Asian EFL Learning Motivation: A Marketing Exchange Theory Development

Abstract

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language, EFL, Motivation, Exchange Theory

Motivation has been an important research topic for over fifty years due to its fundamental importance in understanding why people make certain decisions and how much effort they put into those decision, both before and after the actual choice of action is made. Understanding the motivations of language learners is part of this trend, yet there still is surprisingly little understanding of the motivations of the vast majority of language learners who are studying a foreign language. There are far more non-native English learners than native speakers----the underlying reality that English has become an international language. In being an international language, the motivations for studying may be quite different in the international context than in the context of a person joining a native English speaking culture.

Since most of our understanding of language learning motivation is imported from the West, it seems appropriate to question if the motivations are truly the same. This research undertakes an approach that applies the theories of marketing science, exchange theory, to understanding the motivations of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students in Taiwan. Exchange theory may be an appropriate basis for approaching this question, as it describes the exchanges of value that individuals undertake in order to obtain what they think is a higher value. The mixing of the two long established research fields (both highly related to sociology) can result in overarching theories and explanations that are rich and robust.

Goals of this project include confirmation/disconfirmation of learning motivations asserted in to exist in the language learning motivation research (integration and instrumental). Through the application of Exchange theory, models are to be developed that include other motivations that may be unique to EFL settings, including a second track of the project that includes drawing information from Taiwan work settings (including all major industry sectors in Taiwan). These motivations and environmental variables will then be put through confirmatory analysis. After a number of such cycles, purified measures will be derived that can then be included in a wide-ranging survey in Taiwan of non-English majors. Results will be employed in creating a robust model of non-English major EFL students and their exchange relationships employing English language learning motivations. Such results can then be used to adjust teaching pedagogy as well as specific adjustments to the exchange relationships in order to improve motivations towards EFL learning.

Introduction/Background

It is taken for granted that English is important due to its international nature. This conclusion logically leads to the acceptance that English should be taught around the world. The universal nature of this trend can be seen in all industrialized and developing countries. Asia is no exception, as English is a required topic of study in high schools and is often used in university entrance exams. It is widely acknowledged in academic circles that English training is a perquisite for a nation’s industrial development.

Within countries where English is the native language, there is little doubt that learners benefit from learning the language in numerous ways, such as social as well as economically. This forms the basis of motivational theory in ESL learning theory. But how appropriate are the underlying assumptions in non-English speaking nations. In the rapidly growing world of interdependent economies, the question of exactly what is going on in English learning is an important one that may inform the growing business of English learning as well as the pedagogy of language teaching. The field of marketing is based on Exchange theory that places an emphasis on getting the right resource combinations to the right consumers. By applying Exchange theory to EFL motivation questions may allow a powerful understanding of not only what motivates EFL students in Taiwan, but how to adjust pedagogy to better match our students directions and the marketplace requirements.

Part I

EFL Distinct from ESL

Sridhar (1994) states that SLA theory needs rebuilding from the ground up, in order to have a more functionally oriented and culturally authentic theory. ‘Why do models of second language acquisition (SLA) developed in the U.S. and Western Europe treat the vast majority of L2 learners, those that learn and use an L2 in non-native contexts, as marginal? The inescapable answer seems to be that current theories are powerfully constrained by Western cultural premises, and when a culture does not fit the assumptions no special allowances are made.

Kachru (1994) and Sridhar (1994) have pointed out that the dominant acquisition theories and teaching methodologies currently taught are largely based on second language acquisition models found in North America, Britain, and Australia (hereafter referred to as NABA). Most of the data used in developing these models were taken from immigrants and international students studying in NABA, and little effort has been made to collect information from other contexts in the rest of the world (Kachru 1994). The dominant L2 acquisition paradigm thus ‘leaves out vast millions of L2 users who learn and use second language in their own countries . . .’ (Sridhar 1994: 801). ‘In other words, without suitable adaptation, many of the L2 acquisition theories may be irrelevant . . .’ (Liu 1998). Dornyei (1990) has pointed out that the results obtained from second-language acquisition (SLA) contexts are not directly applicable to FLL (foreign language learning) situations. Gardner and Macintyre (1991), Ramage (1986) and others have also noted the differences in motivation toward English learning in different contexts. And as Holliday (1994a, 1994b) and Prabhu (1987) have shown, many teaching methodologies may be impractical or ineffective in Non-NABA countries.

Different Conditions and Contexts

The factors that make English education in non-NABA countries very different from that in NABA countries can be categorized as follows:

1. Educational policy

As in most non-NABA countries, English language education in Asia generally takes place in state-run institutions such as elementary or secondary schools, as well as at the tertiary level. English is treated as a required academic subject, rather than as a tool for survival in business and education, as is usually the case with ESL in NABA settings.

2. Tradition

Although there have been some changes, English teaching in most of Asia still tends to mean teaching grammar, reading, and translation. Language evaluation tests under this practice measure mainly grammatical competence (Campbell and Zhao 1993). In cultures with a long tradition of obedience to authority, a teacher is not seen as a facilitator but as a presenter of knowledge. Thus, English teaching in Asia is still dominantly teacher-centered (Campbell and Zhao 1993). While in the West, teaching is process, discovery-oriented, or student-centered which often entails amounts of interaction and group work in classes where normal class size is under 20 students. Other cultures simply do not have the same classroom setting.

3. Resources

Limited educational resources, lack of funds, and a shortage of teachers has led to classrooms crowded with as many as 70 students in China (Hudson 1994) and 60 in Taiwan, with little or no audio-visual or other teaching equipment. These limitations have resulted in large numbers of students being taught in predominantly non-interactive lecture-style settings.

4. Class time

The class time per week for English is limited to about 2-4 hours, far fewer than in NABA's intensive ESL programs. Such limited class time greatly constrains the amount of information that can be covered as well as simply eliminating opportunities for students to practice using the language.

Purpose of English Study

Before rendering assistance to our students, we should change our attitude and work hard to ascertain what is really needed by our students. Otherwise, our efforts may be in vain. Hudson's (1994: 21) reflections on the teacher training course she offered in Thailand are especially illuminating:

> The course focuses on ESL because the resources and the practicum offered are in an ESL situation, not an EFL situation. Many of the students intended to use their teaching skills in an EFL situation but the differences required by the EFL situation are largely left to the students to investigate.

Although Hudson's remarks refer to a teacher training situation, it is also highly relevant to the problem of our students' needs. Besides differences in learning contexts and conditions, the needs of non-NABA students certainly are very different than their NABA counterparts.

Motivational factors in language learning

Language motivation theory is an outgrowth of motivation theories mostly developed from industrial psychology researchers trying to understand with worker productivity (Georgopoulos, et al., 1957; Vroom, 1964). Expectancy and instrumentality models describe cognitive processes people undertake when measuring the probability of a payoff and the resulting value of such a payoff (Mitchell, 1974; Kopelman, 1976; Mitchell, 1979; Muchinsky, 1977; Oldham, 1976). Equity theory asserts that people make choices based on a *standard* state. When a person is near that state, effort is minimized, but when far from that state, action will be undertaken (Adams, 1965; Goodman, 1974; Greenberg and Ornstein, 1983; Greenberg, 1988; Vecchio, 1981; Huseman et al., 1987).

The study of motivation in second-language acquisition became a distinguished research topic after Gardner and Lambert (1972) published a comprehensive summary of the results of a more than ten-year-long research program. They found that success in language attainment was dependent upon the learner's affective predisposition toward the target linguistic-cultural group. This lead them to conceptualize 'integrative motivation,' which reflects "a high level of drive on the part of the individual to acquire the language of a valued second-language community in order to facilitate communication with that group" (Gardner, et al. 1976, p. 199). Integrative motivation is associated with components such as interest in foreign languages, desire to interact with the target language community, and attitudes toward the target language community (Gardner, 1982). This motive is clearly distinct from a second drive, instrumental motivation, where the learner's interest in learning the foreign language is associated with the pragmatic, utilitarian benefits of language proficiency, such as a better job or a higher salary (Dornyei 1990).

Dornyei's study of 134 learners of English in Hungary, a typical European FLL environment, investigated the components of motivation in foreign-language learning. Findings involved learning the target language in institutional/academic settings without regularly interacting with the target language community. It was assumed that the results obtained from second-language acquisition (SLA) contexts---those in which the target language is learned at least partly embedded in the host environment---are not directly applicable to FLL situations (Dornyei 1990). Among the motivational components in his motivational construct, Dornyei postulated the following: (1) an Instrumental Motivational Subsystem, (2) an Integrative Motivational Subsystem, (3) Need for Achievement, and (4) Attributions about Past Failures (Dornyei 1990). The results of his study indicated that in mastering an intermediate target language proficiency, the Instrumental Motivational Subsystem and Need for Achievement especially, play a significant role, whereas the desire to go beyond this level is associated with integrative motives. In other words, learners with a high level of instrumental motivation and need for achievement are more likely than are others to attain an intermediate level of proficiency in the target language. On the other hand, to get beyond this level, that is, to really learn the target language, one has to have an integration motivation. Although these results were based upon data drawn from only one FLL situation, it is possible that the conceptualized model applies to FLL in general.

Some components, however, may not be present in all FLL environments.

It is fair to interpret Dornyei's study results as suggesting that integrative motivation might be far less relevant for foreign language learners than for those learning a second language. According to him, foreign language learners rarely have sufficient experience with the target language community to have clearly articulated attitudes toward that community, and they are therefore uncommitted to integrating with that group. Additionally, instrumental motivation and need for achievement are associated with each other, and these two factors affect foreign language students at an intermediate proficiency level and below. It seems that the motivations of foreign and second language learners are often highly disparate, and that integrative motivation is much more meaningful for second language learners, who must learn to live in the new culture and communicate fluently in the target language, than for most foreign language learners, who are separated in space and attitude from the target culture and who rarely surpass intermediate language proficiency (Oxford and Shearin 1994).

Differences between L2 learning motivation in second and foreign language environments have been observed by numerous researchers. A second language is one that is learned in a location where that language is typically used as the main vehicle of everyday communication for most people (for instance, English being learned by a non-native speaker of that language in Singapore, in Hong Kong, or in Malaysia). The learner of the second language is surrounded by stimulation, both visual and auditory, in the target language and thus has many motivational and instructional advantages (Oxford and Shearin 1994). A foreign language is one that is learned in a place where that language is not typically used as the medium of ordinary communication (for instance, English as it is usually learned in Taiwan, Japan, or Korea). Foreign language learners are surrounded by their own native language and have to go out of their way to find stimulation and input in the target language. These students typically receive input in the new language only in the classroom and by rather artificial means, no matter how talented the teacher is (Oxford and Shearin 1994).

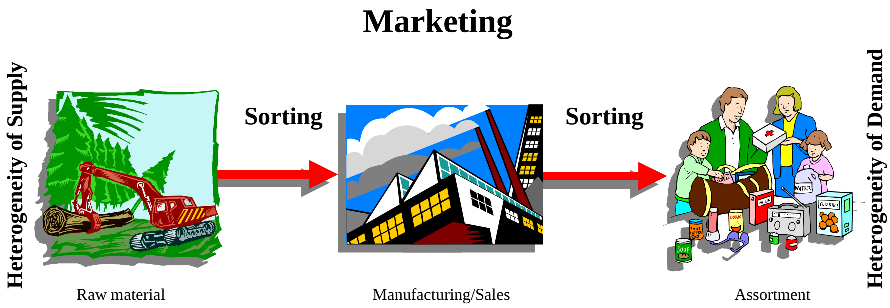
The question of whether motivations differ between learners of second and foreign languages is very important and has been repeatedly discussed in recent years. We hypothesized that in the EFL situation like ours in Taiwan, at least at a tertiary level, the L2 learning motivations are to be related more with the instrumental aspect rather than with an integrative one.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) found that instrumentally motivated students spent more time in thinking about the correct answer (to the questions in an English test) than non-instrumentally motivated students when there was an opportunity to monetarily profit from learning. The results of their study support the generalization that motivation facilitates learning, and that by and large any factors that motivate an individual to learn will result in successful acquisition (Gardner, 1985). Spolsky (1989) made a similar observation when he pointed out that there are many possible bases for motivation. He stated: "A language may be learned for any one or any collection of practical reasons. The importance of these reasons to the learner will determine what degree of effort he or she will make, what cost he or she will pay for the learning" (Spolsky: p. 160).

To the list of existing motivations, we add one more: required. While somewhat alien to the majority of American's, a required foreign language is quite common in educational institutions around the world. Obviously, English is one of the languages most often required, which results in many students studying English simply because it is required. In the absence of the two previously observed motivations, one could assume that the reason for studying the foreign language is simply because it is required. But can this default state actually be a motivation, in which it helps students obtain a higher skill level? We hypothesize that Taiwan students are motivated by language learning requirements. Cultural background for why this is the case are far too complex to cover in this paper.

Part II Marketing Exchange Theory

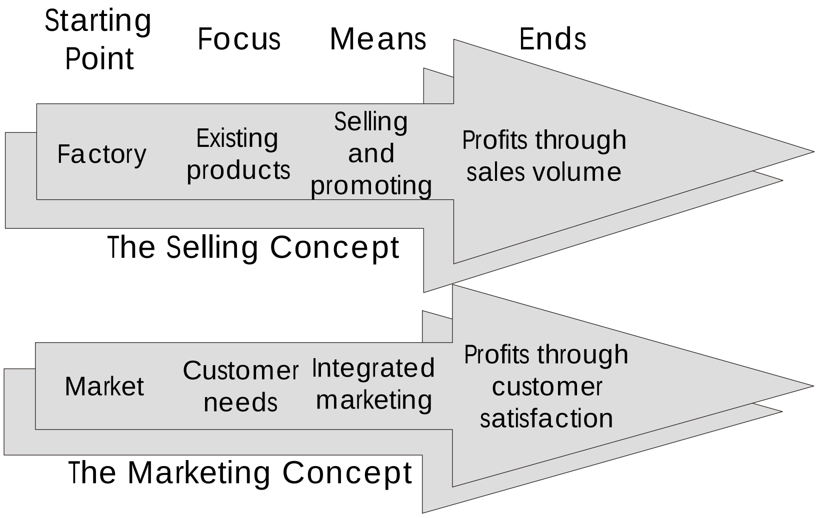
An idea that exchange processes lay at the center of human activity is nothing new, but the academic study of it has been adopted by the field of marketing which claims exchange to be the core concept of marketing. Wroe Alderson (1958) pioneered this area of study by laying the groundwork of exactly what marketing exchange is. Alderson described marketing as an intermediary between the creation of supply and the consumption of demand. Both the creation of goods and the demand for goods are heterogeneous, that is to say, there is high variety in both supply and demand. In this state, there is a mismatch between what a consumer may want and what is supplier can create. Marketing solves this problem by performing a *sorting out* which matches supply with demand on the macro-level, but is executed at the micro-level.



While stated this way, the marketing process may appear simple, it is the infinitely complex and diverse nature of consumers' demand that makes marketing complex. Rather than simply one line from supply to demand, there are millions.

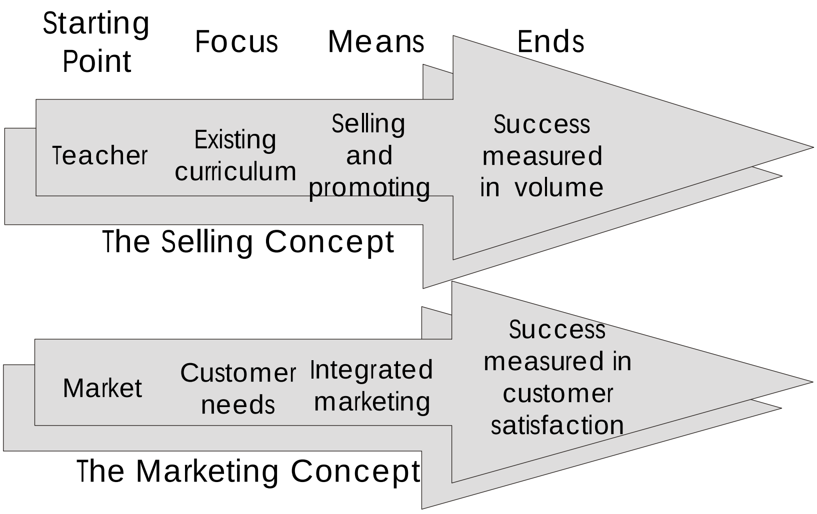
Marketing involves a complex interaction of social actors. Products end up in a consumer's assortment, but to simply guess what products would fit the assortment would be extremely risky. Instead, the *marketing concept* (Houston, 1986; Webster, 1988) informs firms that the starting point for product design is with the consumer. By understanding what the consumer wants to include in his/her assortment, the firm can achieve higher rates of successful sorts. Additionally, by better understanding the consumer, firms can create advertising that more efficiently informs the consumer that the firm has a product that can fit the consumer's assortment. From this perspective, marketing is not centered on profit, but simply on the exchange of values.

Figure 1. Marketing concepts contrasted



Applying the traditional perspective of marketing and the marketing concept, see Figure 1, to EFL language learning, we can see there are some similarities, and the marketing concept clearly is a more constructive approach (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Marketing approaches within an EFL context



Kotler and Levy broadened the definition of marketing in 1969, when they pointed out that all organizations, including non-profit ones, employ marketing. Kotler later expanded the marketing concept again with what he called the *generic concept of marketing*. Under the generic concept of marketing (Kotler), marketing exchange is simply the exchange of value even though no money, or any tangible item, may be exchanged. Kotler (1972) asserted four axioms of marketing:

Axiom 1: Marketing involves two or more social units, each consisting of one or more human actors.

Axiom 2: A least one of the social units is seeking a specific response form one or more other units concerning some social object.

Axiom 3: The market's response probability is not fixed.

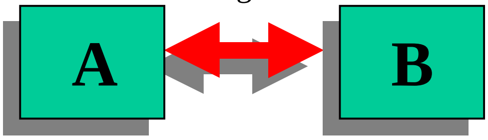
Axiom 4: Marketing is the attempt to produce the desired response by creating and offering value to the market.

Kotler's axioms clearly separate marketing from such social activities as negotiation with the key demarcation being the centrality of the exchange concept. The marketer attempts to increase the value of the exchange in terms that the market values, which underlines the mutuality of the process.

Specific models of the exchange process were described by Richard Bagozzi (1975; 1979) in an attempt to classify the mechanics of differing exchanges. Three distinct forms of exchange are described, differing in complexity.

Restricted exchange is a reciprocal relationship between two parties and clearly exhibits a maintenance of equality between the two parties. Restricted exchange represents marketing for most people, as well as researchers, as it is conceptually accessible and easy to quantify. When a consumer walks into Walmart and purchases a product, he/she fully expects that the value exchanged is a fair valuation of the product received. From the merchant's perspective, it is in the interest of the firm to make sure the exchange is fair, else the customer may not return.

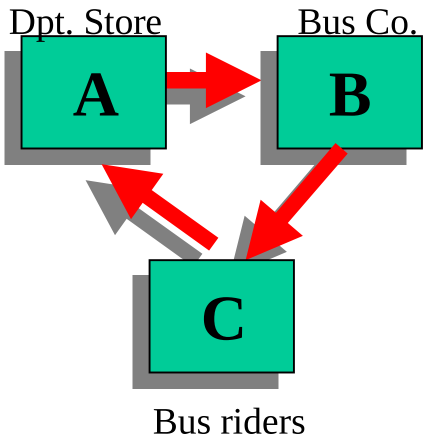
Restricted Exchange



While able to describe many exchanges, the restricted model does not consider many exchanges that are not two way between only two actors, nor does it examine the larger macro perspective of just how the two parties were drawn together (the whole sorting process is left out).

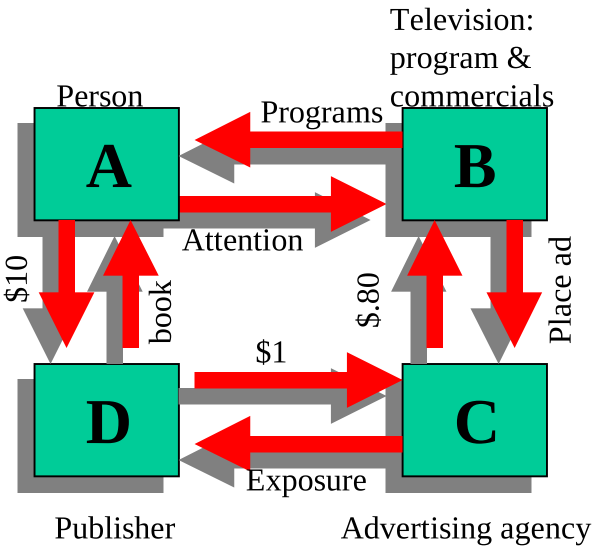
Widening the definition of marketing, as Kotler did, the generalized exchange model represents the flow of value as one way, passing through more than two actors, returning value to the marketer indirectly. Todays sponsering is clearly a form of generalized exchange where a marketer transfers value to a third part which in turn transfers another form of value to the market which in turn may transfer value to the marketer. The market and marketer two actors, just as in restricted exchange, however, a third party which may have no interest in the marketer or the market (in the form the marketer may perceive the market). Bagozzi uses the example of a department store that donates benches to a bus company. The benches have advertisements on them for the store, which are seen by consumers who in turn may visit the department store. Thus the department store and the bus company did not exchange anything of equal value, simply because such different goals (having seats for passengers and patrons to the department store) are not easily comparable. A bus company has no interest in whether or not its riders visit a department store, just as a department store does not care what form of transportation visitors use. Nike exhibits a generalized exchange behavior when it supplies amateur sports teams with equipment. Amateur players value the equipment they receive, while not valuing increased exposure or sales for Nike. Nike does not benefit from amateurs having free sports equipment, but can benefit from the exposure and increased purchases linked to consumers seeing their equipment at sports events.

Generalized Exchange



A third model is presented by Bagozzi that encompasses a wider perspective of exchange and classifies behaviors within the context of exchange which many people would normally not consider as an exchange. In complex exchange, at least three actors are involved with transfers in value do not move in only one direction, as in generalized exchange. Kotler's assertion that watching television is a form of exchange can be used to illustrate complex exchange.

Complex Exchange



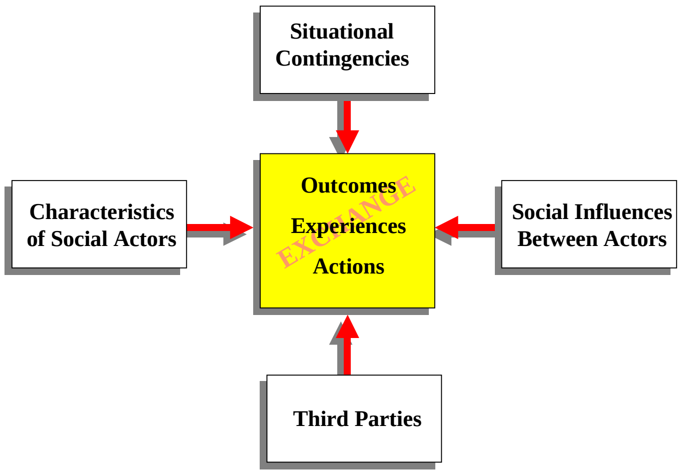
Complex exchange need not include value exchange in every direction, each actor must have at least one exchange, and the system need not be closed or circular.

Restricted exhange normal involves actors that are themselves quite aware of the exchange, while generalized and complex exchange can take place at a societal level with actors being relatively unaware of the processes. Central to this concept is the fact that the value exchanged need not be tangable and can include anything of value for any of the actors.

Sidney Levy (1976) claims that the macro view of marketing exchange is the basis of marketing and that it very well may be the case that all exchanges are marketing exchanges of some sort. Such a claim runs counter to the beliefs of marketing managers who have little use for such wide-ranging theories. Levy concludes that while making some uncomfortable, the universal nature of marketing exchange satisfies Karl Popper's (1963) assertion that it is the researcher's goal to solve problems, even though those problems may cross the borders of many disciplines. To overcome the gap between the needs of marketers and the study of marketing, Levy suggests that the field of research, centering on exchange, be named *marcology*, which captures the idea of marketing and ecology—reflecting the wide range covered by exchange.

Details of Exchange

A more formalized study of exchange clarifies the variables influencing it. Three variables were determined to make up exchange and determine the nature of the exchange: outcomes, experiences, and actions. Influencing factors come from four areas: situational contingencies, social influences between actors, third parties, and characteristics of social actors.



Exchange Variables	Description	Example
Outcomes	Physical, social or symbolic objects or events accruing to the actors.	The outcomes may be individual or shared, such as a salary increase for a successful marketing campaign, or the shared prestige the marketing department obtains from such a campaign.
Experiences	Psychological states and consistent of affective, cognitive, or moral dimensions.	Experiences that can be felt by the actors individually or jointly, such as a husband and wife enjoying their consumer decision-making process.
Actions	Individual choices and responses or joint commitments.	Degree of cooperation, competition or conflict in the dyad.

Exchange Influence		
Social Influences Between Actors	The communication between actors where desires, intentions, and purposes are expressed (a social negotiation that may include influence modes, such as: threats, promises, warning, or mendations).	"If you reduce the shelf space devoted to brand X, then we will discontinue our promotion credit to you."
Characteristics of Social Actors	Source characteristics include: attraction, expertise, credibility, prestige, trustworthiness, or status Receiver characteristics include: self-confidence, background attributes cognitive styles, and certain personality traits Interpersonal characteristics include:	"We can all walk away with a good deal." "I refuse to compromise on this point." "I've been running this business since before you where born." "We can find a solution if we just consider all the alternatives."

	behavioral tendencies the actors bring to the exchange, such as competitive, malevolent, rigid, responsive, etc.	
Third Party Effects	Third parties serve as a reference point to judge the value of the present exchange while also able to exert pressure on all actors through social comparison, persuasion and coercion.	"If we go with brand X, we will get a much better deal than what we have now." "While we can save money, it may get some environmental groups angry."
Situational Contingencies	The physical environment, the psychological climate, the social milieu, and the legal setting.	"We cannot finish the project by that time." "Giving our suppliers that kind of pressure could have negative effects."

Within the context of a maximization utility. The utility is maximized within the context of the production functions and psychological and social constraints.

Utility for the i_{th} entity in time period t

$$U_{it}=U_i(Z_{lt}, . . ., Z_{mt})$$

Commodities (j=1, . . ., m) that have been created by entity i for use or consumption at time t

$$Z_{jt}=f(i)_{jt}[X_{jt}, T_{jt}, E(i)_t, R(il)_{jt}, . . ., R(ir)_{jt}]$$

Production function

Going to a movie

Elements possessed by entity i at time t and able to be used in creation of Z

Tickets, baby-sitter, car, etc.

Quantities of time available at time t (time configurations)

Block of time needed for movie

Resources of entity

Knows French (see French film)

Good experiences with movies

Attributes of other entities who play active role in production process

Friends talk about movies

Clearly the production function runs into problems once we begin to describe none-economic exchange situations. Within the context of consumer behavior, the production function may be simplified for low involvement purchase decisions by setting all the variables to true or false and weighting the variables as required prerequisite or not. In such an approach, X and T are prerequisites, while E and R are not. Thus, if one has no tickets, babysitter, or car, the production function simply returns zero.

Every Day Exchanges

Bringing Bagozzi's (1979) formalized approach to bear on the analysis of exchange seems quite useful, but applying it to human's more personal behaviors may seems somewhat cold and calculating. Raymond P. Fisk and Kirk D. Walden (1979) have asserted that exchange, as a science, may encompass many types of exchange. In fact, Fisk and Walden assert that exchange, as we know it today, actually evolved from interpersonal exchange. This non-economic exchange does not include money, but certainly includes value. If we only examine restricted exchange types, it is quite clear that everyday, individuals do enter into exchange relationships. Examples include: job hunting, dating, sex, etc.

These exchanges include target markets, price, and promotion. As such, it makes sense that as individuals we may apply marketing techniques and perspectives to our naive exchanges. For example, in dating, an individual could apply the marketing concept and attempt to understand what the target market needs. As long as those needs can be met at a profit (profit not measured in money but in the utility function), the individual could maximize dating opportunities.

These examples are somewhat humorous, but have a serious side, especially when one considers the size and importance of the service market, which is dependent on human relations. It is easy to see that normal human behaviors also make up behaviors within service encounters. Understanding how to maximize such behaviors, within the context of exchange, should lead to increased success, and also hopefully consumer satisfaction. Here Fisk and Walden (1979) point out that naive marketing is especially vulnerable to ethical problems. In fact, this lines up quite well with Fisk and Walden's observation that exchange has developed from interpersonal relationships, and the observation by Levy, and numerous others, that marketing is generally perceived as evil and taking advantage of people. Since early exchange was more person-to-person in nature, an individual who adopted the view that the relationship was in fact an exchange may have often manipulated the situation in order to maximize his/her own gain—at the expense of others.

Theory Construction

Blalock and Wilken (1979) describe the basic requirements for exchange as:

Humans are goal-seeking
Humans prefer some goals over other
Humans can anticipate consequences of actions
Humans direct their behavior toward preferred consequences
Humans can be creative in obtaining their preferred consequences

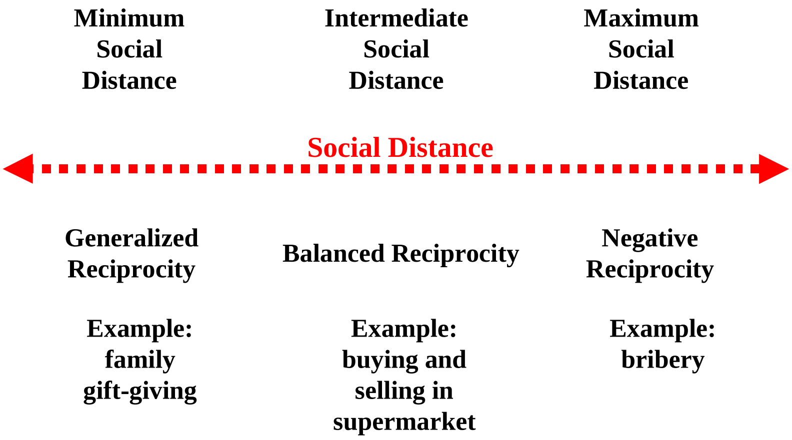
Further assumptions are drawn from Koter (1984):

At least two parties
Each party has something of value to another party
Each party is capable of communication and delivery
Each party is free to accept or reject the offer
Each party believes it is OK to deal with the other party

Alderson's original *Law of Exchange* is brought up again to reinforce the above lists of exchange requirements.

> X is an element in the assortment A, and Y is an element of the assortment B, then X is exchangeable for Y if: a) X is different from Y. B) the potency of the assortment A is increased by dropping X and adding Y. C) the potency of the assortment B is increased by adding X and dropping Y.

These parameters are somewhat limiting in the real world if we are to consider exchange to be taking place in nearly all social activity. A more comprehensive view is introduced in considering the social distance (drawn from reciprocity research) between the participants in an exchange. Balanced exchange (reciprocity) takes place when the actors have an intermediate social distance from each other. However, if the social distance is minimized, as is the case between mother and child, the exchange is of the general form and tends to be unbalanced, in the economic exchange sense, but is in equilibrium none-the-less. On the opposite side of the continuum is a large social distance, such as a criminal and his/her victim. Such an exchange is also unbalanced, yet can also be in equilibrium.



By expanding this concept, we can see that social distance can differ for different actors within the context of a single exchange. This presents us with exchanges that may appear quite unfair, from a social/legal perspective, but have their own equilibrium and thus can continue. In addition, this perspective introduces a temporal dimension to our understanding of exchange. Exchange can develop over a long period of time, as a function of its equilibrium, and serve the actors in such a way that is not readily apparent at a single observation.

This extension of exchange is taken even further by Kiel, Lusch, and Schumacher (1992) to describe not only marketing by evolutionary systems in general. If we except that no exchange can take place that is not a marketing exchange, then nature itself may participate in exchange relationships. Within nature we can often see relationships between species of animals that benefit both. For example, tortoises allow birds to land on them and pick parasites from their skin. The tortoises even will adopt a stand in which their legs and neck are extended, thus inviting the birds. This is quite a useful service, since the tortoises have no way to clean themselves. Thus an exchange is completed, as there is a marketer (the tortoise), a market (the birds), and a transfer of some value.

Kiel, Lusch, and Schumacher (1992) go further than this in their assertion that the universe is the result of exchange. They first assert that all exchange results from attraction. Physics, chemistry, and evolution all deal with attraction as central concepts. Marketing also has had attraction at its core for some time, most noticeably William Reilly’s (1929) law of retail gravitation. Next, like nature, exchange is characterized by dynamic equilibrium. As Houston and Gassenheimer (1987) pointed out, exchange may be in equilibrium, but not seen as positive in nature by all the participating actors. Thus, at any time, the exchange relationship may be reevaluated and discontinued. This is also the case in nature, where the exchange can be discontinued at a time when the exchange is not favorable, or a more favorable choice is available.

A more radical assertion is made by Kiel, Lusch, and Schumacher (1992) in their proposition that all exchange systems progress to higher states of matter and complexity. The steps of progress are: emergence, convergence, proliference, and divergence. No marketing examples are given, but the authors assert that mathematical models can be developed that show the underlying structure of these evolutionary stages within a marketing context. Such work may be helpful in the product life cycle model for example.

Hypothesis

Due to the special nature of EFL, Asians will exhibit a low level of motivation related to social integration. This project proposes the following hypothesis related to EFL learning motivations in Taiwan:

- Three distinct, measurable motivation groups exist among EFL non-major English students in Taiwan: integrative, instrumental, and required.
- The relevant importance played by these motivations for EFL non-major English students will vary dependent on market-based variables (such as employment opportunities).
- Membership in these motivational groups be predicted or influenced by actual environmental use of English in the past, present, or future.
- Membership in these motivational groups be predicted or influenced by expectancy factors--results of personal effort (past, present, future).
- Marketing Exchange theory can be used to model the different motivational groups in Taiwan's EFL setting.
- Marketing Exchange theory can be applied to better understand the needs of EFL students and the requirements of the marketplace.

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Research Methodology

Hypothesis

Due to the special nature of EFL, Asians will exhibit a low level of motivation related to social integration. Application of marketing theory will supply an insight, both descriptive and predictive, of Taiwan EFL learners and the wider context of the exchange relationships such skill acquisition has with the environment (such as employment opportunities). This project proposes the following hypothesis related to EFL learning motivations in Taiwan:

- Three distinct, measurable motivation groups exist among EFL non-major English students in Taiwan: integrative, instrumental, and required.
- The relevant importance played by these motivations for EFL non-major English students will vary dependent on market-based variables (such as employment opportunities).
- Membership in these motivational groups be predicted or influenced by actual environmental use of English in the past, present, or future.
- Membership in these motivational groups be predicted or influenced by expectancy factors--results of personal effort (past, present, future).
- Marketing Exchange theory can be used to model the different motivational groups in Taiwan’s EFL setting.
- Marketing Exchange theory can be applied to better understand the needs of EFL students and the requirements of the marketplace.

The total utility for English, in whatever form, can be expressed in a utility function where the different motivational factors are included.

$$U_{it}=U_i(Z_{lt}, \ldots, Z_{mt})$$

where

$$Z_{jt}=f(i)_{jt}[X_{jt}, T_{jt}, E(i)_t, R(il)_{jt}, \ldots, R(ir)_{jt}]$$

$U_{it}=U_i(Z_{Integrationt}, Z_{Instrumental}, Z_{Requirement})$

$Z_{Integration}=f(i)_{jt}[X_{jt}, T_{jt}, E(i)_t, R(il)_{jt}, . . ., R(ir)_{jt}]$
$Z_{Intrumental}=f(i)_{jt}[X_{jt}, T_{jt}, E(i)_t, R(il)_{jt}, . . ., R(ir)_{jt}]$
$Z_{Requirement}=f(i)_{jt}[X_{jt}, T_{jt}, E(i)_t, R(il)_{jt}, . . ., R(ir)_{jt}]$

Although through different means, individuals can find equal utility in English, however, the differences in the specific production functions will have significant impact on the approaches used in actually completing the function.
While is seems obvious that a college, university, or even a language cram school, is a marketer, we assert that the transfer of English skill is in turn used in such a way that the language student becomes a marketer. The possession of English skill is a marketing advantage or disadvantage for the student at some time.

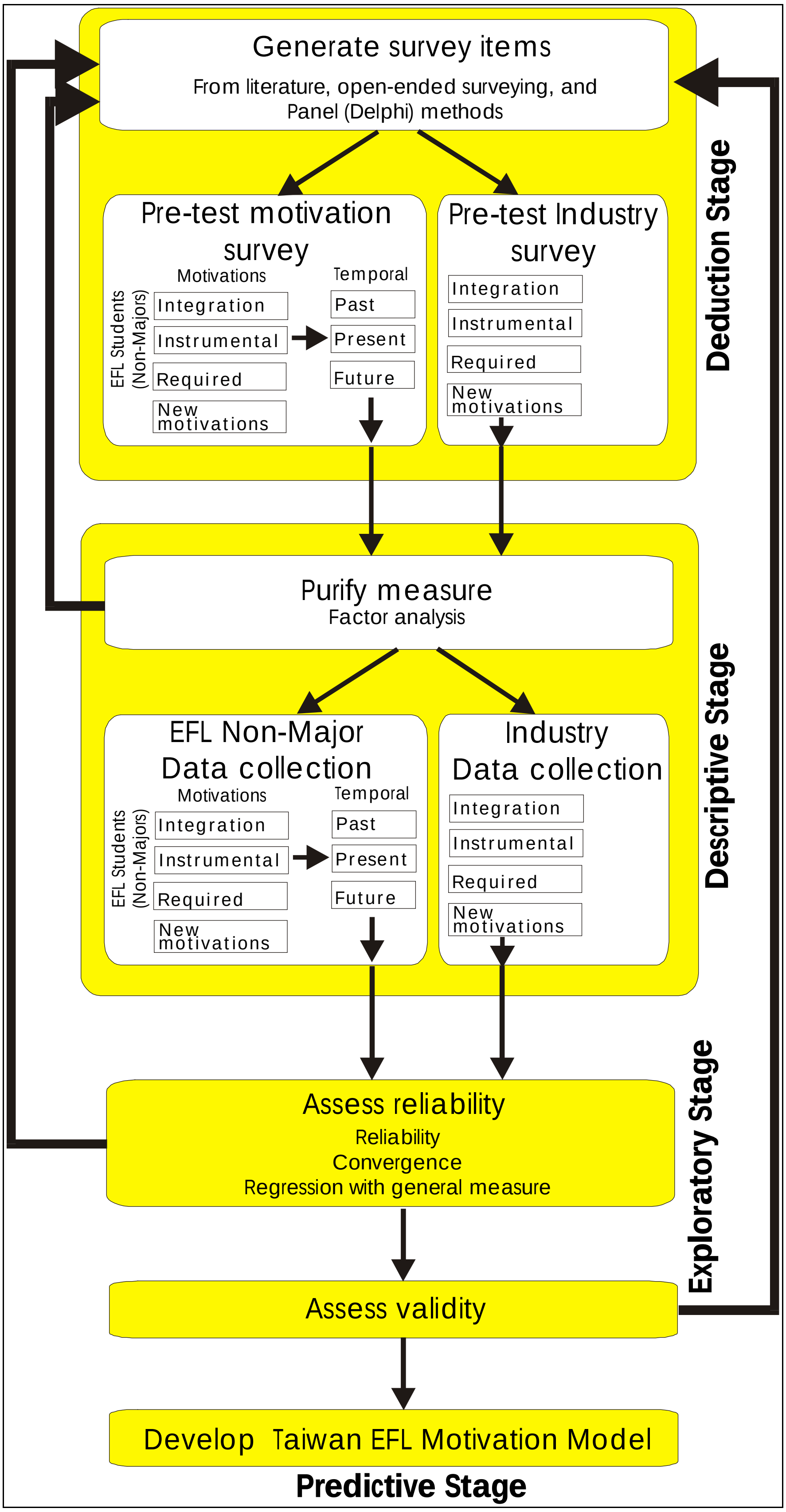
Research Stages

This project attempts to build a new approach to understanding motivation, and as such as numerous stages to ensure maximum internal validity (see Figure 3). Two paths of emphasis reoccur throughout the project; one emphasizes the motivational factors cognitively known to the EFL student, while the second path examines the economic environment, including:

1) Interviews from managers in a range of industries in Taiwan, to access the importance of English in each industry. (This data can later be used as a controlling variable in statistical analysis, to control for the influence of major field of study)
2) Data from the current researchers' ongoing analysis of English importance and application in Taiwan's business sectors.
3) Interviews with employees of various industries and firms.
4) Survey of English use in firms across Taiwan.

This dual path approach will allow us to examine the actual potential of exchange relationships, from which a model of EFL motivation can be constructed and confirmed.

Figure 3. Research stages of this project



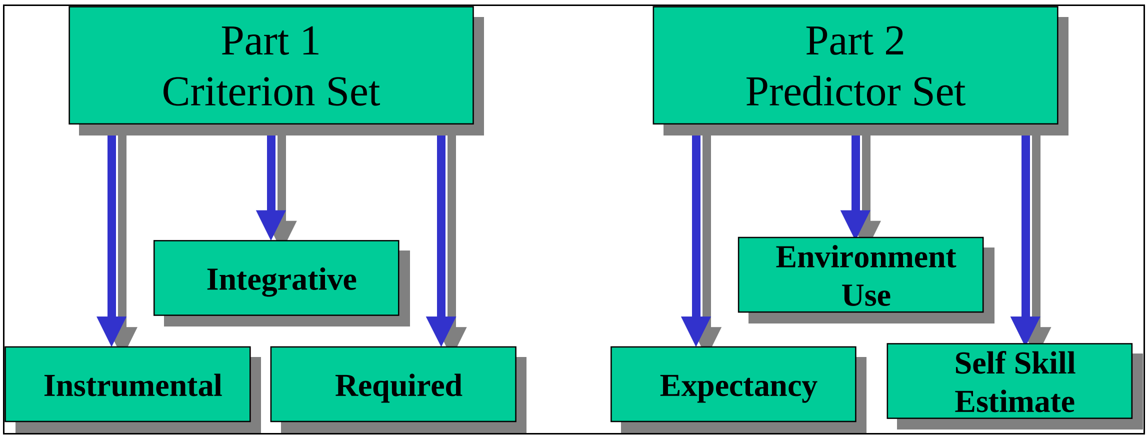
Deduction Stage

In this stage, the survey instruments, interview techniques and other data gathering approaches will be designed. The three main motivations are obvious starting points, with new motivations to be added as the deduction stage progresses. Key to this stage is inclusion of as many possible motivation sources as possible, from which significant ones can be deduced. Factor analysis will then be applied to purify the measures and find groupings that exist with the data.

Survey Instrument

The survey instrument, after confirmation from small-medium scale testing, will be widely distributed at numerous locations—both universities and business sites. Due to the extremely large number of EFL students studying English as non-majors, even a low response rate will result in large numbers of results. Most importantly, for external validity, is that the survey can be distributed thought widely separated geographical locations. Figure 4 shows the two main threads of the deduction stage, including a criterion set, centering on the motivations of the EFL students, and the predictor set, centering on the environment and skill use/estimate in the environment. Factor analysis results will act as feedback to the generation and refinement of survey instruments (a feedback loop in Figure 3).

Figure 4. Example of two main research treads and possible factor results



Descriptive Stage

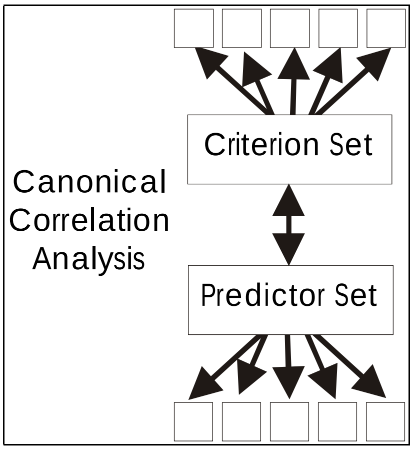
Once the survey instrument is satisfactory purified and pre-testing shows satisfactory descriptive power, a wide ranging mailing of the instrument can be undertaken. The instrument will be issued to non-English majors, thus the pool of possible respondents in Taiwan is quite large. A range of geographical locations as well as education institution types will be selected. In addition, a Web-based survey approach may be applied, depending on pending research into its effectiveness (Warden, forthcoming).

Upon completion of data collection and input to digital format, descriptive analysis can be undertaken. Results should cover a wide range of what students are doing, and what firms and industries in Taiwan are looking for in English skill and training. This stage of statistical analysis can act as an important base for future research into EFL training and requirements in Taiwan. For the present study, however, this stage acts as an input into the exploratory stage of the research project.

Exploratory Stage

In this stage, the descriptive data is analyzed to find actual relationships between the two main threads of data. Canonical analysis will be applied to find which environmental factors link and/or influence EFL learner motivations. Canonical correlation allows a regression analysis with multiple dependent and multiple independent variables, unlike normal regression which allows only one dependent variable. Additionally, types of data sources, scale or nominal, can be combined in the analysis.

Figure 5. Canonical analysis model



Predictive Stage

Validity of the model will be tested through a competing models analysis which will employ LISREL analysis (finding models with the best fit). Results will then be tested against existing models for validity.

Expected Results

These findings will take into consideration the complex nature of understanding behavior, whether it be consumer behavior or learner behavior (which may be a false distinction). ELF settings through the world often are based on economic realities, rather than cultural admiration or desire to become a member of the target language's culture. A model of motivation that applies Exchange theory, borrowed from marketing, may provide a much more accurate description of what EFL students are doing and why. Additionally, these results can form the basis for a more integrated theory development of behavior that integrates business and language theories, resulting in a more rich theory. Table 1 shows the expected results and the areas of their possible applications.

Table 1. Research results.

	EFL theory expansion	Marketing theory expansion	Motivations of EFL non-majors	Needs/requirements of business sectors	Quantification of impact on motivation from environmental factors	Improved Non-major EFL pedagogy
Deductive survey design			✓	✓		✓
Deductive industry analysis			✓	✓		✓
Factor analysis of motivations	✓	✓	✓			✓
Descriptive results						✓
Canonical analysis	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
LISREL competing model analysis	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓