *ought-to L2 self* are related to the learner's envisioned self-concept or self-image. In other words, *ideal L2 self* and *ought-to L2 self* depict discrepancies between the actual and *ideal L2 self*. Both *ideal L2 self* and *ought-to L2 self* serve to motivate language learners to learn a language in an attempt to achieve the *intended self*.

Finally, the third construct, the *L2 learning experience*, refers to "situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experiences" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). Note that unlike the previous two constructs, the construct *L2 learning experience* does not correspond to the envisioned self image of the learner. Instead, it is related to learning milieu factors such as classroom environment, peers, teacher, instructional method, curriculum, and facilities to name a few. A certain learning environment may be more challenging, more interesting than others, thus affecting EFL learners' motivation to learn a language. For example, the construct *L2 ideal self* is found to be relevant only to those residing in a city (Lamb, 2012). Therefore, the importance of these three constructs may well vary across different learning milieus and contexts.

Whereas the constructs of motivation derived from the socio-educational model (integrativeness and instrumentality), SDT (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation) and, more recently, L2 Motivational Self System (*ideal L2 self*, *ought-to L2 self*, and *L2 learning experience*), have been applied to better understand language learners' motivation, their relevance across different cultural backgrounds and research contexts remains unclear (Liu, 2007). This is primarily due to the fact that motivation in the field of language learning is somehow different from that in other fields, in that the former contains "a socio-cultural component" (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002, p. 74). In this case, it is quite possible that language learners' motivation to learn a foreign language reflects unique and specific orientations. In Taiwan, for example, students' motivational orientations are dominated by

the so-called *required motivation*, in that learning English as a Foreign Language is strongly motivated by exam requirement (Warden & Lin, 2000). Additionally, it has been argued that in the globalisation era where English is becoming a lingua franca for the world communities, a new construct of motivation pertaining to the internationalisation and globalisation should also be included as a distinct construct of motivation to learn English as an international language (Kaneko, 2012; Kormos & Csizér, 2010; Prasangani, 2014).

In a nutshell, motivation is quite a complex construct (Liu & Zhang, 2013; Muftah & Rafik-Galea, 2013; Papi, 2010) and it may vary with gender, the socio-economy of the students, and perceptions towards the learning task (Binalet & Guerra, 2014). Consequently, to be able to understand students' motivational orientations for learning a language, it is important that researchers take students' perspectives into account by means of a qualitative approach (Sakeda & Kurata, 2016). While employing a theoretical construct is easy and straightforward, there is a danger of imposing irrelevant constructs on a particular group of students. Since motivation is context-specific and culture-sensitive (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002), it is necessary that both theoretical construct and students' voice regarding their own motivational orientations for learning a language be taken on board when developing an instrument to gauge their motivational orientations. In this way, a thorough understanding of the construct can be gained.

3 Method

3.1 Research questions

The present study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Is there a single dimension or are there multiple dimensions underlying high school students' motivational orientations for learning English as a Foreign Language?
2. What is this dimension/What are these dimensions?
3. To what extent does this dimension/do these dimensions reflect the construct of motivation derived from the socio-educational model, SDT, and L2 Motivational Self System theories?

3.2 Participants

The present study was conducted at two high schools located in Kendari, South-East Sulawesi, Indonesia. Students in these schools learn English as a Foreign Language where it is a compulsory subject. The present study involved 503 participants, comprising 315 females (63%) and 188 males (37%). The age of the participants ranged from 15 to 17 years old. These participants were recruited using a convenient sampling technique. All participants were volunteers.

3.3 Instrument development and item generation

Interviews were conducted with a group of students from a similar population. These students were asked "why" they had decided to learn English in the first place. These interviews were interactive (bi-directional) and were recorded. Various reasons (motivational orientations) emerged during these interviews. When no more new themes emerged, the interviews were ceased. At this point, as many as fifty-one students had been interviewed. Following the interviews, students' responses concerning their reasons for learning English were then transcribed for content analysis purposes. As many as sixty-four reasons emerged from the interviews. However, similar themes were merged resulting in fifty-four thematic categories.

The next step was item generation. The statement "I originally decided to learn English" was followed by the fifty-four reasons identified during the interview. Following each item is a five-point Likert of potential responses: very relevant, relevant, not sure, irrelevant, and not relevant at all. Participants are required to place a tick (✓) under "5" if they think that a given statement is very relevant to them and "1" if they think that the statement is not relevant at all. Some items were negatively

worded and reverse-coded in the analysis to improve the internal validity of the instrument. The draft instrument was then piloted with a convenient sample of 40 students. Participants were asked to comment on the clarity of the instructions, the items, and to find any ambiguity, if any, both in the instructions and in the wordings. As a result, wordings of a number of items were altered in light of their feedback.

The next step was to conduct field testing with a larger sample in order to collect sufficient data to utilise in statistical analyses. As many as 503 students were recruited for field-testing purposes. Participants' responses to the 54 items were coded and entered into the SPSS computer software program version 16 for further analyses.

3.4 Data analysis

Two analyses were conducted: a principal component analysis (hereafter PCA) and a reliability analysis – two procedures common for questionnaire development (Field, 2005). A PCA aims to examine whether or not the constructs underlying students' motivational orientations for learning English as a Foreign Language are one-dimensional or whether they consist of several underlying dimensions or components. In comparison, the reliability analysis aims to examine items' internal consistency and to identify items whose removal would enhance the reliability of the questionnaire.

3.5 Preliminary analysis

All fifty-four items were subjected to a PCA. However, a PCA is possible only when the sample is adequate and the data are correlated fairly well, but not so high that it results in multicollinearity or singularity (Field, 2005). To ensure that these requirements are not violated, two analyses were performed: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity testing the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix resembles an identity matrix (PCA cannot be performed with an identity matrix).

To begin with, researchers generally agree that KMO values bigger than 0.5 indicates the sample might be adequate (Field, 2005). The KMO value of the 54 items equals 0.945, which is much larger than 0.5. This suggests that the requirement of sampling adequacy has not been violated. Similarly, the value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with approximate Chi-Square of 12,598.734 is significant at $p(0.000) < 0.05$, rejecting the null hypothesis. In other words, the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. Thus, none of the above assumptions is violated and a PCA could proceed.

The next step was to inspect communalities and component loadings. Items are removed if they meet one of the following criteria: (a) their communalities after extraction are smaller than 0.5 (Field, 2005; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999), (b) their loadings are smaller than 0.5 (Field, 2005), (c) they load highly on two or more components, and (d) they load on a component with less than three items. Based on the above criteria, 30 items were removed, leaving only 24 items. This requires that both KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for the 24 items be re-run to ensure that no assumptions are violated. It is found that KMO value equals 0.936 (which is still bigger than 0.5) whereas Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with approximate Chi-Square of 5,700.751 is significant at $p(0.000) < 0.05$, again rejecting the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix (see Appendix 1 for correlation matrix).

The present study assumes that the dimensions underlying students' motivational orientations for learning English are not correlated. Therefore, an orthogonal rotation (i.e. varimax) was chosen. Two methods for extracting components – the scree plot and the Kaiser-Gutman Rule (Field, 2005) yielded the same results of a five-component solution (see Appendices 2 and 3). In other words, the hypothesis that students' motivational orientations for learning English comprise a single-dimensional construct is not supported by both methods. The initial five-component solution was then rotated using varimax rotation. When running the analysis, items that load below 0.5 were automatically suppressed to make interpretations easier. Items that load on the five components along with their communalities are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Rotated component matrix

	Items	Components					h^2
		1	2	3	4	5	
Q1	I do not want to be a professional English teacher			.764			0.622
Q2	English makes it easy for me to understand books and literature written in English		.716				0.604
Q3	English does not make it easy for me to communicate with native English speakers		.752				0.715
Q4	English makes it easy for me to make friends with foreigners		.739				0.692
Q5	English makes it easier for me to communicate with people who have different national languages		.654				0.608
Q6	By mastering English I will not miss information				.671		0.626
Q7	I want to be a translator someday			.813			0.731
Q8	I would like to open an English course later			.791			0.687
Q9	I want to be equal with other friends who can speak English	.559					0.514
Q10	Many world news on social media are available only in English				.677		0.564
Q11	I do not have the potential/ability to learn English					.737	0.701
Q12	I am more in English than any other subject					.817	0.712
Q13	I love to hear other people speak English and I want to be like them	.545					0.549
Q14	Learning English is very interesting/fun					.533	0.604
Q15	English is not a language of science				.607		0.526
Q16	I like reading English newspaper to get information from different countries				.622		0.555
Q17	English helps me find information I need on the Net more quickly (compared to <i>Bahasa Indonesia</i>)				.514		0.543
Q18	I do not want to be a tour guide			.795			0.672
Q19	I do not feel proud if I can speak English	.690					0.623
Q20	I want to be able to communicate in English well	.767					0.670
Q21	Learning environment (teacher and classmates) are great	.764					0.685
Q22	I do not have to pass an English exam	.757					0.621
Q23	I have to get a good job someday	.775					0.626
Q24	English is not important for my self-development	.574					0.590

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in six iterations.

It was, therefore, decided at this stage to maintain a five-component solution for the student motivational orientations for learning English. The model accounted for 62.76% of the total item variance.

To begin with, eight items loaded above 0.5 on the first component which accounted for 37.316% of the total item variance. Items that loaded on this component include: "I want to be equal with other friends who can speak English" (Q9), "I love to hear other people speak English and I want to be like them" (Q13), "I do not feel proud if I can speak English" (Q19), "I want to be able to communicate in English well" (Q20), "Learning environment (teacher and classmates) are great" (Q21), "I do not have to pass an English exam" (Q22), "I have to get a good job someday" (Q23), and "English is important for my self-development" (Q24). These reasons generally indicate that students originally decide to learn English because they want to be proficient speakers of English, but also because of some external pressures such as the need to pass an English exam and get a good job. Additionally, enjoyable learning environment (great teacher and classmates) also becomes one reason for learning English. These reasons clearly reflect ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and Learning Environment of the L2 Motivational Self System. This component was, therefore, labelled "ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and learning environment."

Four items loaded above 0.5 on the second component which accounted for 10.367% of the total item variance. Items that loaded on this component include "English makes it easy for me to understand books and literature written in English" (Q2), "English does not make it easy for me to communicate with native English speakers" (Q3), "English makes it easy for me to make friends with foreigners" (Q4), and "English makes it easier for me to communicate with people who have different national languages" (Q5). These orientations clearly reflect Gardner's famous construct, integrative motivation. This component is, therefore, labelled "integrative motivation."

Next, four items loaded above 0.5 on the third component which accounted for 5.824% of the total item variance. Items that loaded on this component include: "I do not want to be a professional English teacher" (Q1), "I want to be a translator someday" (Q7), "I would like to open an English course later" (Q8), and "I do not want to be a tour guide" (Q18). This component was labelled "career orientation."

Five items loaded above 0.5 on the fourth component which accounted for 4.902% of the total item variance. Items that loaded on this component include: "By mastering English I will not miss information" (Q6), "Many world news on social media are available only in English" (Q10), "English is not a Language of Science" (Q15), "I like reading English newspaper to get information from different countries" (Q16), and "English helps me find information I need on the Net more quickly (compared to Bahasa Indonesia)" (Q17). This component was labelled "information access."

Finally, three items loaded above 0.5 on the last component which accounted for 4.355% of the total item variance. Items that loaded on this component include: "I do not have the potential/ability to learn English" (Q11), "I am more in English than any other subject" (Q12), and "Learning English is very interesting/fun" (Q14). This component was labelled "self-confidence and intrinsic motivation." Items that loaded successfully on the above five components were subjected to a reliability analysis.

3.6 Reliability analysis

Researchers generally agree that the minimum alpha required for a test to be considered reliable is 0.7 (Wells & Wollack, 2003) with higher alpha indicating higher reliability. In this study, two reliability analyses were performed: reliability analyses for the scale (all items) and for the sub-scales or components, both calculated using Cronbach's coefficient alpha.

It was found that the overall scale reliability equals 0.912 (see Appendix 4) indicating very good reliability (DeVellis, 2003). Since deleting any item does not result in an improvement of the scale's reliability, the retention of the 24 items is justified. In comparison, the reliability of the first sub-scale component one (with eight items) equals 0.891, component two (four items) 0.825, component three (four items) 0.833, component four (five items) 0.77, and component five (three items) 0.71 respectively. Since deleting any item in each of the five sub-scales does not improve the reliability of the

sub-scales, a decision was made to keep all items in each subscale. A summary of all loading components, number of items, percentage of variance explained by the model, and the alpha value for each component is provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Components, number of items, percentage of variance, and alpha

No.	Components	Number of Items	% Variance	α
1.	Ideal L2 Self/ Ought-to L2 Self	8	37.316	0.891
2.	Integrative	4	10.367	0.825
3.	Career Orientation	4	5.824	0.833
4.	Information Access	5	4.902	0.77
5.	Self-Confidence and Intrinsic	3	4.355	0.71

As seen from Table 2, the majority of variance explained is accounted for by component one, followed by components two, three, four, and five respectively.

4 Discussion

The present study was triggered by the author's doubts pertaining to the relevance of various theories of motivation in the field of foreign and second language teaching and learning, most notably the so-called Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985), Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and more recently the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). These doubts are attributed to the fact that motivational orientations are related to social contexts (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002) and, since these theories of motivation are mainly developed and validated in more Western contexts, the relevance of the theoretical constructs of these theories across different social contexts remains an open question. Thus, unlike most of the previous studies of motivation which make use of constructs of motivation drawn from theories of motivation, the present study began by interviewing students regarding why they had decided to learn English in the first place. In this way, genuine understanding of their motivational orientations for learning English as a Foreign Language can be obtained without imposing theoretical constructs, which may not necessarily be irrelevant, on them.

As mentioned earlier, a PCA results in the extraction of five components. In other words, students' motivational orientations for learning English are not one-dimensional. It is appealing to observe that some of these components clearly reflect theoretical constructs already prevailing in the field of language teaching and learning. For example, the first component contains items that exhibit students' envisaged ideal self, such as wanting to be a proficient English language speaker, wanting to be equal to others who speak English, being proud to be able to speak English, and so forth. However, this component also encompasses items that reflect the existence of some sort of pressure, such as the obligation to pass an exam and to get a good job someday. Interestingly, this component also contains one item related to language learning environment (i.e. having a great teacher and classmates). It should become clear that these motivational orientations are akin to what Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) refer to as *ideal L2 self* (i.e. to be an envisaged proficient speaker), *ought-to L2 self* (i.e. the obligation to pass an English exam and to get a good job) and *learning environment* (to have a great teacher and classmates). However, unlike Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 Motivational Self System, all the above items load on one component, instead of three.

From the standpoint of SDT, the above orientations all reflect extrinsic orientations, simply because the motives for learning English emanate from outside the individual. However, the degree of autonomy or self-determination varies. For example, such orientations as being proud to be able to speak English and wanting to be a proficient English language speaker are more autonomous than having to pass an English exam or having to get a good job. From the standpoint of the socio-educational model, these items may reflect, to some extent, instrumental orientation (English helps students pass an English Exam or get a good job), although the present author is not entirely comfortable to label these two items as instrumental orientations. Interestingly, other items belonging to the first

component also depict integrative-like orientations (i.e. want to be able to communicate in English, love to hear other people speak English and want to be like them, etc.). However, the present author feels more comfortable to label all the eight items as ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and learning environment than integrative and instrumental since some items reflect neither integrative nor instrumental orientations.

The second component contains items indicating students' inclination to communicate and make friends with English speaking people. These typical orientations are more commonly known as "integrative orientation" as far as socio-educational model is concerned. Additionally, mastering English also helps them read and understand books and literature written in English. In other words, English serves as an instrument. As far as L2 Motivational Self System is concerned, these orientations are still related to Ideal L2 Self (i.e. being an envisaged proficient speaker who can communicate with English speakers). In fact, the construct ideal L2 self has been found to correlate highly positively with integrativeness (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), leading Dörnyei (2005; 2009) to suggest that the notion of integrativeness should be reconceptualised as ideal L2 self to capture the broader spectrum of such orientations. As far as SDT is concerned, however, these orientations can simply be regarded as extrinsic motivation simply, because the motive for learning English emanates from outside of the individual.

Another component comprises career orientation such as wanting to be a professional English teacher, a translator, and a tour guide. As far as socio-educational model is concerned, these are clearly instances of instrumental motivation, but the present author has avoided using this term here because instrumental orientation appears to be omnipresent (other components also have instrumental-like orientations). Instead, the present author refers to this as "career orientation" to be more specific. Within the L2 Motivational Self System, these orientations may still be regarded as the Ideal L2 Self (i.e. being a professional English teacher may be regarded as an envisaged ideal self.). From the standpoint of SDT, however, these orientations can be either extrinsically or intrinsically regulated, depending on the degree of self-determination or autonomy when performing such an action. For example, if the aspiration to be a professional English teacher results in the feeling of "enjoyment," then this orientation can be regarded as intrinsic motivation. If, however, the wish is motivated by good pay or other external contingencies, then it is extrinsic motivation by definition.

Interestingly, one component consists of items related to information accessibility (i.e. "By mastering English I will not miss information," "Many world news on social media are available only in English," "English is a Language of Science," "I like reading English newspaper to get information from different countries," and "English helps me find information I need on the Net more quickly (compared to Bahasa Indonesia).") From the standpoint of the socio-educational model, these orientations are similar to instrumental motivation (i.e. English serves as a means to accessing information). However, again, the term "instrumental motivation" may be inapt for two reasons. First, as mentioned earlier, instrumental orientations appear to be ubiquitous and, second, the term "instrumental" appears to be too general to capture this particular orientation. This orientation may be related, to some extent, to ideal L2 self (i.e. the envisaged self with full access to information) of the L2 Motivational Self System and to extrinsic motivation (i.e. external regulations with different degree of autonomy) of SDT. However, this paper argues that, given the advancement in information and communication technologies allowing ease of access to profuse information on the Net, "information accessibility" may need to be treated as a distinct construct in the research of motivational orientation for learning English. The fact that items related to this orientation successfully load on a distinct component fortifies the claim.

Last, but not least, students' motivational orientations for learning English are attributed to the fact that they are confident that they are good at English (at least compared to their performance in other subjects) and they find learning English interesting and fun. As mentioned earlier, there are students who originally decide to learn English simply because they believe that they are good at it (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Iwaniec, 2014) and these orientations have nothing to do with integrative and instrumental orientations. Nor do they have to do with "Ideal L2 Self." Strictly speaking, it is not an envisaged ideal L2 self; rather, it is the actual self. Perhaps the construct "intrinsic motivation" of

SDT framework is more closely related to these orientations, but the term “intrinsic” on its own is insufficient to depict these orientations. Just because a person believes that he is good at doing things, it does not necessarily suggest that he enjoys the activity. By the same token, just because a person enjoys doing an activity, he is not necessarily good at it – enjoyment and perceived competence are two different things although they are related. That is why it is labelled as “self confidence and intrinsic motivation.”

Findings of the present study suggest that students’ motivational orientations for learning English as a Foreign Language are quite intricate. Theoretical constructs of motivation, especially those derived from the socio-educational model, SDT, and L2 Self-System are, by and large, relevant in accounting for students’ motivational orientations for learning English in this particular context. However, as seen from the component loadings above, it is clear that current theories of motivation need to be expanded further to include orientations which are currently missing in the theory. For example, one such orientation is related to information access. As most information on the Net is in English, it is just natural to expect that having access to such information would constitute one reason for learning the language.

However, it is worth noting that the present study was conducted with high school students. Their orientations may possibly change as they are exposed to new learning experience, new expectations, new priorities, and to other life experiences. As students become more mature, more responsibilities are assumed and more commitments are made. These changes could also change their motivational orientations for learning English. Thus, motivational orientations are not static; it is a dynamic construct that keeps changing throughout one’s life.

5 Conclusion

The primary objective of this study was to scrutinize students’ motivational orientations for learning English as a Foreign Language at high school level within an Indonesian context. It also examines the extent to which these orientations match the theoretical constructs and whether these orientations comprise one or multiple dimensions. The PCA results in the extraction of a five-component solution referred to as “ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and learning environment,” “integrative orientation,” “career orientation,” “information access,” and “self-confidence and intrinsic motivation.” Thus, the hypothesis that students’ motivational orientation for learning English is one-dimensional is rejected. Overall, the study suggests that theoretical constructs drawn from Gardner’s (1972; 1985) socio-educational model, SDT, and L2 self system are generally relevant for the students involved in the present study. However, it is clear that the constructs of these theories need to be extended further to include orientations which are missing from the theoretical construct, but which may impinge on students’ motivational orientations for learning English as a Foreign Language.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Correlation matrix

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23	Q24
Q1	1.00	.150	.215	.194	.198	.220	.570	.537	.191	.183	.230	.210	.193	.271	.261	.198	.105	.481	.155	.136	.197	.102	.009	.202
Q2		1.00	.536	.531	.496	.352	.149	.173	.402	.245	.345	.121	.402	.399	.304	.393	.392	.066	.391	.387	.382	.367	.277	.382
Q3			1.00	.645	.540	.394	.266	.227	.466	.228	.387	.172	.470	.435	.422	.417	.384	.170	.420	.393	.401	.368	.370	.479
Q4				1.00	.525	.380	.277	.248	.463	.234	.358	.157	.422	.430	.370	.398	.417	.159	.459	.417	.435	.382	.278	.437
Q5					1.00	.494	.207	.215	.385	.282	.326	.169	.383	.366	.411	.370	.373	.182	.396	.378	.397	.341	.238	.493
Q6						1.00	.362	.243	.444	.391	.304	.153	.424	.384	.508	.444	.440	.243	.382	.398	.362	.353	.225	.464
Q7							1.00	.600	.292	.245	.266	.270	.266	.320	.274	.215	.235	.593	.243	.247	.269	.128	.098	.319
Q8								1.00	.226	.230	.244	.283	.189	.292	.229	.156	.180	.545	.162	.172	.161	.089	-.024	.238
Q9									1.00	.278	.308	.129	.518	.433	.342	.383	.418	.166	.523	.518	.487	.476	.399	.505
Q10										1.00	.316	.294	.283	.282	.312	.349	.307	.233	.261	.188	.219	.166	.044	.264
Q11											1.00	.474	.412	.539	.358	.299	.360	.154	.331	.280	.363	.278	.210	.347
Q12												1.00	.185	.350	.174	.155	.166	.173	.155	.114	.179	.124	.005	.154
Q13													1.00	.563	.366	.449	.478	.142	.552	.511	.542	.405	.376	.493
Q14														1.00	.456	.395	.455	.200	.472	.380	.440	.353	.272	.428
Q15															1.00	.481	.418	.217	.393	.313	.347	.350	.240	.434
Q16																1.00	.471	.176	.443	.402	.380	.356	.264	.458
Q17																	1.00	.182	.514	.462	.498	.392	.306	.549
Q18																		1.00	.181	.171	.187	.105	.033	.232
Q19																			1.00	.609	.627	.504	.454	.512
Q20																				1.00	.665	.571	.471	.569
Q21																					1.00	.556	.498	.567
Q22																						1.00	.626	.486
Q23																							1.00	.400
Q24																								1.00

a. Determinant = 9.55E-006

Appendix 2: Kaiser–Gutman Rule

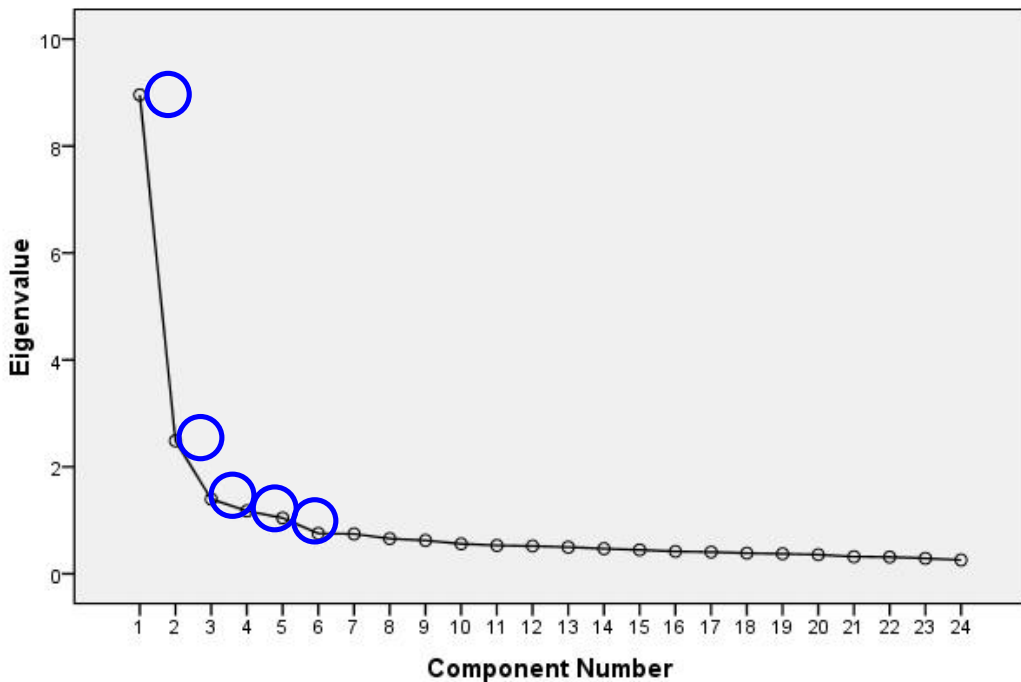
Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.956	37.316	37.316	8.956	37.316	37.316	4.676	19.482	19.482
2	2.488	10.367	47.683	2.488	10.367	47.683	2.905	12.102	31.584
3	1.398	5.824	53.508	1.398	5.824	53.508	2.830	11.790	43.374
4	1.176	4.902	58.409	1.176	4.902	58.409	2.775	11.564	54.938
5	1.045	4.355	62.764	1.045	4.355	62.764	1.878	7.826	62.764
6	.754	3.141	65.905						
7	.746	3.106	69.012						
8	.658	2.744	71.755						
9	.624	2.601	74.356						
10	.561	2.338	76.694						
11	.530	2.210	78.904						
12	.520	2.166	81.070						
13	.499	2.079	83.148						
14	.469	1.956	85.104						
15	.448	1.867	86.971						
16	.418	1.742	88.713						
17	.408	1.701	90.414						
18	.386	1.608	92.022						
19	.374	1.557	93.579						
20	.358	1.492	95.071						
21	.320	1.334	96.405						
22	.314	1.310	97.715						
23	.290	1.207	98.923						
24	.259	1.077	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 3: Scree plot

Scree Plot



*Appendix 4: Scale and component reliability**Scale***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.912	24

*Component 1***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.891	8

*Component 2***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.825	4

*Component 3***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.833	4

*Component 4***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.770	5

*Component5***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.710	3

*Appendix 5: KMO and Bartlett's Test***KMO and Bartlett's Test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.936
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5700.751
	df	276
	Sig.	.000