EXPLORING MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING JAPANESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

by

Akari Osumi

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty of Purdue University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

School of Languages & Cultures

West Lafayette, Indiana

May 2019

THE PURDUE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL
STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Dr. Atsushi Fukada
School of Languages and Cultures
Dr. Mariko Moroishi Wei
School of Languages and Cultures
Dr. Kazumi Hatasa
School of Languages and Cultures

Approved by:

Dr. Jennifer William
Head of the Graduate Program

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would first like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor and committee chair, Professor Atsushi Fukada, for his continuous support, encouragement, and advice. Without his help and patience, I would not have been able to complete my thesis. I sincerely cannot imagine a better advisor and mentor for my life in graduate school years.

I would also like to express my appreciation to the rest of my thesis committee: Professor Mariko Moroishi Wei, and Professor Kazumi Hatasa, for their insightful comments and encouragement.

I am also very grateful to Ms. Yumiko Morita and Mr. Ryo Nomura, for spending their precious time as a graduate student, helping me and cheering me on. I sincerely believe that I would not have survived those two years without them being my best supporters and comrades.

My appreciation also goes out to all the people who involved in this thesis study: the students who participated in the survey and provided their valuable information, instructors who kindly allowed me to advertise the survey in their classes, and my friends who participated in the pilot study or helped me in the writing process. Without their participation and help, this thesis would not be possible.

I would like to thank all the people in the School of Language and Cultures for providing me with precious opportunities to teach and to study. Furthermore, I would like to thank my colleagues, friends, and students who encouraged me throughout my graduate school years.

Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to my family members and friends in Japan for providing me with unfailing support and continuous encouragement throughout my years of study. This accomplishment would not have been possible without them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Author: Osumi, Akari. MA
Institution: Purdue University
Degree Received: May 2019
Title: Exploring Motivation for Learning Japanese as a Foreign Language
Committee Chair: Atsushi Fukada

Motivation always attracts language teachers' attention as one of the most significant factors for second language learning. In the past decades, motivational studies have experienced transitions and developments, and various studies investigated language learning motivation. (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015) However, those motivational studies indicate that research outcomes vary depending on languages, contexts, and individuals, and understanding L2 learning motivation requires investigations at the local level.

This study examined the motivation of Japanese learners at a large state university in the Midwestern United States by asking them to respond to an online survey with eleven motivational factors that include the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) and the anti-ought-to L2 self (Thompson & Vásquez, 2015).

The main findings are as follows. First, attitude towards leaning Japanese, classroom support, the ideal L2 self, and the anti-ought-to L2 self had significant relationships with students' intended effort. Second, rather than how long/in which course students study, why/for what they are learning Japanese makes the most significant differences in their motivation. Third, the ought-to L2 self might not be the best motivational factor for learning Japanese since characteristics of Japanese are different from those of English, which is widely used around the world. Fourth, interest in Japanese anime, manga, and games did not correlate with participants' ideal L2 self and intended effort although interest in the other cultural items showed moderate correlations with those factors. Fifth, the longer/higher-level their learning experience became, the less interest

participants showed in Japanese anime, manga, and pop culture, indicating that their interest in these cultural aspects began to vary and shifted to the other aspects of Japanese culture.

The main pedagogical implications suggested by the study are that there is a need to help students to set realistic goals and visualize future self-image with the Japanese language so that they can continue learning regardless of the course level or length of study, and teachers should consider at which stages their students are, and on the basis of that, decide how much anime and manga to incorporate into their lessons.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Background of This Study

Motivational Studies

As Richards (2001) mentioned in his book, second and foreign language teaching is one of the world's largest educational enterprises, and a vast number of people worldwide invest large amounts of time and effort to master a new language, hoping to be able to communicate with people around the world and understand their cultural backgrounds. Nonetheless, countless people cannot achieve this goal and eventually quit their learning in the middle. As language teachers, it is our duty to help such kind of students to continue learning languages to be successful, but to do that requires a better understanding of what encourages them to continue learning and what discourages them from continuing.

Among all factors that help people's second/foreign language acquisition, "motivation" is one of the most researched aspects in considering their language learning perseverance. According to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), motivation "provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long, often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent" (p.72). Since language learning require learners to devote large amounts of time and effort, even if one has a high aptitude, working memory, great learning strategies, and other skills necessary for attaining high proficiency in second/foreign languages, without sufficient motivation, language learning would not be successful. (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015) Hence, motivation is one of the crucial factors for leaners' accomplishment in second/foreign language learning.

For this reason, motivation has drawn numerous researchers' attention in the field of second language acquisition, and many motivational studies have been conducted over the years.

Motivation studies were first developed by Gardner and Lambert. Gardner and Lambert (1972) divided motivations into two categories: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation reflects "a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group" (p.132), and instrumental motivation comes from practical reasons such as getting a good job or getting a higher status. After Gardner and Lambert, Noels (2003) adopted Deci & Ryan's self-determination theory (1985), which conceptualized various types of intrinsic and extrinsic motives, into SLA and categorized motivation into three interrelated substrates: intrinsic reasons which relate to whether language learning is fun, engaging, challenging, or competence-enhancing, extrinsic reasons which include Gardner's instrumental orientation, and integrative reasons which refer to positive contact or eventual identification with the L2 group.

These concepts had been mainstream in L2 studies for a long time, but the frameworks based on these concepts did not have room to integrate various other aspects of L2 motivation, such as affective variables (Papi, 2010). To overcome these problems, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) proposed a new framework of L2 motivation, the "L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS)." The L2MSS consisted of Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and the L2 Learning experience. The ideal L2 self is "a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.105). It is considered as integrative and internalized instrumental motives in Gardner and Lambert's category. The ought-to L2 self refers to "the attributes that one believes one ought to possess" (Dörnyei, 2009, p.4), and it is an extrinsic type of instrumental motives. The L2 learning experience concerns situated, "executive" motives related to the immediate learning environment such as the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, and the experience of success (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015).

Although motivational studies have been conducted mainly on English learners, recently new concepts for Languages Other Than English (LOTEs) appeared in the L2MSS framework. One of the ideas that has attracted attention is Anti-ought-to L2 self suggested by Thompson and Vásquez (2015), which refers to learner's willingness to continue learning languages even though people around them consider that they are not worth studying compared to English.

As discussed above, although motivational studies for SLA started in the 1970s, and it has been about 14 years since the L2MSS appeared, there are just a small number of motivational studies in Japanese as a second/foreign language which adopt L2MSS (e.g., Buasasengtham & Yoshinaga, 2015; de Silva, 2016; Djafri, 2016; Nakamura, 2015; Sakeda & Kurata, 2016; Shimoura, 2018; Tomoyoshi, 2015), and most research studies still use integrative/instrumental motivations or intrinsic/extrinsic motivations. For this reason, JSL/JFL studies using L2MSS is necessary to understand learners' motivation better.

Japanese Learners in the United States

The result of the latest survey conducted by the Japan Foundation (2015) reports that there are 3,655,024 Japanese language learners around the world, and compared with 1979 when the first data collection took place, the number of Japanese learners is 28.7 times larger. This growth trend is also evident in the United States. In order to understand Japanese learners in the U.S., the author gathered data from the Japan Foundation's survey reports (2015, 2012, 2009, 2006, 2003, 1998, 1995, 1992, 1987, 1981, and 1975) and summarized it in Figure 1. It indicates that the number of Japanese learners in the United States has followed a general upward trend over the last forty years, and is continuing to rise.

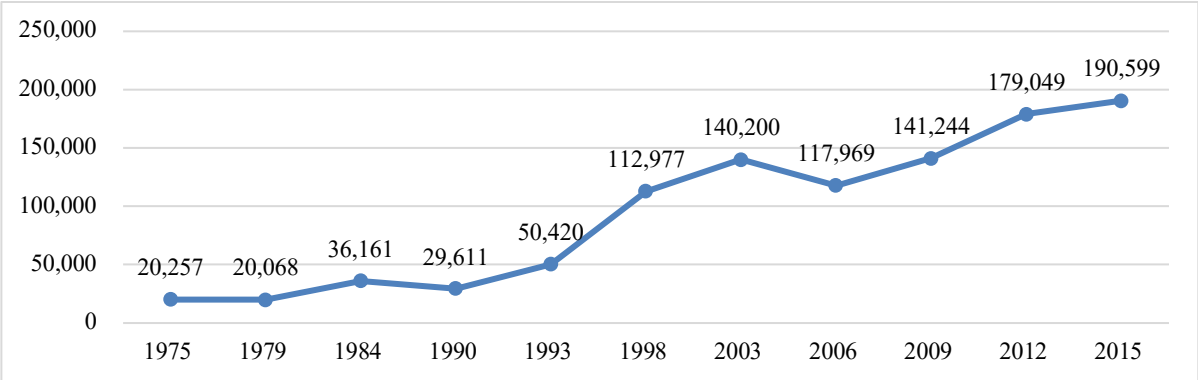


Figure 1. The Population of Japanese Learners in the U.S

Japanese is one of the most popular foreign languages to learn at the site of the present study, a large state university in the midwestern United States of America as well. Figure 2 shows the total number of students who took foreign language courses in the Fall 2018 semester provided by the summary course enrollment report by the Office of the Register (2019). According to Figure 2, the Japanese language has the second largest enrollment among all foreign languages. Figure 3 provides information about the enrollments in each course level and reports that Japanese consistently has a large number of students across the grade levels. It also indicates that the number of Japanese learners decreases by half as the course level gets higher although this is not the case for other popular languages such as Spanish, French, and German. This suggests that the level of courses that learners in those European languages enroll in depends on their learning experience in high school, whereas students in Japanese courses tend to start their learning as beginners at the study site.

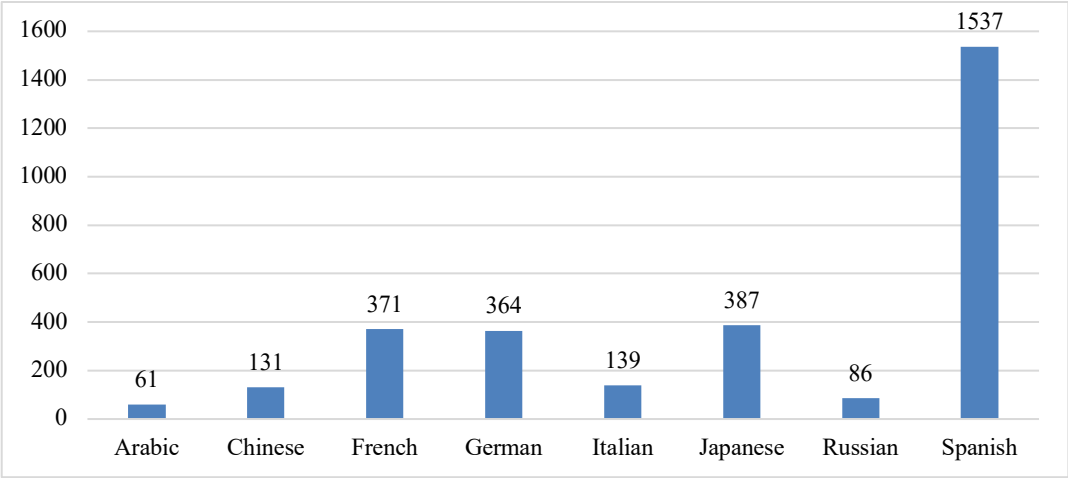
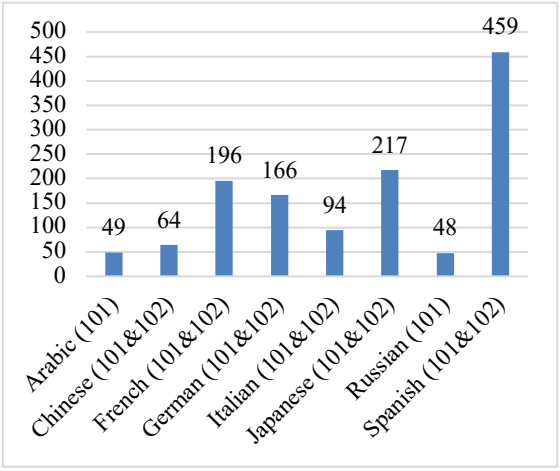
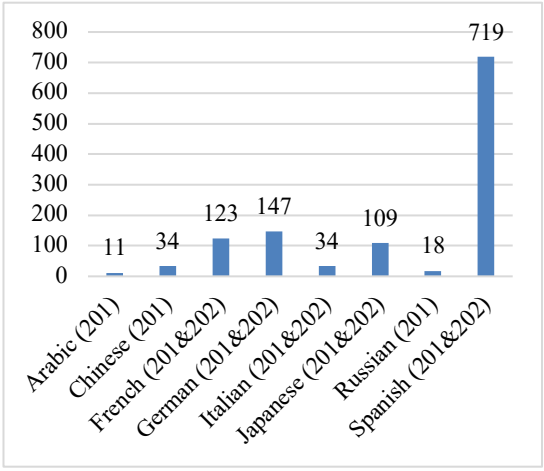


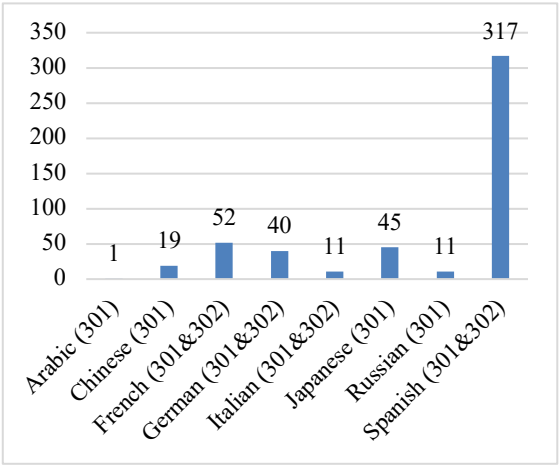
Figure 2. Total Number of Learners in Each Language



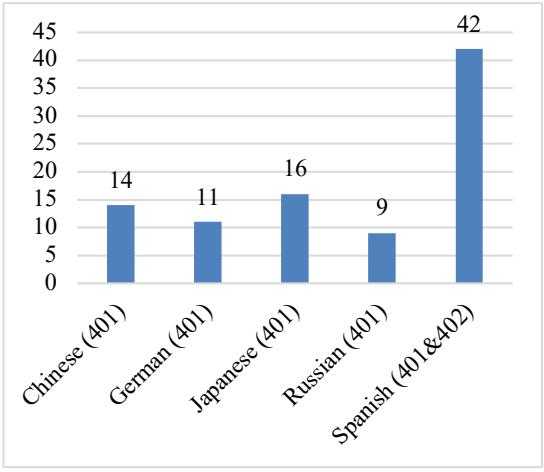
a. First-year courses



b. Second-year courses



c. Third-year courses



d. Fourth-year courses

Figure 3. The Number of Students Enrolled in Each Course Level

In summary, the Japanese language is increasing in popularity in the United States, and at least at the study site, many students start learning Japanese as beginners. Nevertheless, the number of Japanese learners decreases significantly as the course level increases; many students do not keep studying Japanese. Indeed, Ishikura (2013) took a survey from Japanese learners at the same study site and asked students who were planning to discontinue Japanese courses about their reasons. Most of them reported that it was because they did not have enough time to study (28%), did not need further Japanese courses for their majors (20%), and had a conflict with other courses (16%). Nevertheless, those students might have chosen to keep studying Japanese if they had been motivated better. Thus, researching on motivation among Japanese learners is important to understand and help them to keep learning Japanese.

Despite the rising number of Japanese learners in the United States, to the best of the author's knowledge, motivational studies mainly took place in Asian countries such as China and Thailand, and there is a limited number of studies that investigated contexts in the United States. Moreover, even though the study took place in similar contexts, the results of previous studies do not necessarily coincide. This suggests that motivational studies should not be over-generalized and must take place at the local level since outcomes of motivational research studies vary depending on language, context, and individuals.

Japanese Pop Culture in the United States

According to the Japan Foundation (2017), until the 1970s, the primary purpose of Japanese learning in the United States was for research about Japan. During the 1980s, as the Japanese economy developed rapidly, the number of Japanese learners in the United States also increased. Even after Japan experienced an unprecedented asset price bubble burst and Japanese economic power declined, the number of learners increased in the United States. The Japan

Foundation (2017) indicates that it is because Japanese subcultures such as anime, manga, and games have been popular among young people getting them interested in learning Japanese.

Many researchers such as Kumano (2010) also cited various sources which report that many Japanese learners are interested in pop culture such as anime and manga, and they began to learn Japanese because of their influence. Nonetheless, the assessment of Japanese pop culture is not uniformly positive; for example, Nemoto (2011) indicated that Japanese pop culture might be a good trigger but not the "reason to keep going." In addition, Yang (2011) found that interest in Japanese culture negatively correlated with perseverance strategies of Japanese language study. Furthermore, Watanabe and Fuse (2008) found that even though anime and manga made them interested in learning Japanese, it highly depended on learners if anime and manga were reasons to keep learning Japanese. These studies suggest that it is necessary to explore relationships between interest in pop cultures and Japanese learning motivation further.

The following is a summary of research gaps that this study attempted to fill. First, there are still a limited number of research studies using L2MSS in the field of Japanese language education even though L2MSS is one of the most updated systems to discuss L2 learning motivation. Second, despite a large number of students who are learning Japanese in the United States, there are not many studies that examine learners in the US context. In addition, to understand Japanese learning motivation more closely, studies at the local level are necessary, but there have not been research studies that specifically focused on Japanese learning motivation among learners at the study site. Third, to understand interest in Japanese pop cultures and Japanese learning motivation, further research is necessary since previous studies have reported conflicting results.

Research Questions

To address these research gaps, this study attempted to answer the following fairly broad research questions:

Research Question 1:

What are the primary reasons for learning Japanese among college-level JFL learners in the U.S.?

Research Question 2:

What general characteristics do the JFL learners show with respect to their motivation to study Japanese?

Research Question 3:

What kind of relationships are there between *Cultural Interest* and other motivational factors?

Research Question 4:

Do student characteristics (academic reasons for taking Japanese courses, first languages, course levels, length of study, and gender) make any differences in their motivational factors?

Research Question 5:

Do student characteristics (first languages, academic reasons for taking Japanese courses, gender, course levels, and length of study) make any differences in their interest in Japanese cultural items?

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews second language motivational theories, general motivational research studies related to Japanese as a second language and Japanese as a foreign language, and studies which mainly focus on the aspect of Japanese pop culture.

History of L2 Motivational Studies

According to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), it is useful to divide L2 motivation research into three phases: (1) the social psychological period, (2) the cognitive-situated period, and (3) the process-oriented period. In addition to these stages, this thesis also introduces the 4th phase: the L2 Motivational Self System, proposed by Dörnyei (2005), which became one of the most influential theories in L2 motivation research.

The Social Psychological Period

Motivation studies in the field of second language acquisition were first developed by Gardner and Lambert, social psychologists in Canada. In Canada, Anglophone and Francophone communities coexist, making the motivation to learn the language of the other community an essential part of enhancing intercultural communication. With the social psychological approach, Gardner and Lambert (1972) indicated that a foreign language is affected by a range of socio-cultural factors such as language attitudes, cultural stereotypes, and even geopolitical considerations (Dörnyei, 2005). The social psychological approach contributed to developing a pervasive concept of L2 motivational theory which divides L2 motivation into two categories: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation reflects a sincere and

personal interest in the people and culture of the other group, and instrumental motivation comes from practical reasons such as getting a good job or improving one's social status. Although Dörnyei (2005) indicated that this interpretation of L2 motivation is rather different from Gardner's original theory, there is no doubt that this definition was mainstream in L2 studies for a long time. However, several criticisms arose against the theory since the late 1980s. For instance, researchers argued that a theory based on the unique Canadian situation is not applicable to other cultural environments and pointed out the importance of adopting general motivational psychology into the L2 motivational theory and narrowing down the macro-perspective of L2 motivation into a micro-perspective (de Silva, 2016).

The Cognitive-Situated Period

That criticism inspired a shift in L2 motivation studies toward classroom-oriented research. Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) article "Reopening the motivation research agenda" influenced researchers to link motivation to contextual factors. In other words, more and more research studies examined the motivational impact of the main components of the classroom learning situation, such as the teacher, the curriculum, and the learner group (Dörnyei, 2005).

With the influence of Crookes and Schmidt, L2 motivational researchers began to adopt Deci and Ryan's (1985, 2002) self-determination theory, which conceptualized various types of intrinsic and extrinsic motives and had been one of the most influential approaches in motivational psychology. Noels conducted studies with colleagues to apply this theory to the L2 field in the 1990s. Noels (2003) categorized motivation into three interrelated substrates: (1) intrinsic reasons which relate to whether language learning is fun, engaging, challenging, or competence-enhancing, (2) extrinsic reasons to which Gardner's instrumental orientation belongs, and (3) integrative reasons which relate to positive contact or eventual identification with the L2 group.

Weiner's attribution theory (1992) also played an important role in L2 motivational studies. This theory links people's past experiences with their future achievement efforts by introducing a mediation link (Dörnyei, 2005). Ushioda conducted three interview studies in 1996, 1998, and 2001 in accordance with Weiner's attribution theory and found that learners' positive motivational thinking had two attributional patterns. First, they attribute positive L2 outcomes to personal ability or other internal factors (e.g., effort, perfectionist approach). Second, they attribute negative L2 outcomes or lack of success to temporary/unstable shortcomings that might be overcome (e.g., lack of effort, lack of opportunity to spend time in the L2 environment) (Dörnyei, 2005).

Since the L2 motivational studies have become more classroom-oriented, types of studies became more diverse and developed too. For example, researchers started to examine relationships between motivation and learning styles, learning strategies, and learning tasks. Moreover, some studies focused on teacher motivation and demotivation. Nevertheless, these studies still considered motivation only in the context of a static state; they failed to explain its temporal transition (De Silva, 2016).

The Process-Oriented Period

The cognitive-situated approach drew attention to another aspect of motivation. In the process-oriented period, the dynamic character and temporal variation of motivation were highlighted (Dörnyei, 2005). For example, Williams and Burden (1997) suggested three stages of the motivation process: "Reasons for doing something," "Deciding to do something," and "Sustaining the effort, or persisting." They then consolidated those three phases into two simpler concepts, "initiating motivation" and "sustaining motivation." Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) also broke down the motivational process into three phases: "Preactional Stage" (generating motivation), "Actional Stage" (maintaining motivation), and "Postactional Stage" (retrospective evaluation).

The L2 Motivational Self System

Even to this day, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) theory of motivation remains strongly influential. However, as society became global, Gardner's motivational "integrativeness" became a vague idea, especially in English. What is "the other language community" that the learner would want to "get closer to"? This question gave rise to a heated discussion in the L2 motivational field (Dörnyei, 2009). To overcome this problem, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) proposed a new framework of L2 motivation, getting a hint from "Possible Self Theory" by psychologists Markus and Nurius (1986): the "L2 Motivational Self System (L2 MSS)." The L2 MSS consists of the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self*, and the *L2 learning experience*. The ideal L2 self is "a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.105). It is considered as integrative and internalized instrumental motives in Gardner and Lambert's category. The ought-to L2 self involves "the attributes that one believes one *ought* to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.106). It is an extrinsic type of instrumental motives. The L2 learning experience is an "executive" motivation related to the immediate learning environment and experience such as the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, and the experience of success (Dörnyei 2005). Dörnyei (2009) claims as follows.

> The Ideal L2 Self is an effective motivator if (1) the learner has a desired future self-image, (2) which is elaborate and vivid, (3) which is perceived as plausible and is in harmony – or at least does not clash – with the expectations of the learner's family, peers and other elements of the social environment, (4) which is regularly activated in the learner's working self-concept, (5) which is accompanied by relevant and effective procedural strategies that

act as a roadmap towards the goal, and finally (6) which also contains elaborate information about the negative consequences of not achieving the desired end-state. (p. 32)

Several researchers examined the L2 MSS and supported its validity. For example, Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) examined three Asian contexts (Japanese (N=1586), Chinese (N=1328) and Iranian (N=2029) English learners) and concluded that the L2 MSS firstly examined in Hungarian context by Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh (2006) has external validity. They also postulated that integrativeness can be relabeled as the ideal L2 self and instrumentality can be classified into two constructs: promotion vs. prevention tendencies. In addition, MacIntyre, Mackinnon, and Clément (2009) showed that elements of the integrative motive by Gardner correlate consistently and strongly with possible selves. Kormos and Csizér (2008) examined 202 Hungarian secondary school, university, and adult learners and found that the ideal L2 self played a highly influential role in language learning motivation for all investigated age groups. Ueki and Takeuchi (2012) found that in their English major group (N=151), the ideal L2 self was the most potent factor, while self-efficacy and L2 learning attitude had a positive impact on L2 motivation too. In contrast, for the non-English majors (N=151), ought-to L2 self had the most robust impact on L2 motivation. Ryan (2009) took a survey from 2397 learners of English in Japanese universities and high schools and found that the ideal L2 self represents a better indicator of learning effort than integrativeness for the university English majors. He also claimed that the ideal L2 self plays a more substantial role as a predictor of motivated behavior compared with the ought-to L2 self. In addition, de Silva (2016) examined 160 Sri Lankan university students majoring in Japanese and found that there was a high correlation between the ideal L2 self and motivated learning behavior.

However, as Sakeda and Kurata (2016), who conducted interviews and diary studies with 10 Australian university JFL students, suggests, the ideal L2 self does not necessarily improve the person's motivational status or behaviors unless there are realistic and achievable plans. Therefore, it is important for learners to visualize their realistic goals with respect to their target languages. Indeed, there are several attempts to develop the practical use of L2 MSS. You, Dörnyei, and Csizér (2016) took a survey of learners of English in China and reported that how much students can imagine themselves using English in the future makes a significant contribution to the motivational disposition. In addition, the vividness of imagery affected the ideal L2 self particularly strongly. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggested six components which motivational programs based on L2 MSS should contain. The program should (1) help to create a vision of the L2 learner's ideal L2 self, (2) strengthen their vision through imagery enhancement, (3) make their ideal L2 self plausible, (4) help them to develop action plans, (5) keep activating their vision, and (6) counterbalance their vision of their ideal L2 Self by offsetting it with their feared L2 Self. Magid and Chan (2012) represents the first attempt to put these suggestions into practice. They found that it is possible to enhance L2 learners' vision of their ideal L2 self through visualization training and after such training, the participants' vision of their ideal L2 self became significantly stronger. Also, Dörnyei and Hadfield (2013) published a book which provides 99 classroom activity ideas that promote students' ideal L2 self.

The L2 Motivational Self System with LOTEs

Although the history of L2 motivation studies recounted above mainly has focused on English as a second/foreign language, Languages Other Than English (LOTEs) are also drawing more attention to the motivation field. Ushioda and Dörnyei (2017) pointed out that "the motivation for learning LOTEs is potentially a significant matter for all those who are concerned

with promoting, supporting, and enhancing language learning beyond global English" (p.454). For instance, according to Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017), current conceptualizations of L2 motivation sometimes may not match with LOTEs situations. They introduced three specific ideas. First, MacIntyre, Baker, and Sparling (2017) investigated characteristics of heritage language learning and suggested the Rooted L2 self. The rooted L2 self is a strong community-level motive that represents a collective mindset that is rooted in the shared geography, history, and cultural practices of the heritage community (Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie, 2017). Second, the Ideal Multilingual Self by Henry (2017) involves a person's "aspirations to be/become multilingual" in addition to the desire to speak a specific language. Third, the Anti-Ought-to L2 Self was suggested by Thompson and Vásquez (2015). Thompson (2017) explained that the ideal L2 self focuses on a predominately "I" aspect of their self-image, while the ought-to L2 self has a predominantly "other" focus, but the anti-ought-to L2 self includes both. In other words, the anti-ought-to L2 self conceptualizes an individual being as "dominant" force with the environment being as the "submissive" force, while in the ought-to L2 self, the individual is "submissive" and the environment is "dominant" in language learning motivation (Liu & Thompson, 2018). It means that when learners have the anti-ought-to L2 self-motivation, they continue learning LOTEs even though people around them consider that LOTEs are not worth studying compared to English. Because of that, Dörnyei and Al-hoorie (2017) claimed that the ought-to L2 self of LOTE learners is more complex than English learners.

For the Japanese context, Shimoura (2018) examined the anti-ought-to L2 self among university students learning Japanese in the U.S. and reported that the anti-ought-to L2 self has the largest effect on their learning motivation compared with ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self. In addition, compared with data of Spanish learners from Thompson (2017), he reports that Japanese learners had significantly higher anti-ought-to L2 self.

Motivation Studies in JSL/JFL Contexts

This section discusses motivational research studies that examine Japanese as a second language and Japanese as a foreign language from several points of view. To the best of the author's knowledge, the oldest study on Japanese language motivation was Kurahachi (1992), which examined 37 students enrolled in the University of Maryland located in a military base in Japan. She found that these students had a higher integrative motive than an instrumental motive, and from this, she concluded that American students did not perceive Japanese as an instrument even though they came to Japan for job opportunities, but rather, they learned Japanese because they found it interesting. Many other Japanese motivational studies cite Kurahachi (1992) as a reference. Saibe, Kano, and Ito (1995) categorized instrumental, integrative, and "incentive" motive into the extrinsic motive in contrast with the intrinsic motive. They also conducted a motivational survey based on this idea, and many Japanese motivational studies refer to or replicate this model and survey. Influenced by these studies, the ideas of integrative/instrumental motivations or intrinsic/extrinsic motivations are mainstream in Japanese motivational studies. For instance, among 36 studies that the author reviewed, 25 adopted these theories.

Differences in Course Level/Length of Study

There are several research studies which compared students' course levels. Zhang (2017) took a survey from 179 students majoring in Japanese in Inner Mongolia and found that the higher school year became, the more learners cared about other people's opinions about them, and the less effort they put into Japanese learning. Moreover, Takeguchi, Aso and Bushimakina (2017) surveyed 154 university students in Russia and indicated that the higher their course level became, the more ambiguous their goals became. In terms of L2MSS, Shimoura (2018), who examined Japanese learners in the United States, found that course levels did not make any significant

differences in their L2MSS factors even though Thompson (2017) shows that the higher course level becomes, the stronger the ideal L2 self grows.

For length of study, Saibe et al. (1995) found that the longer participants studied Japanese, the stronger their integrative and instrumental orientations became. In contrast, Cai and Cai (2010) surveyed 348 university students in Taiwan and reported that there was no significant difference in motivation among students with various lengths of study.

Course levels and length of study do not always indicate students' proficiency level, but there are several studies which examined students' proficiency level and their motivation. Sugimoto and Kuroasawa (2000) administered a cloze test to 224 international students at 16 Japanese universities and indicated that the higher test results showed a weak and positive correlation with instrumental motivation. In addition, there was a weak and positive correlation between the lower test score and willingness to communicate with Japanese people. Furthermore, Utsuki (2011) examined 90 university students majoring in Japanese in Thailand through the Simple Performance-Oriented Test (SPOT) and a survey. He reported that the SPOT score showed a significant negative correlation with instrumentality motivation, curiosity/interest in Japan, interest in learning Japanese, and overall motivation (r (90) = -.417, p <0.001). Utsuki discussed that it might be because students with a high SPOT score had been satisfied with their Japanese proficiency already and were not very eager to make progress on their ability anymore.

Differences in Students' Major

Yang (2011) took a survey from 472 Japanese language majors and 289 non-majors in a Taiwanese university to examine relationships between learner's motivation and their perseverance strategies of Japanese learning. The result showed that Japanese majors scored higher on "Japan-Related Orientation," "Interest in Japanese Culture," "Interest in Popular Culture" than

non-majors did, whereas non-majors scored higher on “Practicality Orientation” than Japanese majors did. In addition, Cai and Cai (2010) compared students majoring in international trading, management, and finance, and did not find any significant differences in motivation among the three major groups.

Differences in Students’ Gender

Cai and Cai (2010) also examined gender differences in motivational factors and reported that female students had higher job-orientation and higher motivation to learn Japanese. To the best of the author’s knowledge, there are no other studies that investigated gender differences in motivation explicitly.

Differences in Learning Environments

As Dörnyei (2005, 2009) claims that the L2 learning experience is one of the factors in L2MSS, it is not difficult to assume that a learning environment can affect students’ motivation. Especially for students learning Japanese as a foreign language, the relationships with teachers and classmates would be one of the most important factors to shape their learning environment. For example, Noels (2003) conducted a study with 322 native English-speaking university students learning Spanish to examine how the communicative style of the language teacher might be associated with intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. The result suggested that teachers' behaviors were linked with students' general feeling of autonomy and competence in learning Spanish. It showed that perceptions of the teacher as controlling have a significantly negative effect on self-perceptions of autonomy, while perceptions of the teacher as informative positively predicted self-perceptions of competence. For a Japanese context, de Silva (2016) conducted research on relationships between students' motivation and support from teachers or classmates, and reported that affective support from teachers have a positive influence on learner's attitude towards learning,

while affective support from friends have a negative influence. De Silva explained that it might be because students regard their teachers as a source of Japanese learning more than their classmates, and think that information from their classmates is not authentic enough.

These studies show that the learning environment and students' attitude are related to each other. However, Tomiyoshi (2015) interviewed 23 students in Thailand majoring in Japanese and found that the same learning experience could be either positive or negative depending on the individuals. This finding indicates that it is necessary for researchers to take individual differences into consideration when conducting quantitative studies.

JFL Studies in the United States

As introduced at the beginning of this section, Kurahachi (1992) found that American students (including Asian-Americans) learn Japanese not because they have to study it for an instrumental reason, but because they found the Japanese language interesting. Takagishi (2000) also pointed out that American students tend to start learning Japanese because of intrinsic interest in Japan and Japanese. Shimoura (2018) compared students learning Japanese in the United States with Spanish learners in the United States and reported that at lower course levels, the ideal L2 self of Japanese learners is higher than that of Spanish learners. However, as mentioned previously, since the ideal L2 self did not increase by their course levels, the ideal L2 self of Japanese learners became weaker than that of Spanish learners at higher course levels.

Students studying Japanese at universities in the United States are not only U.S. citizens, but also international students, sometimes in large numbers. Especially, many students come from Chinese-speaking areas. For example, Figure 4 and 5 show students' native tongues reported in a student survey administered in Japanese 101 (Fall 2017) and Japanese 102 (Spring 2018) at the study site. These figures show that about half of the students taking Japanese courses speak

Chinese as the first language. Therefore, in discussing students learning Japanese in the United States, the existence of Chinese students cannot be ignored.

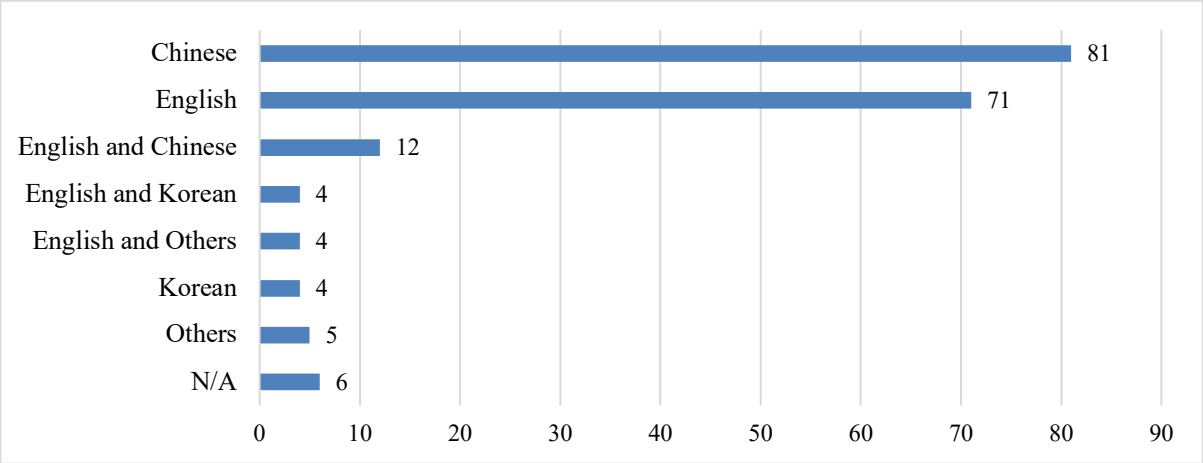


Figure 4. Native Language of Students Who Took Japanese 101 in Fall 2017 (N=187)

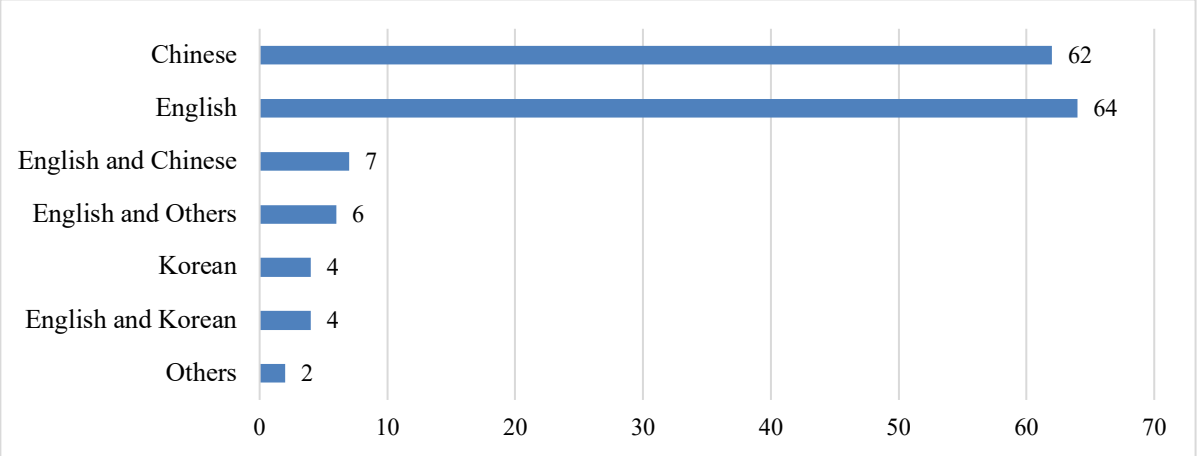


Figure 5. Native Language of Students Who Took Japanese 102 in Spring 2018 (N=149)

There are several studies that examined Japanese learners in China or Taiwan. Kaku and Zen (2006) took a survey from 200 university students in China and found that other than integrativeness and instrumentality, elitism (Oxford & Shearin, 1994) is one of the categories which explain Japanese learning motivation. In addition, Mao and Fukuda (2010) conducted research on students in a city university in China. According to them, Wang (2005) reported that the most prominent motivation for learning Japanese among Chinese students was “for fun.”

However, they point out that the three universities where Wang administered a survey were elite universities that constitute the top 10% of all universities in China. In contrast, Mao and Fukuda found that the most significant factor to study Japanese for students at non-elite universities in China was for their career. Based on this result, Mao and Fukuda suggest that compared with students from top universities, those from non-elite universities might be under pressure to consider their future career.

These studies tend to indicate that Chinese students are more career-oriented compared with American students. Nevertheless, Chinese students learning Japanese in China and the United States might have different motivation since Chinese students in the U.S. have already studied abroad in a different country. Because of that, their orientation towards career might be different from that in China. However, no studies that compare students' profiles in terms of their nationality/native tongue in the United States have been conducted to the best of the author's knowledge. It might be interesting to explore Japanese learners in the United States whose native tongue is Chinese.

Reasons for Learning Japanese

There are several studies that investigated what aspects of Japan/Japanese learners were interested in. The Japan Foundation (2012) took a survey from 15,272 institutions from all over the world and provided Figure 6. They reported that among the reasons and purposes for learning Japanese, "interest in the Japanese language" was the most frequent (62.2%) followed by "communication in Japanese" (55.5%) and "interest in manga, anime, J-Pop, etc." (54.0%).

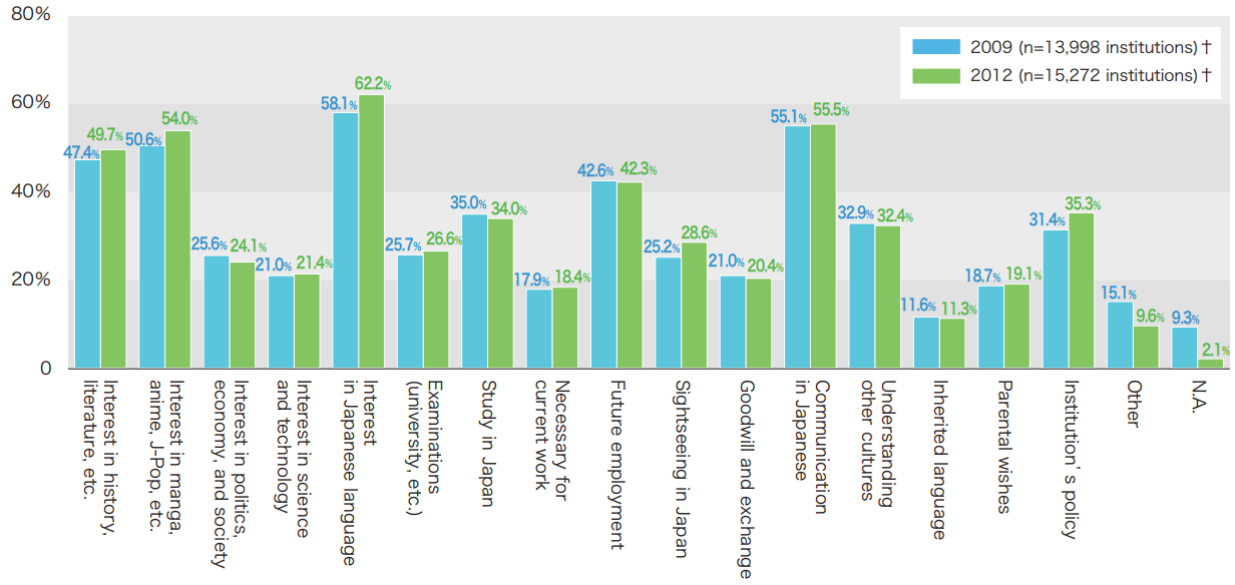


Figure 6. The Japan Foundation (2012) "Reasons and Purposes for Japanese-Language Study" (p.4)

As for an American context, a study by Jorden and Lambert (1991) reported that the top aspect chosen among students in the United States was business (32.5%) followed by culture (22.6%) and general interests (20.9%). When this research was conducted, Japan was experiencing an unprecedented asset price bubble. Therefore, Japanese learners in the United States during that time might have been motivated to communicate with Japanese people for a business opportunity. However, as time went by, this tendency changed.

In their survey study (2012), Watanabe and Higurashi asked 124 students at San Diego State University to choose top reasons to study Japanese from multiple choices. Figure 7 (translated into English by the author) below shows the top 10 primary reasons.

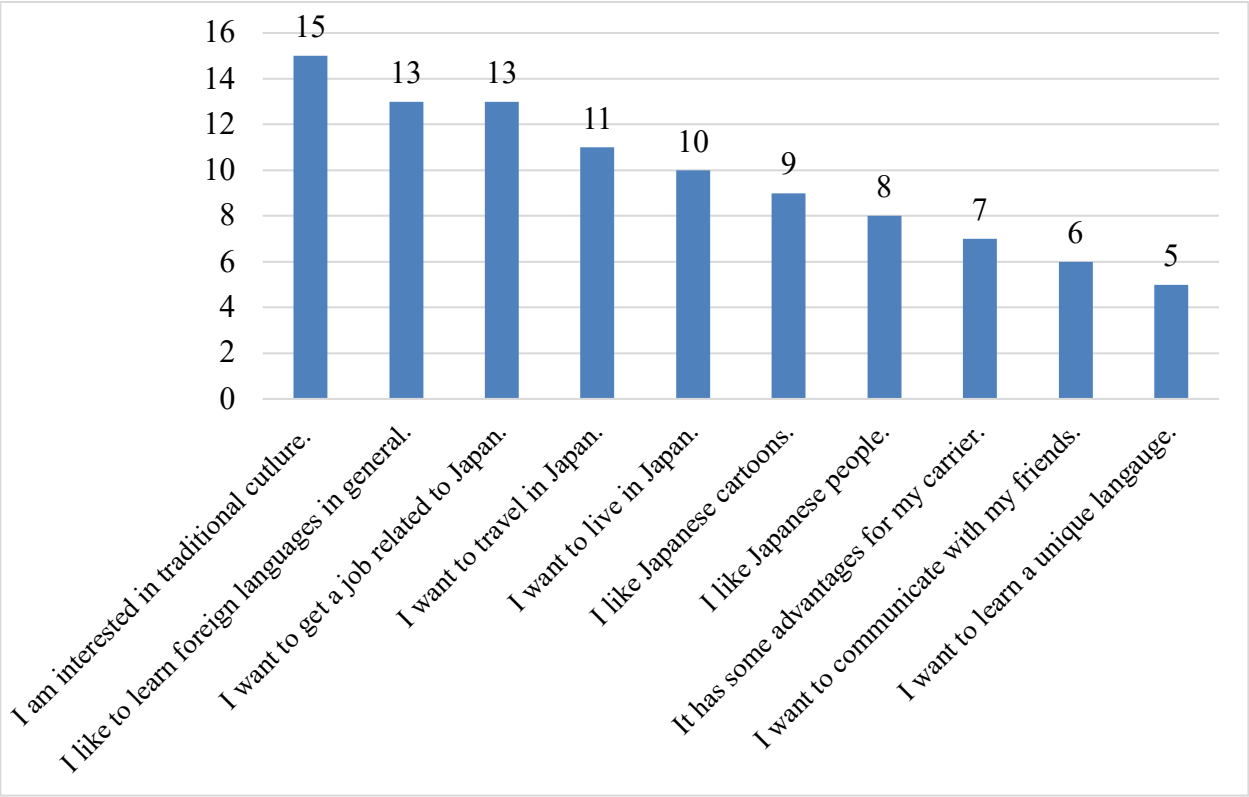


Figure 7. Watanabe and Higurashi (2012) "Why Do You Study Japanese Language?"

This figure shows the most popular aspect is traditional culture (12.0%), followed by interest in studying foreign languages (10.4%) and interest in getting a job related to Japan (10.4%).

Ishikura (2013) examined the students at the study site and asked the question: "What was the initial reason/motivation for learning Japanese?" with multiple answers which participants can select all that applied. The result is shown in Figure 8. According to the figure, the most frequent reason chosen by students was "Interest in the Japanese language" followed by "Interest in Japanese culture," "Interest in visiting Japan," and "interest in anime and manga."

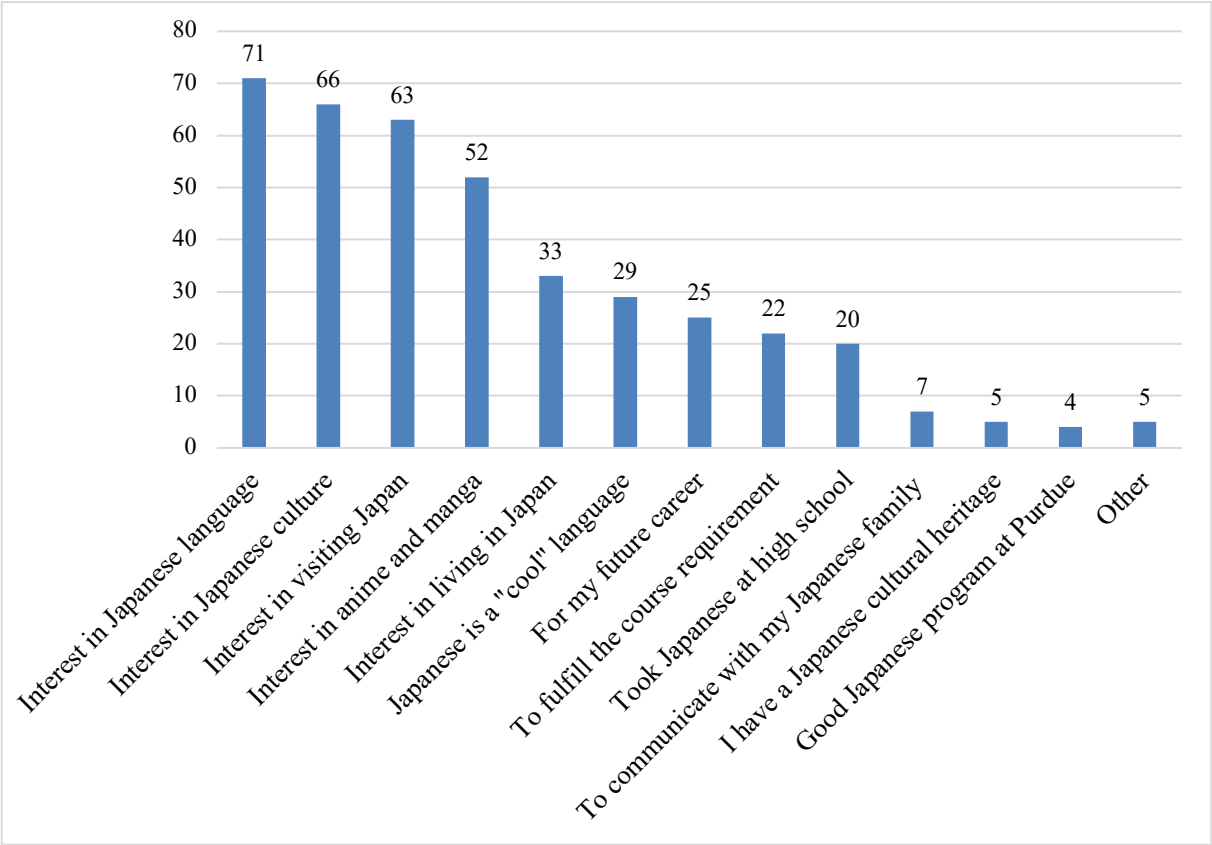


Figure 8. Ishikura (2013) Online Student Questionnaire: Initial Reasons/Motivations for Learning Japanese (p.99)

Even though there are several differences among the studies, it is possible to say that current Japanese learners have a tendency to show their interest in Japanese as a foreign language and Japanese cultures. Although Japanese for business opportunities is still one of the main reasons in reports from the Japan Foundation (2012) and Watanabe and Higurashi (2012), it is not as strong a reason as before. In addition, judging from many participants in these reports showing interest in visiting Japan for traveling and working or living in Japan, we can say that learners also have some specific situations in their mind to use Japanese.

Studies with a Primary Focus on Pop Cultures

Recently, the popularity of Japanese pop cultures, such as anime, manga, games, etc. is conspicuous. As discussed in the previous section, the Japan Foundation (2012) reported that more than half of the participants indicated "interest in manga, anime, J-Pop, etc." as the reason/purpose for Japanese-language study. Furthermore, The Association of Japanese Animations (2018) reported that the anime market increased for five years in a row. Especially since 2015, the foreign market rapidly increased. For this reason, it is worth considering the students' interest in Japanese pop cultures in discussing their motivation.

Studies in Contexts Other Than the United States

There are some studies which examined relationships between Japanese pop cultures and Japanese learners. The Monthly Nihongo (2008) (as cited in Kumano, 2010, p. 90) reported that 90% of 1160 international students in Japan answered that the reason why they started to be interested in learning Japanese was Japanese subcultures, and 75.5% of them mentioned that anime and manga were the initial reasons. In addition, Kumano (2010) introduced a study by Fujimori, Yamashita, and Fujimura (2009), which indicated that anime/manga fans in Morocco and Egypt had a positive attitude towards Japanese learning and had higher motivation towards learning. Kumano (2010) also introduced Yamada (2009), who indicated that Japanese teachers in Spain reported that approximately 70 to 80% of the students started learning Japanese because of influence from anime and manga. Furthermore, Nakamura (2015) interviewed 13 Australian university students learning Japanese and found that the most frequently observed factor for learning Japanese was "Extracurricular" domain (e.g., Manga, Anime, Drama, etc.). Moreover, a number of researchers conducted a factor analysis in their studies and reported that a students' interest/orientation in Japanese culture and/or pop culture is one of the motivational factors

(Barsoukova, 2006; Kaku & Ōkita, 2001; Kaku & Zen, 2006; Kobayashi, 2008; Mori, 2006; Mao & Fukuda, 2010; Narita, 1998; Xia, 2010; Onishi, 2010; Takeguchi et al., 2017; Yang, 2011).

As shown in the studies above, many students began to learn Japanese because of pop cultures such as anime and manga, and interest in pop cultures is considered as one of the indispensable motivational factors. However, Nemoto (2011) indicated that Japanese pop culture might not be the "reason to keep going." In the study, she interviewed ten students in the Language Teaching Institute in Qatar and suggested that learners' interest in Japanese started from Anime, but as time went by, they were more interested in Japan itself. In addition, Yang (2011) surveyed Taiwanese students and found that among students whose major is not Japanese, interest in Japanese culture negatively correlated with perseverance strategies of Japanese language study.

To the best of the author's knowledge, there are not many studies like Nemoto (2011) and Yang (2011) that focus on relationships between interest in pop culture and the other motivational aspects such as students' learning behavior. Therefore, it is necessary to explore relationships some more between interest in pop cultures and the other motivational factors.

Studies in the U.S. Context

Some researchers in the United States were also interested in the relationships between Japanese learners and Japanese pop cultures. Napier (2001) took a survey from anime fan students in Copenhagen, California, New York City, and the University of Texas anime club and found that 43% of the anime fans had taken a Japanese language course. Williams (2006) states that among 43 student participants in the University of Texas, approximately 75% of them expressed that interest in Japanese pop cultures motivated them to start learning Japanese, and within those students, 75% specifically indicated their interest in anime. Watanabe and Fuse (2008) conducted interviews with 25 university students in the United States and reported that anime and manga

made them interested in learning Japanese. However, according to the survey on 179 students at the same university, it highly depended on learners if anime and manga were reasons to keep learning Japanese.

According to a study by Ishikura (2013), which was introduced in the previous section, out of 93 students 52 (56%) indicated that the initial reason/motivation for learning Japanese was interest in anime and manga. Although more than half of the students answered that they were interested in anime and manga, since it was the fourth most frequent reason, Ishikura stated that attractiveness of Japanese pop culture to students might be overestimated. She also asked how much participants were interested in anime and manga. To this, more than 50% of the students indicated that they love/are very interested in anime and/or manga, 34% of students said that they were somewhat interested, and 10% of students answered that they were not interested in anime and/or manga at all. These results suggest that there are a large number of Japanese learners who are interested in Japanese pop cultures in the US as believed by many people. But at the same time, Ishikura (2013) suggested that educators and researchers should not anticipate that all Japanese learners can be motivated by use of anime and/or manga as learning materials.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study examined types of motivation that Japanese learners in the United States have. Participants are students enrolled in Japanese courses at a large state university in the Midwestern United States, and they responded to an online survey consisting of 81 questions. The obtained data were analyzed with descriptive statistics, Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation analysis, one-way ANOVAs, and Tukey's tests using the statistical software package SPSS version 25.0.

Participants

General Descriptions

Subjects who were asked to participate in the online questionnaire were all students enrolled in the following Japanese courses at the study site during the Fall semester of 2018: *Japanese Level I*, *II*, *III*, *IV*, *V*, and *VII*, *Introduction to The Study of Japanese Literature*, *Intermediate Reading in Japanese I*, and *Oral Communication in Japanese*. In addition, students who took part in the Japanese conversation hour which is an extracurricular event held every Monday were asked to participate in the survey. In total, approximately 400 students were potential subjects in this study. Their participation was voluntary, and they did not get any reward by answering the questionnaire. Although 124 subjects started the survey, participants who did not complete it or identified themselves as a Japanese native speaker were removed. At the end, of the initial study population, 100 subjects remained. There were 59 males and 40 females (one did not indicate their gender), and the average age was 19.8 years old (Max = 25, Min = 18).

First Languages

First languages of the participants are shown in Figure 9. English constituted the largest group with 58 speakers, and Chinese (either Mandarin or Cantonese, or both) was the second-largest group with 26 participants. Among the 11 participants whose first language included English and another language, four were bilingual native speakers of English and Chinese. Spanish, Korean, Vietnamese, Thai, Malay, Hindi, and Bahasa Indonesia were categorized as other first languages. Considering the fact that Chinese native speakers constituted a half of the students in Japanese first year-level as shown in Figure 4 and 5 in Chapter 2, it should be noted that this result might not represent the actual population of Japanese learners at the study site.

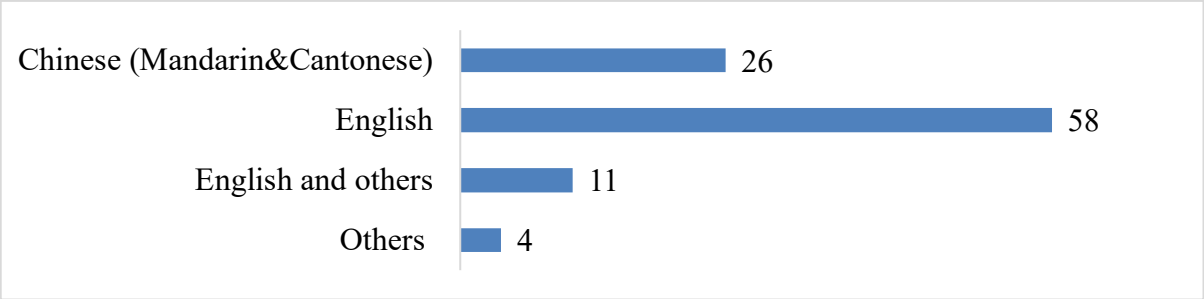


Figure 9. Participants' First Languages (N = 100)

Majors and Minors

Figure 10 shows the participants' majors, and Figure 11 shows the participants' minors. The largest group of the participants' majors consisted of STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) majors, followed by Japanese majors (10) and Business/Economics/Management majors (8). Less common majors were linguistics (3) and Asian studies (2), with the rest of the participants in other majors (21). As for minors, the majority of the participants' were minoring in Japanese (26), followed by STEM minors (10) and Business/Economics/Management minors (6). 44 participants had no minor.

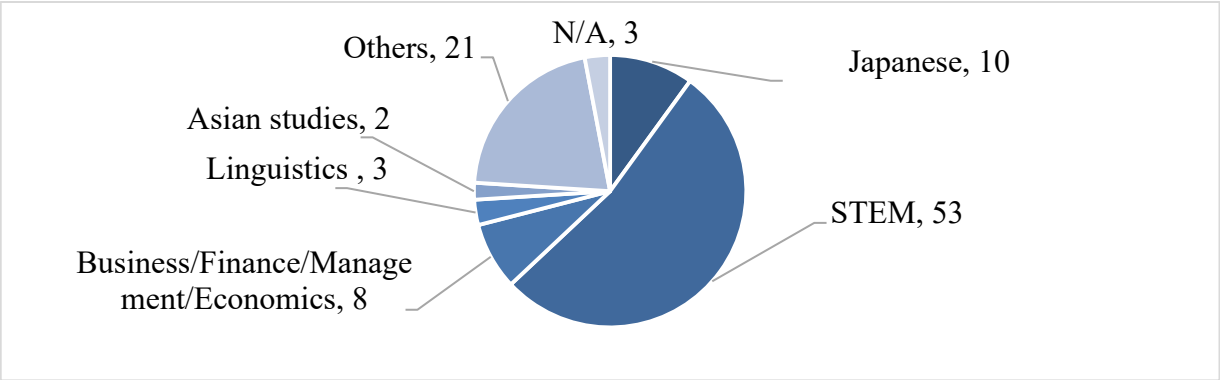


Figure 10. Participants' Majors (N = 100)

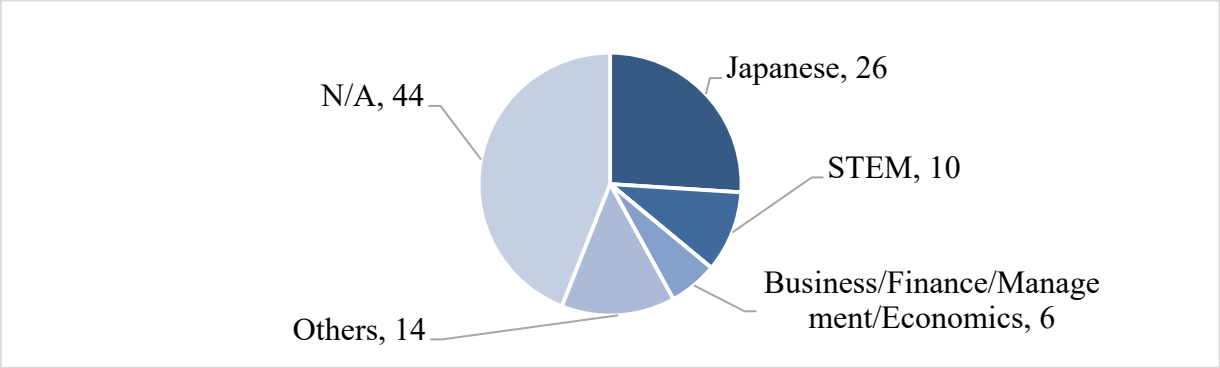


Figure 11. Participants' Minors (N = 100)

Figure 12 shows the breakdown of participants whose major or minor was Japanese. Among the ten subjects who were majoring in Japanese, seven reported that they were working on double majors, and three indicated that their major was only Japanese. As for the participants minoring in Japanese, 17 out of 26 subjects minored only in Japanese, and the other nine students minored in additional subjects.

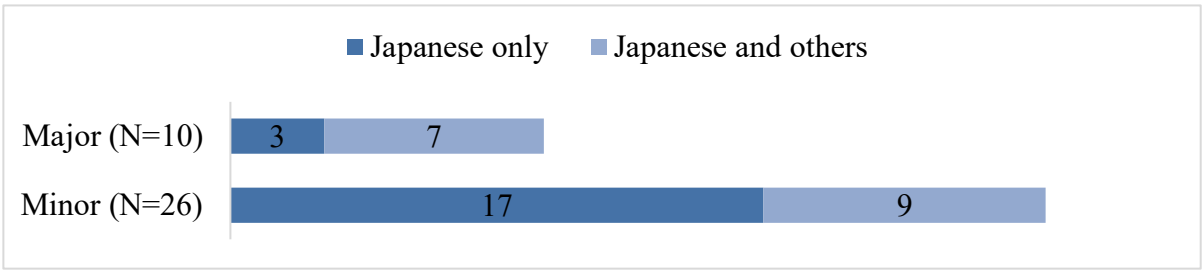


Figure 12. Details of Japanese Majors and Minors (N = 36)

Levels of the Japanese Courses

Figure 13 shows that at the time of the survey, 38 (38%) of the participants were taking first-year Japanese courses (JPNS101 and 102), 41 (41%) participants were taking second-year Japanese courses (JPNS201 and 202), and 18 (18%) were taking third-year courses (JPNS 301 and 302). Since there were only three participants who were taking the fourth year Japanese course (JPNS401), they were combined with the participants taking third-year courses to bring this category to 21 (21%).

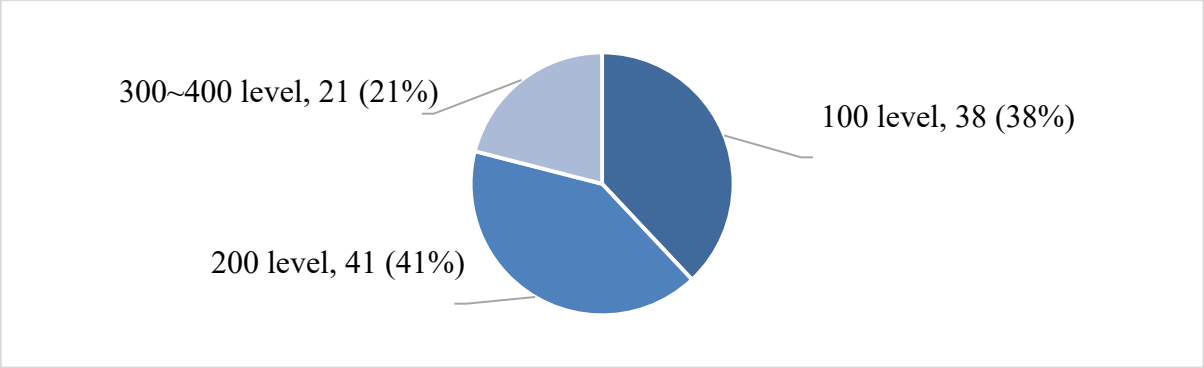


Figure 13. Levels of the Japanese Courses (N = 100)

Length of Study

The survey asked how long the participants had studied Japanese. The participants were assigned to groups according to the reported length of study which includes self-study as well. The mean length of study was 2.73 years (SD = 2.64), the shortest length was 0.25 years, and the longest was 14.5 years. The length of study was divided into 5 groups; 0-1 year, 1-2 years, 2-3 years, 3-5 years, and more than 5 years. Figure 14 shows the numbers of participants who were categorized in each group.

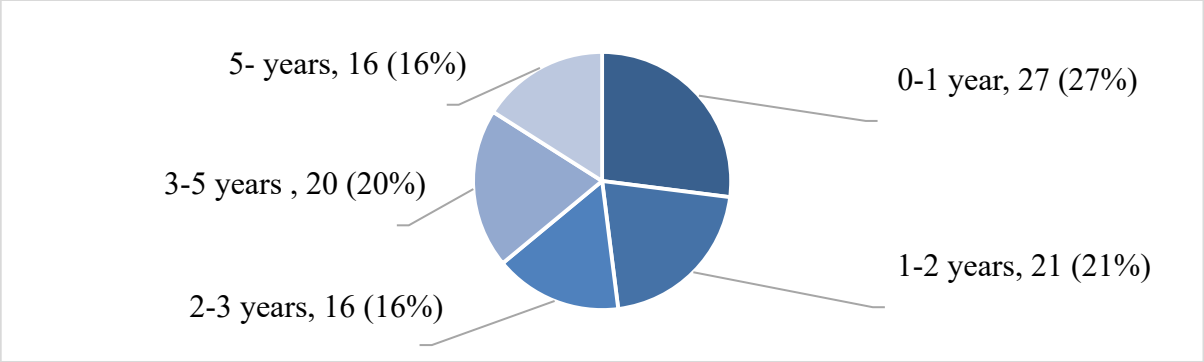


Figure 14. Length of Study (N = 100)

Academic Reasons Why Participants Are Taking Japanese

The academic reasons why participants in each level were taking Japanese are shown in Figure 15, 16, and 17. The questionnaire asked the participants to choose which of the following reasons explained why they took Japanese courses: "for my major", "for my minor", "General education requirements", or "for fun". Participants were expected to check "for my major" and "for my minor" options only when their major or minor is Japanese. However, due to the ambiguousness of the question, several students checked the "for my major" or "for my minor" options when their major or minor was not Japanese. For this reason, even if the participants checked "for my major" or "for my minor," they were assigned to the *requirement* group when their major or minor was not Japanese. If their major/minor was actually Japanese, they stayed in either the *major* or *minor* group. Finally, the participants who checked only "for fun" were assigned to the *for fun* group.[1] Although they might benefit from receiving credits, it is not necessarily a requirement for them to take Japanese courses. The figures show that in first year and second year courses, a majority of students (in total, 84% of 100 level and 68% of 200 level) took Japanese because of general education requirements or for fun. As the course level became

[1] It is possible that there were participants who had not declared their majors and minors yet.

higher, the ratio of students in the requirement and for fun groups declined, while percentages of learners in the major and minor groups increased. Indeed, 81% of students in the 300 and 400 levels took Japanese courses because they were majoring or minoring in Japanese.

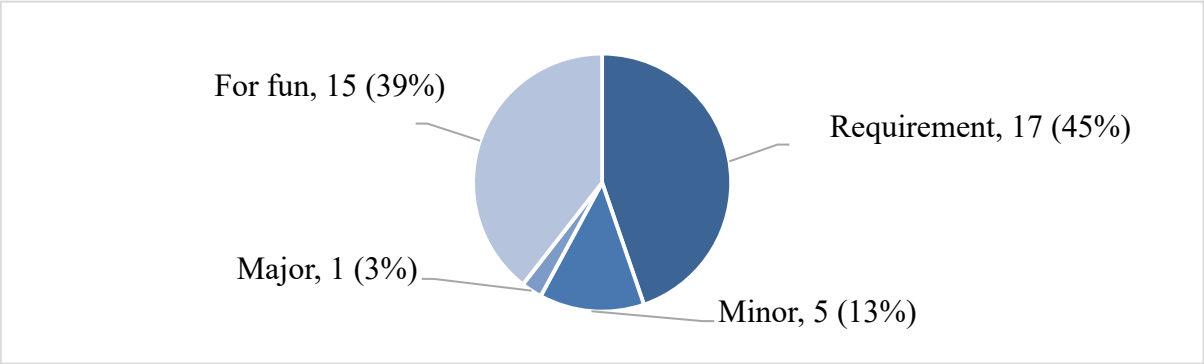


Figure 15. Academic Reasons Why Participants Are Taking Japanese: 100 level (N = 38)

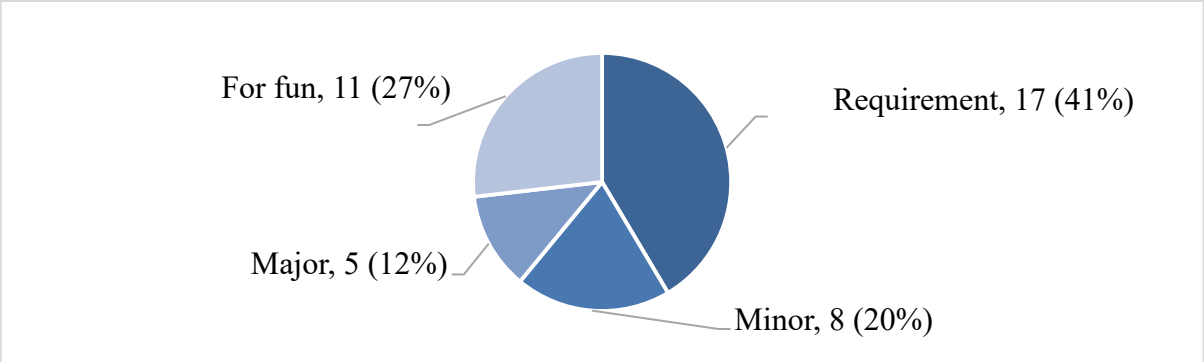


Figure 16. Academic Reasons Why Participants Are Taking Japanese: 200 level (N = 41)

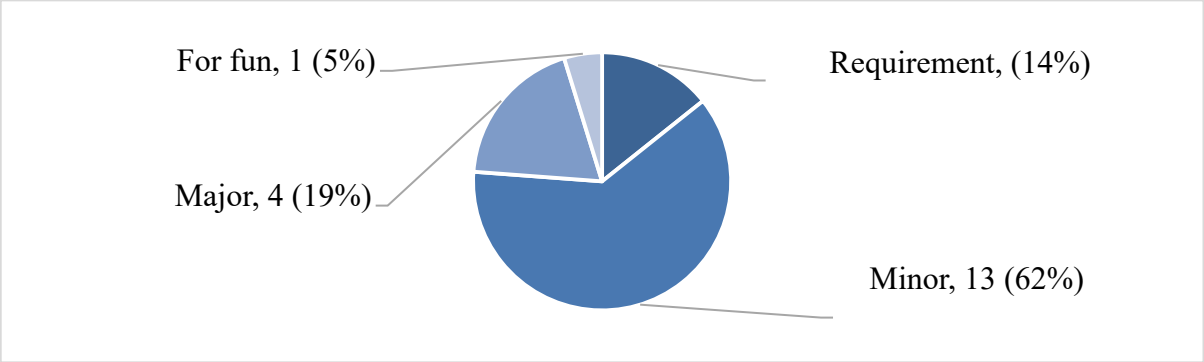


Figure 17. Academic Reasons Why Participants Are Taking Japanese: 300-400 level (N = 21)

Instruments

The survey consisted of two sections. The first section asked 64 six-point Likert scale questions to measure participants' motivation. The order of questions was random depending on participants. The second section elicited background information on participants with 13 items. In total, the estimated time to complete the survey was 15 minutes. See Appendix for the complete survey.

The survey was developed by going through several steps. First, the author selected questions from several studies such as Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009), You, Dörnyei, and Csizér (2016), de Silva (2016), and Liu and Thompson (2018) and created measures of motivational factors suitable for this study. Second, the author changed the wording or added/eliminated some items to make each question more appropriate for JFL settings. Third, a pilot study was conducted with four participants who had previous Japanese learning experiences but were not currently studying in a Japanese class. The profiles of the participants are shown in Table 1. Taking feedback from theses participants into consideration, the questionnaire items were revised and finalized.

Table 1. The Profiles of People Who Participated in the Pilot Study

	First language	Learning experience
Participant A	English	Took the first to fourth-year Japanese courses in the U.S., studied abroad in Japan, and currently lives in Japan.
Participant B	English	Took the *Japanese level I* at the study site.
Participant C	Mandarin	Took Japanese courses for three years in Taiwan and did an internship in Japan for four months.
Participant D	Mandarin	Took the *Japanese level I to VII* at the study site.

To assess students' language learning motivation, the following 11 factors were measured in the first section of the survey:

(1) *Classroom support*: This examines students' feelings about support from their teachers or classmates. Although de Silva (2016) distinguished between emotional support and instrumental support from teachers and classmates, this study categorized them into one factor.

(2) *Instrumentality-promotion*: This refers to the intrinsic aspect of instrumental motivation and measures the regulation of personal goals to become successful in their academic or business opportunities by attaining high proficiency in Japanese.

(3) *Instrumentality-prevention*: This refers to the extrinsic aspect of instrumental motivation and measures the regulation of duties and obligations. For example, it assesses how much pressure students feel to pass examinations or not to get a bad grade.

(4) *Cultural interest*: This explores the learner's interest in the cultural items of Japan, such as music, films, anime, food, manga (comic books), and books.

(5) *Attitudes towards learning Japanese*: This measures how positive a students' attitude is towards their immediate learning environment and experience.

(6) *Interest in learning Japanese*: This investigates how much learners are interested in Japanese as a foreign language.

(7) *Attitudes towards Japanese community*: This examines how positive a learner's attitude is towards the Japanese community (e.g., attitudes towards Japanese people).

(8) *Intended effort*: This measures how much students enjoy Japanese learning and how much effort they put into studying Japanese.

(9) *Ideal L2 self*: This refers to "the representation of the attributes that someone would ideally like to possess (i.e. a representation of personal hopes, aspirations or wishes)" (Dörnyei, 2009, p.4) and measures how much students can imagine themselves as an individual who can use Japanese in the future.

(10) *Ought-to L2 self*: This measures "the attributes that one believes one *ought* to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.106).

(11) *Anti-ought-to L2 self*: This investigates learners' willingness to study Japanese *despite* other people's opinions or expectations.

The second section of the survey asked about students' background information such as their age, gender, fist languages, race, major, minor, the current/the last Japanese class taken, a goal of the study, Japanese learning history, and experience in learning languages other than Japanese. In addition, participants were asked to report their primary reasons for studying Japanese.

Procedure

Data collection took place between November 2018 and December 2018, the last month in the Fall 2018 semester. The author visited on-campus Japanese language classrooms (*Japanese Level I*, *III*, *V*, and *VII*) and asked students to participate in the survey by distributing flyers. For the two classes for which the author was the instructor and some other classes which had a time conflict, a third party visited them and conducted the same recruitment. In addition, an advertisement email was sent to all students who were currently enrolled in Japanese courses except for the two sections for which the author was the instructor. In addition, advertisement flyers were posted around the campus, and as mentioned earlier, the author also introduced the survey at Japanese extracurricular events several times.

Before starting the analysis, the internal consistency of each motivational factor was tested by computing Cronbach Alpha coefficients. As a result, two questions from *Instrumentality-promotion* and *Interest in learning Japanese* were found to be problematic and were subsequently removed. In addition, to maintain individual consistency in answers, if a participant did not answer

all items in one section representing one factor, the data for this participant was excluded from the analysis of the factor. For this reason, question no.7 in *Classroom support*: "In this class, students are willing to help each other learn Japanese. (Please leave it blank if you think the question is not applicable to your situation.)" was also removed since keeping this item resulted in eliminating many participants' data in *Classroom support*. Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the factors after these removals, item numbers, and excluded item numbers are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Composites of Motivational Variables with Cronbach Alpha Coefficients

Factor	Item no.	α	Removed item no.
Classroom support	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	0.89	7
Instrumentality-promotion	8, 9, 10, 11, 12	0.83	
Instrumentality-prevention	13, 14, 15, 17	0.76	16
Cultural interest	18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28	0.84	
Attitudes towards Learning Japanese	29, 30, 31, 32, 33	0.86	
Interest in Learning Japanese	34, 36, 37	0.72	35
Attitudes towards Japanese Community	38, 39, 40, 41	0.88	
Intended Effort	42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47	0.86	
Ideal L2 self	48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53	0.88	
Ought-to L2 self	54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59	0.81	
Anti-ought-to L2 self	60, 61, 62, 63, 64	0.61	

Data Analysis

All the data obtained were analyzed with the statistical software package SPSS version 25.0. Data analysis started with computation of descriptive statistics for the research questions. For research question 1, 2 and 4, Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation analysis was conducted. To test research question 3, Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation analysis and three one-way ANOVAs were performed. After ANOVAs, Tukey's test for pairwise comparison between group means was used. Statistical significance was tested at 5% and 1% levels. Because this study conducted three instances of hypothesis-testing, α was set to 0.017 for 5% and 0.003 for 1% after Bonferroni Correction.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the survey will be analyzed statistically, and each research question will be discussed and answered.

Research Questions and Discussion

Research Question 1

In order to answer research question 1, "What are the primary reasons for learning Japanese among college-level JFL learners in the U.S.?" and understand what aspects of Japan/Japanese motivated participants to learn Japanese in details, the survey asked the following open-ended question: "What is your No.1 reason for choosing Japanese?" and the researcher categorized the responses into ten groups. When the participants gave two or more reasons, they were divided and categorized into each group. Figure 18 summarizes the result.

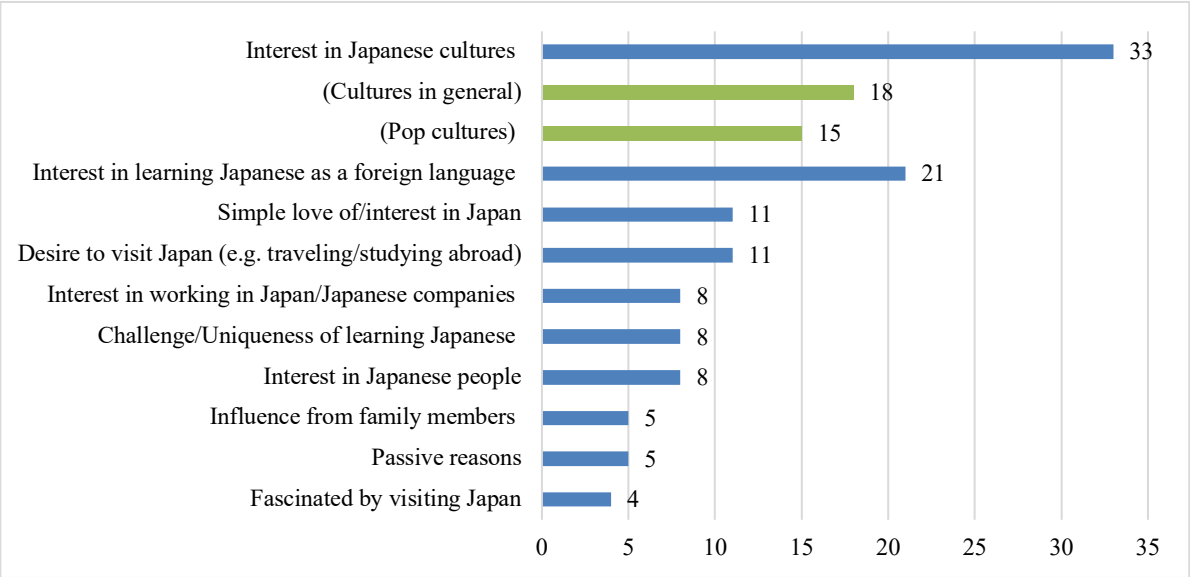


Figure 18. What Is Your No.1 Reason for Choosing Japanese?

Interest in Japanese Cultures

33 students out of 100 said that they were interested in some aspects of Japanese culture. Fifteen people clearly mentioned that they were interested in Japanese pop cultures, such as anime, manga, game, music, light novel, and media, etc. Other people just mentioned that they were interested in Japanese culture itself, or traditional culture, arts, and food. Here are representative sample responses that describe this group well.

- Ever since I was a kid I have always been interested in Japanese culture and media, so I chose to learn the language of the country that I am most interested in. (JPNS201, American)
- Japanese culture and media has left a deep and important impact on my life and I consider it personally important to immerse myself in the language and culture. (JPNS101, American)
- I love their introvercy and sophisticated culture. (JPNS201, Chinese)
- I find Japanese culture very interesting and I like that it is so different from my own. (JPNS101, American)

Interest in Learning Japanese as a Foreign Language

Twenty-one students reported that they were interested in Japanese as a foreign language. They showed pure interests in Japanese as a language and enjoyed learning it. Five of them reported that they were originally interested in linguistics or foreign languages. Three participants specifically mentioned that they found the Japanese writing system interesting, and two participants mentioned that they liked the uniqueness of Japanese. Here are sample responses.

- Japanese is really a language involving beautiful sound and writing. (JPNS201, Chinese)
- I find it really interesting to learn and I enjoy learning it when I have time. (JPNS201, Vietnamese-American)

- I think Japanese is linguistically interesting. (JPNS301, American)
- Interested in language; I plan to go into linguistics. (JPNS201, American)

Simple Love of/Interest in Japan

Eleven participants said that they just liked/were interested in Japan and Japanese. Seven students did not elaborate but wrote that they had a personal interest in Japanese. Five respondents reported that they just liked Japanese and had wanted to study it. Here are sample responses.

- I just love it. (JPNS201, Chinese)
- Because I find it interesting. (JPNS301, American)
- I want to learn it over other languages. (JPNS201, Pilipino)

Desire to Visit Japan (e.g., Traveling/Studying abroad)

Eleven participants reported that they were studying Japanese to visit Japan someday. Five participants said they were interested in studying abroad in Japan. Three people wrote that they would like to travel to Japan, and the other three students just mentioned that they wanted to go to Japan. Here are sample responses.

- I'd like to maybe live in japan but I'm still deciding that, so the short term goal is a semester abroad. (JPNS101, Chinese/Vietnamese-American)
- I want to go to Japan someday. (JPNS201, American)
- I want to be able to travel around Japan more easily, eats lots of delicious food regardless of location, and see many of the beautiful architecture and historical/spiritual sites. (JPNS301, Puerto Rican-American)

Interest in Working in Japan/Japanese Companies

Eight participants answered that they wanted to work in Japan or work for Japanese companies. Two of them wrote that they wanted to work in game studios, two of them reported that they wanted to teach English in Japan, and one said that he/she wanted to work for a car company. Here are sample responses.

- I want my future employment to have Japanese involved in some way. (JPNS101, American)
- I would like to work with Japanese game studios in the future. (JPNS101, American)
- I want to learn more about the culture and work in Japan, teaching English as a foreign language. (JPNS101, American)

Challenge/Uniqueness of Learning

Eight people answered that the number one reason why they studied Japanese was that they wanted to achieve something or challenge something unique. Five participants reported that they wanted to achieve high proficiency in Japanese, or to experience some achievements. Three students mentioned that they would like to do something different from other people or their native languages. Here are sample responses.

- I took Japanese in high school because the members of each language offered gave a short skit to the eighth graders and the Japanese students seemed to know the most. I wanted to continue my studies in college because I really loved learning the language. (JPNS301, American)
- I want to study something hard. (JPNS201, Taiwanese)
- Japan is a country with a language and history not many people know about. Learning the language and history is like having access to a very special secret club of nice people, innovative technology, and interesting speaking capabilities. (JPNS201, American)

Interest in Japanese People

Eight participants showed interest in people from Japan. Three of them seemed to have specific people in mind such as the best friend, a significant other, or exchange students. Here are sample responses.

- I like the culture and the people. I respect them a lot. They are my hope for the world. (JPNS101, Hispanic)
- One of my best friends is Japanese, so I wanted to get closer to him by learning his language. (JPNS101, American)
- I would like to know more about the society and its people. (JPNS201, Chinese)

Influence from Family Members

Five participants told that the primary reason why they studied Japanese was family influences. Three of them identified themselves as half-Japanese or Japanese American (however, they did not identify themselves as a native speaker of Japanese) and said that they wanted to speak with family members or friends in Japanese. The other two students started studying Japanese because of the influence of their family members who worked at the military base in Yokohama or a Japanese company. Here are sample responses.

- I am half-Japanese and I wanted to learn the language so I could communicate with my family and friends in Japan. I have a lot of Japanese friends in Japan and at this university and I enjoy being able to speak in Japanese with them. Learning about the language also helps me understand Japanese culture. (JPNS301, biracial (Japanese and Caucasian))
- I learned some Japanese when I lived on the army base in Kanagawa and I want to get better. (JPNS101, Irish-American)

Passive Reasons

Five participants provided evasive reasons for learning Japanese although two of them wrote positive reasons as well. Three students said that they wanted to escape from Spanish. However, all of them were from the United States, and they reported that they had been studying Spanish from elementary school to high school. Here are sample responses.

- I need to get degree. (JPNS301, Korean)
- It was the language I studied in high school. (JPN101, Chinese-American)
- I took Japanese to try something other than Spanish, I put in minimal effort until I went to Japan in 2015 on a class trip for two weeks and I really enjoyed meeting the students at the school we visited and my host family were very kind, So I wanted to pursue Japanese as a Major so I could go back and speak more fluently and work within Japan. (JPNS201, American)

Fascinated by Visiting Japan

As the last comment in the category above, four participants said that they were studying Japanese because they were fascinated with Japan when they visited/lived there. They reported that they were fascinated by culture, language, and people. Here are sample responses.

- I lived there briefly when I was younger and have been fascinated with the culture and language since. (JPNS201, American)
- The Japanese culture fascinated me back in high school. After my first visit to Japan is when I decided to learn Japanese because I wanted to be even closer to the culture and the people. (JPNS301, American)
- After traveling to Japan, I really liked the culture and decided I wanted to learn the language. I also enjoy the process of learning the language. (JPNS201, American)

Findings

As the results above show, most of the participants provided positive reasons to study Japanese. One notable difference between this study and previous studies which presented rankings of students' primary/initial reasons is that this survey asked the open-ended question while the others asked participants to choose answers from multiple options. In spite of this difference, the tendency of participants' responses in each study was similar. For instance, if "interest in Japanese culture" is broken down into "interest in pop cultures" and "interest in Japanese culture" in general, the most popular reason becomes interest in Japanese as a foreign language (21%). This finding is in line with the Japan Foundation (2012) and Ishikura (2013). However, compared with the Japan Foundation (2012) and Watanabe and Higurashi (2012), participants in Ishikura (2013) and this study showed lower interest in Japanese for job/career opportunities. This seems to indicate that students at the study site tend to take Japanese courses out of pure interest in Japanese language and culture. In addition, their desired situation in which to use Japanese is traveling rather than working.

As shown in Figure 18 earlier, 15% of participants reported that Japanese pop culture was the number one reason to study Japanese. Compared with several of the previous studies discussed in Chapter 2, 15% is not a large ratio. It might be because this survey asked what their primary reason to study Japanese was, and not why they started studying Japanese. The result indicates that Japanese pop cultures may be the primary reasons to get initially interested in studying Japanese but not to continue studying.

Interestingly, among 33 participants whose length of study was more than three years did not write about Japanese pop culture in their responses; no one brought up anime or manga as their number one reason to study Japanese, and only three of them reported that they study Japanese because they are interested in Japanese games or music. This finding supports Nemoto

(2011) and Watanabe and Fuse (2008), which indicate that Japanese pop cultures (anime and manga) can be a trigger to get them initially interested in Japanese but not a sustainer to keep them studying Japanese. Instead, they begin to focus on different aspects of Japan/Japanese.

Research Question 2

This section answers research question 2, "What general characteristics do the JFL learners show with respect to their motivation to study Japanese?"

General Observation

Firstly, distributions of participants' responses to motivational factors discussed in Chapter 2 and 3 were examined, and Table 3 shows descriptive statistics of the factors.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Motivational Factors

	M	SD	N	Skewness	Kurtosis
Classroom support	5.25	0.73	97	-2.22	9.55
Instrumentality-promotion	3.49	1.21	98	0.16	-0.71
Instrumentality-prevention	2.92	1.27	99	0.30	-0.49
Cultural interest	4.78	0.80	97	-0.69	0.82
Attitudes to learning	4.99	0.89	99	-1.48	3.04
Interest in learning	5.12	0.84	99	-1.43	2.80
Attitudes to community	5.39	0.71	100	-2.20	8.06
Intended effort	4.79	0.86	99	-0.78	0.28
Ideal L2 self	4.40	1.07	98	-0.69	0.34
Ought-to L2 self	2.78	1.02	98	0.14	-0.54
Anti-ought-to L2 self	4.76	0.70	99	-0.71	0.63

Note: The maximum score is 6.

This table indicates that participants gave a high rating to most of the motivational factors. Especially, many students must have given high ratings to *Classroom support*, *Cultural interest*,

Attitudes towards learning Japanese, *Interest in learning Japanese*, and *Attitudes towards Japanese community* since the means are close to the maximum scores and standard deviations are relatively small. These results indicate that in general, students feel that they are supported by teachers and classmates, and have a positive attitude and interest in learning Japanese languages or cultures. In contrast, participants did not give a high rating to *Instrumentality-prevention*, which measures the regulation of duties and obligations such as studying Japanese to pass the courses or get a good grade, and the *ought-to L2 self*, which refers to "the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e. a representation of someone else's sense of duty, obligations or responsibilities)" (Dörnyei, 2009, p.4). This finding suggests that participants do not feel pressure not to fail in Japanese learning or to fulfill the expectations from other people by learning Japanese. In addition, the table shows that the *anti-ought to L2 self* (Thompson & Vásquez, 2015), which investigates learners' willingness to study Japanese despite other people's opinions/expectations, has a larger mean score than the *ought-to L2 self*. These results support the idea that for less commonly taught languages like Japanese, the *anti-ought to L2 self* might be a better motivational factor to discuss as suggested by Thompson and Vásquez (2015) and Shimoura (2018) since Japanese is not a language that everyone in the world speaks and therefore pressure from others to study Japanese is not as strong as pressure to study English.

Intended Effort and the Other Motivational Factors

Secondly, an analysis using Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation was conducted, and the correlation matrix of all the factors is presented in Table 4. As mentioned in the previous chapter, *Intended effort* measures how much learners think that studying Japanese is essential for them, and how much effort they put into Japanese learning. Thus, examining the relationships between *Intended effort* and the other motivational factors might help to understand participants' motivation

better. According to Table 4, most of the motivational factors except for *Instrumentality-prevention* positively correlated with *Intended effort* with a correlation coefficient (*r*) of 0.53 to 0.75. Especially, *Attitudes towards learning Japanese* strongly and positively correlated with *Intended effort* (*r* (98) = 0.75), which indicates that how much students enjoy Japanese classes and learning Japanese and how much effort they put into it are positively related to each other. Furthermore, *Classroom support* highly and positively correlated with *Attitudes towards learning Japanese* as well (*r* (97) = 0.71). This result suggests that creating a supportive atmosphere in the classroom promotes students' positive attitude and effort, and it corresponds with a study by de Silva (2016), which found that affective support from teachers has a positive influence on attitude towards learning.

Table 4. Correlations Between Motivational Factors

	Classroom support	Inst-promotion	Inst-prevention	Cultural interest	Attitudes to learning	Interest in learning	Attitudes to community	Intended effort	Ideal L2 self	Ought-to L2 self
Instrumentality -promotion	0.26 *									
Instrumentality -prevention	0.01	0.54 **								
Cultural interest	0.49 **	0.36 **	0.13							
Attitudes to learning	0.71 **	0.35 **	0.10	0.59 **						
Interest in learning	0.49 **	0.31 **	0.23 *	0.55 **	0.60 **					
Attitudes to community	0.55 **	0.36 **	0.04	0.46 **	0.63 **	0.51 **				
Intended effort	0.53 **	0.55 **	0.17	0.53 **	0.75 **	0.53 **	0.68 **			
Ideal L2 self	0.42 **	0.53 **	0.10	0.52 **	0.57 **	0.45 **	0.55 **	0.67 **		
Ought-to L2 self	0.27 **	0.68 **	0.51 **	0.24 *	0.33 **	0.10	0.24 **	0.40 **	0.35 **	
Anti-ought-to L2 self	0.21 *	0.36 **	0.19	0.43 **	0.52 **	0.45 **	0.45 **	0.62 **	0.59 **	0.23 *

Note. *p < .05 (2-tailed), **p < .001 (2-tailed)

The *ideal L2 self* in L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) proposed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009) was one of the most significant factors which positively correlated with *Intended effort* as well (*r* (97) = 0.67), and this result is similar to Kormos and Csizér (2008), Ryan (2009), Ueki and

Takeuchi (2012), and de Silva (2016). Since the *ideal L2 self* measures how much students can imagine themselves as an individual who can use Japanese in the future, this result indicates that students' ability to visualize their future self-image using Japanese positively correlates with the amount of effort they put into Japanese learning. The o*ught-to L2 self,* which is the other component of L2MSS also positively correlated with *Intended effort* (r (98) = 0.40). However, the *anti-ought-to L2 self* showed a stronger positive correlation (r (99) = 0.62) with *Intended effort* than the o*ught-to L2 self*. These results indicate that rather than the pressure to meet expectations from people around them, the willingness to keep learning Japanese despite what other people say is a driving force to put more effort into studying Japanese.

Validation of L2 Motivational Self System at the Study Site

Table 4 also shows that the *ideal L2 self* positively correlated with *Instrumentality-promotion,* which measures the regulation of personal goals to become successful in their academic/business opportunities (r (96) = 0.53), but did not show significant correlation with *Instrumentality-prevention*. This is in line with L2MSS and a validation study by Taguchi et al. (2009), which examined English learners in Japan, China, and Iran. On the other hand, the ought-to L2 self has a strong positive correlation with *Instrumentality-promotion* (r (97) = 0.68) and a moderate positive correlation with *Instrumentality-prevention* (r (98) = 0.51). The relationship between *Instrumentality-prevention* and the *ought-to L2 self* supports L2MSS which claimed that the *ought-to L2 self* involves an extrinsic type of instrumental motives (*Instrumentality-prevention*) since both are evasive motives to avoid possible negative outcomes. Nonetheless, Taguchi et al. (2009) reported that although both *Instrumentality-promotion* and *Instrumentality-prevention* positively correlated with the *ought-to L2 sel*f, the prevention factor correlated more than the promotion factor, which is opposite from this study. The reason for this contradiction might come

from the difference in the languages examined: English in Taguchi et al. (2009) and Japanese in this study. This result indicates that the ought-to L2 self among Japanese learners might be different from that of English learners, as Dörnyei and Al-hoorie (2017) suggested.

Research Question 3

This section examines research question 3 "what kind of relationships are there between *Cultural Interest* and other motivational factors?"

As shown in the previous section, *Cultural interest* is one of the motivational factors which showed a significant moderate positive correlation with most of the other motivational factors except *Instrumentality-prevention* (no significant correlation), *Instrumentality-promotion*, and the *ought-to L2 self* (weak positive correlation). Since *Instrumentality-prevention* and the *ought-to L2 self* are rather evasive motivation to avoid possible negative outcomes, positive interest in Japanese culture is quite different from them as a factor. The reason why *Cultural interest* showed a weaker correlation with *Instrumentality-promotion* than with the other factors might be that the *Instrumentality-promotion* factor is also quite different from the other factors in that it focuses on their career. Since other motivational factors have significant correlations with *Cultural interest*, it can be said that students' cultural interest is important in discussing positive and emotional aspect of motivation for learning Japanese.

General Observation

Within the *Cultural interest* section of the survey, each question asked if they liked/were interested in different aspects of Japanese culture such as pop culture, traditional culture, music, films, anime, books, manga (comic books), games, food, history, and TV programs. To begin with, descriptive statistics were computed to examine how much interest participants had in each cultural item, and the summarized result is shown in Table 5. The item that got the highest mean was food

(M = 5.48, SD = 0.90). Other means turned out to be between 4.33 and 4.96 with standard deviation between 1.17 and 1.42, suggesting that participants are generally interested in every Japanese cultural item. The relationships between interest in cultural items and students' biographic variables will be discussed in the section below.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of Interest in Cultural Items

	M	SD	N	Skewness	Kurtosis
pop culture	4.94	1.19	99	-1.09	0.42
traditional culture	4.63	1.17	99	-0.62	-0.03
music	4.69	1.33	99	-0.73	-0.29
films	4.96	1.15	100	-1.05	0.74
anime	4.88	1.42	100	-1.22	0.55
books	4.58	1.23	100	-0.67	0.12
manga	4.69	1.39	100	-0.94	0.08
games	4.48	1.71	100	-0.78	-0.75
food	5.48	0.90	99	-1.91	3.18
history	4.71	1.20	100	-0.81	0.40
TV programs	4.33	1.36	100	-0.60	-0.36

Note: The maximum score is 6.

Interest in Japanese Cultural Items and the Motivational Factors

Correlations between motivational factors and interest in each Japanese cultural item are summarized in Table 6. Besides *Instrumentality-prevention*, all of the motivational factors positively and significantly correlated with some of the cultural items. As mentioned above, the reason why *Instrumentality-prevention* did not show any significant correlation with any of the cultural items might be that evasive and extrinsic instrumental motivation for learning Japanese has nothing to do with positive interest towards Japanese culture. Interest in pop cultures, traditional cultures, films, books, histories, and TV programs showed stronger correlations with

motivational factors than the other cultural items. Interest in pop culture and that in traditional culture did not show any substantial differences.

Table 6. Correlations Between Motivational Factors and Interests in Cultural Items

	pop culture	traditional culture	music	films	anime	books
Classroom support	0.43 **	0.52 **	0.39 **	0.29 **	0.28 **	0.45 **
Instrumentality-promotion	0.28 **	0.30 **	0.25 *	0.19	0.09	0.21 *
Instrumentality-prevention	0.01	0.11	0.11	0.04	0.01	-0.02
Attitudes to learning	0.48 **	0.48 **	0.48 **	0.37 **	0.31 **	0.40 **
Interest in learning	0.40 **	0.43 **	0.36 **	0.44 **	0.19	0.44 **
Attitudes to community	0.44 **	0.39 **	0.30 **	0.40 **	0.24 *	0.32 **
Intended effort	0.42 **	0.46 **	0.42 **	0.43 **	0.16	0.39 **
Ideal L2 self	0.45 **	0.48 **	0.40 **	0.44 **	0.07	0.52 **
Ought-to L2 self	0.10	0.31 **	0.20 *	0.13	0.00	0.15
Anti-ought-to L2 self	0.33 **	0.31 **	0.31 **	0.34 **	0.15	0.25 *

	manga	games	food	history	TV programs
Classroom support	0.37 **	0.19	0.33 **	0.37 **	0.29 **
Instrumentality-promotion	0.05	0.18	0.04	0.28 **	0.27 **
Instrumentality-prevention	-0.07	0.06	-0.10	0.09	0.04
Attitudes to learning	0.30 **	0.21 *	0.34 **	0.44 **	0.42 **
Interest in learning	0.25 *	0.22 *	0.17	0.43 **	0.33 **
Attitudes to community	0.23 *	0.10	0.36 **	0.46 **	0.39 **
Intended effort	0.11	0.13	0.24 *	0.48 **	0.51 **
Ideal L2 self	0.08	0.17	0.13	0.43 **	0.56 **
Ought-to L2 self	-0.05	0.05	0.12	0.21 *	0.23 *
Anti-ought-to L2 self	0.12	0.11	0.15	0.33 **	0.44 **

Note. *p < .05 (2-tailed), **p < .001 (2-tailed)

Interest in Anime, Manga, and Games

Unexpectedly, interest in manga, anime, and games, which are considered as the most popular aspects of Japanese culture, did not significantly correlate with *Intended effort* and the

ideal L2 self. It means that interest in anime, manga, and game is not related to students' ability to visualize their future image of their use of Japanese and their efforts in learning Japanese.

Except for *Intended effort* and the *ideal L2 self*, interest in anime, manga, and games significantly and positively correlated with some of the other factors although those were weaker correlations compared with other cultural items. However, interest in Japanese pop culture showed stronger positive correlations with the other motivational factors, and it even had moderate positive correlations with *Intended effort* (r (99) = 0.42) and the *ideal L2 self* (r (97) = 0.45). This result indicates that the idea of "Japanese pop culture" is not equal to anime, manga, and games even though many of the studies treat them as the main aspects of Japanese pop culture. It suggests that we must treat each component of "Japanese pop culture" separately when relationships between motivation and Japanese culture are examined.

Research Question 4

In order to answer research question 4, "Do student characteristics make any differences in their motivational factors?", descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were conducted to see relationships between motivational factors and the following student characteristics: academic reasons for taking Japanese courses, first languages, course levels, length of study, and gender.

Academic Reasons Why Participants are Taking Japanese

To examine whether or not participants' academic reasons had any impact on their motivational factors, descriptive statistics were calculated and are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Motivational Factors: Academic Reasons

	Major			Minor			Requirement			For fun			Total		
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N
Classroom support	5.26	0.65	9	5.20	0.60	24	5.28	0.64	37	5.27	0.97	27	5.25	0.73	97
Instrumentality-promotion	4.80	0.96	9	3.55	1.10	26	3.22	1.15	37	3.35	1.22	26	3.49	1.21	98
Instrumentality-prevention	4.20	1.18	9	2.77	1.15	26	2.96	1.03	37	2.58	1.47	27	2.92	1.27	99
Cultural interest	5.08	0.40	8	4.63	0.71	25	4.80	0.78	37	4.78	0.98	27	4.78	0.80	97
Attitudes to learning	5.12	0.55	10	5.02	0.70	25	4.89	1.08	37	5.04	0.90	27	4.99	0.89	99
Interest in learning	5.59	0.55	9	5.18	0.55	26	5.13	0.68	37	4.91	1.24	27	5.12	0.84	99
Attitudes to community	5.58	0.44	10	5.41	0.54	26	5.27	0.69	37	5.48	0.94	27	5.39	0.71	100
Intended effort	5.54	0.38	9	4.81	0.77	26	4.57	0.97	37	4.83	0.77	27	4.79	0.86	99
Ideal L2 self	5.15	0.78	10	4.51	0.74	26	4.03	1.23	37	4.52	1.04	25	4.40	1.07	98
Ought-to L2 self	3.52	0.82	9	2.64	0.94	26	2.79	0.99	36	2.66	1.14	27	2.78	1.02	98
Anti-ought-to L2 self	5.38	0.41	9	4.82	0.59	26	4.61	0.75	37	4.70	0.72	27	4.76	0.70	99

Note. The maximum score is 6.

According to the data, *Instrumentality-promotion* (measuring the regulation of personal goals to become successful in their academic or business opportunities), *Instrumentality-prevention* (measuring the regulation of duties and obligations), and the *ideal L2 self* (measuring how much students can visualize their future language use) have groups whose means are different by more than one point. To explore these factors more in-depth, three one-way ANOVAs were performed with academic reasons (*major*, *minor*, *requirement*, and *for fun*) as the independent variable and these three motivational factors (*Instrumentality-promotion*, *Instrumentality-prevention*, and the *ideal L2 self*) as the dependent variable, and the results are shown in Table 8. Significant differences were found in all three motivational factors at the 5% level ($\alpha = 0.017$ Bonferroni corrected): *Instrumentality-promotion* ($F\ [3, 94] = 4.821$, $p < 0.004$), *Instrumentality-prevention* ($F\ [3, 95] = 4.21$, $p = 0.008$), and the *ideal L2 self* ($F\ [3, 94] = 3.549$, $p = 0.017$). The

effect sizes were all medium (*Instrumentality-promotion,* $\eta^2 = 0.13$; *Instrumentality-prevention*, $\eta^2 = 0.12$; the *ideal L2 self*, $\eta^2 = 0.10$).

Table 8. ANOVA Results for Academic Reasons and Motivational Factors

Variable	M(SD)				df	F	p	η^2
	Major	Minor	Requirement	For fun				
Instrumentality-promotion	4.80 (0.96)	3.55 (1.10)	3.22 (1.15)	3.35 (1.22)	3	4.82 **	0.004	0.13
Instrumentality-prevention	4.20 (1.18)	2.77 (1.15)	2.96 (1.03)	2.58 (1.47)	3	4.21 **	0.008	0.12
Ideal L2 self	5.15 (0.78)	4.51 (0.74)	4.03 (1.23)	4.52 (1.04)	3	3.55 *	0.017	0.10

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01 Effect size is eta squared (η^2).

In addition, Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD were shown in Table 9. For *Instrumentality-promotion*, *major* (M = 4.80, SD = 0.96) was significantly different from *minor* (M = 3.55, SD =1.10), *requirement* (M= 3.22, SD = 1.15), and *for fun* (M = 3.35, SD = 1.22). Similarly for *Instrumentality-prevention*, *major* (M = 4.20, SD = 1.18) was significantly different than *minor* (M = 2.77, SD = 1.15), *requirement* (M = 2.96, SD = 1.03), and *for fun* (M = 2.58, SD = 1.47).

Table 9. Tukey's Test Results for Academic Reasons and Motivational Factors

Instrumentality-promotion	(I) Reason	Major			Minor		For fun
	(J) Reason	Requirement	Minor	For fun	Requirement	For fun	Requirement
	Mean Difference (I-J)	1.58*	1.25*	1.45*	0.34	0.21	0.13
Instrumentality-prevention	(I) Reason	Major			Minor		For fun
	(J) Reason	Requirement	Minor	For fun	Requirement	For fun	Requirement
	Mean Difference (I-J)	1.24*	1.43*	1.62*	-0.19	0.20	-0.39
Ideal L2 self	(I) Reason	Major			Minor		For fun
	(J) Reason	Requirement	Minor	For fun	Requirement	For fun	Requirement
	Mean Difference (I-J)	1.12*	0.64	0.63	0.47	-0.01	0.49

Note. *p < .05.

These results indicate that for both the *Instrumentality-promotion* and *Instrumentality-prevention* factors, students majoring in Japanese had higher scores than the other groups, which means that Japanese majors are positively motivated toward their goals to seek their academic success or career, but also feel the pressure not to fail in Japanese learning. This finding is in direct conflict

with a study by Yang (2011), which indicated that non-Japanese majors had a higher practical orientation (equivalent to instrumentality in this study) toward learning Japanese.

With respect to the *ideal L2 self*, *major* (M = 5.15, SD = 0.78) also scored significantly higher than *requirement* (M= 4.03, SD = 1.23). The results suggest that Japanese majors are more successful in visualizing their future language use compared with the requirement group. In other words, this result indicates that students whose major is not Japanese are not successful in imagining their future using Japanese vividly. As previously discussed, the ideal L2 self is an essential motivation for students to put effort into learning Japanese. It might be necessary to promote the ideal L2 self motivation among students whose major is not Japanese by helping them to have specific goals and envision their imaginary selves using Japanese in the future.

Additionally, with respect to these three factors, there were no significant mean differences among students learning Japanese for their minor, general education requirements, and for fun. This result is similar to a study by Cai and Cai (2010), which found that there were not any differences in their motivational factors among non-major groups.

First Languages

To explore motivational differences among participants divided by their first language, descriptive statistics were computed and are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics of Motivational Factors: First Languages

	English			Chinese			English and Others			Others			Total		
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N
Classroom support	5.20	0.62	56	5.31	1.01	25	5.27	0.52	11	5.42	0.79	4	5.25	0.73	96
Instrumentality-promotion	3.47	1.28	57	3.79	1.14	25	2.78	0.77	11	3.30	0.70	4	3.47	1.20	97
Instrumentality-prevention	2.95	1.24	57	3.01	1.42	26	2.27	0.98	11	3.63	1.36	4	2.92	1.27	98
Cultural interest	4.71	0.72	56	4.84	0.97	25	4.97	0.75	11	4.50	0.88	4	4.76	0.79	96
Attitudes to learning	4.88	0.91	57	5.09	1.01	26	5.11	0.64	11	5.45	0.50	4	4.99	0.90	98
Interest in learning	5.30	0.64	57	4.76	1.06	26	5.00	1.06	11	5.25	0.57	4	5.12	0.84	98
Attitudes to community	5.42	0.62	58	5.38	0.93	26	5.27	0.68	11	5.25	0.71	4	5.39	0.71	99
Intended effort	4.77	0.90	57	4.90	0.78	26	4.62	0.94	11	4.63	0.25	4	4.78	0.85	98
Ideal L2 self	4.39	1.06	58	4.52	1.01	25	4.02	1.15	10	4.33	1.46	4	4.38	1.06	97
Ought-to L2 self	2.65	0.96	57	3.20	1.11	25	2.33	0.79	11	2.96	1.19	4	2.77	1.02	97
Anti-ought-to L2 self	4.86	0.67	57	4.56	0.77	26	4.82	0.60	11	4.30	0.77	4	4.75	0.70	98

Note. The maximum score is 6.

Table 10 shows that English-speaking learners (M = 5.30, SD = 0.64) have a relatively higher mean compared with Chinese-speaking learners (M = 4.76, SD = 1.06) in *Interest in learning Japanese*, which indicates that English speakers might have a stronger interest in Japanese as a foreign language than Chinese speakers do. It supports what Kurahachi (1992) and Saibe (2000) reported; American learners study Japanese mainly because of their interest in Japanese/Japan although it does not necessarily mean that English-speaking learners in this study are all "Americans" since not all participants whose first language is English reported that they are "American." This mean difference might come from one of the questions in *Interest in learning Japanese*: "I find the difference between my native language and Japanese interesting" since Chinese and Japanese share the same characteristics such as Chinese characters, while English and Japanese are less alike.

In addition, Chinese-speaking learners (M = 3.20, SD = 1.11) have a higher mean on the *ought-to L2 self* than English-speaking learners (M = 2.65, SD = 0.96). It might indicate that Chinese-speaking learners feel more pressure to meet expectations from people around them such as family members, friends, and teachers than English-speaking learners do. Even though these Chinese students are learning Japanese in the United States, their perception of Japanese learning might be different from that of English-speaking learners. This result implies that paying attention to students' first language background is important to understand their motivation even though the learning environment is the same.

Course Levels, Gender, and Length of Study

First, participants' course levels did not show any significant correlation with motivational factors. Although this result contradicts several previous studies discussed in Chapter 2, it supports a study by Shimoura (2018), which reported that there was no significant increase/decrease in the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self*, and the *anti-ought-to L2 self* by course level differences.

Second, participants' reported gender also did not make any noticeable differences in motivational factors, indicating that males and females are similar in their motivation for learning Japanese. This finding is different from a study by Cai and Cai (2010), which found that females had higher job-orientation and higher motivation to learn Japanese in Taiwan.

Third, length of study did not show any significant correlation with learners' motivation either. This result corresponds with another finding of Cai and Cai (2010), while it is different from a study by Saibe et al. (1995), which indicated that participants with more extended learning experience showed stronger integrative and instrumental orientations.

Research Question 4 Summary

All of these results discussed above indicate that rather than how long/in which course students study, why/for what they are learning Japanese makes the most significant differences in their motivation. Especially, the fact that there is no difference in *Intended effort* and the *ideal L2 self* among students' course levels or length of study implies that students with longer/higher-level learning experiences are not necessarily able to imagine how they can be by learning Japanese or put more effort into Japanese learning compared with other students at lower course levels or with shorter length of study. This suggests that teachers need to help students to visualize their future image with Japanese language and help them to have realistic goals to continue their studies regardless of their course level and length of study.

Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter 2, these results show that the outcomes of motivational studies highly depend on the context, and it is difficult to generalize the findings. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct language learning motivational research at a local level.

Research Question 5

In order to answer research question 5, "Do student characteristics make any differences in their interest in Japanese cultural items?", descriptive statistics and a correlation analysis were conducted to see relationships between participants' interest in Japanese cultural items and the following students' characteristics: first languages, academic reasons for taking Japanese courses, gender, course levels, and length of study.

First Languages and Academic Reasons for Taking Japanese Courses

Neither participants' first languages nor academic reasons for taking Japanese courses made any noticeable differences in the means. This result is different from Yang (2011), which

reported that “Interest in Japanese Culture” and “Interest in Popular Culture” of Japanese majors were significantly higher than those of non-Japanese majors.

Gender

To examine gender differences, descriptive statistics were computed and studied. Among all cultural items, only interest in Japanese games showed a noticeable mean difference as shown in Table 11. There was a large difference in the scores between males (M = 4.93, SD = 1.48) and females (M = 3.74, SD = 1.82). This outcome might not be surprising since males being more interested in games than females is a typical image people hold. The result confirms that this image is also true of Japanese learners.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Interest in Cultural Items: Gender

	Male			Female			Total		
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N
pop culture	4.98	1.06	59	4.85	1.39	39	4.93	1.20	98
traditional culture	4.63	1.13	59	4.59	1.25	39	4.61	1.17	98
music	4.83	1.19	59	4.44	1.50	39	4.67	1.33	98
films	4.87	1.17	60	5.08	1.13	39	4.95	1.16	99
anime	5.08	1.24	60	4.54	1.62	39	4.87	1.42	99
books	4.65	1.16	60	4.44	1.33	39	4.57	1.23	99
manga	4.90	1.26	60	4.33	1.53	39	4.68	1.39	99
games	4.93	1.48	60	3.74	1.82	39	4.46	1.72	99
food	5.45	0.91	60	5.53	0.89	38	5.48	0.90	98
history	4.78	1.20	60	4.56	1.21	39	4.70	1.20	99
TV programs	4.18	1.35	60	4.51	1.37	39	4.31	1.36	99

Note. The maximum score is 6.

Course Levels and Length of Study

In order to examine the relationships between participants' course levels/length of study and interest in cultural items, a correlation analysis was conducted as shown in Table 12. The result shows that both course levels and length of study have weak negative correlations with three cultural items: pop culture, anime, and manga, indicating that students with shorter/lower-level learning experiences showed a stronger interest in Japanese anime, manga, and pop culture, whereas students with longer/higher-level learning experiences are less interested in these items.

Table 12. Correlations Between Cultural Interest and Course Levels/Length of Study

	Current class	Length of study
pop culture	-0.21 *	-0.20 *
traditional culture	-0.20	-0.06
music	0.05	-0.04
films	-0.06	-0.09
anime	-0.35 **	-0.34 **
books	-0.06	-0.04
manga	-0.29 **	-0.26 **
games	-0.18	-0.12
food	-0.02	-0.12
history	-0.18	-0.13
TV programs	0.10	0.09

Note. *p < .05 (2-tailed), **p < .001 (2-tailed)

To investigate this more in-depth, descriptive statistics were computed, and the result is shown in Table 13 below. The table shows that the mean scores of interest in anime, manga, and pop culture in the 300-400 level group are between 4 (slightly agree) and 6 (strongly agree), which suggests that participants in the higher course levels are still interested in these cultural items. Therefore, rather than assuming that students at higher level courses have lost their interest in anime, manga, and pop culture altogether, it would be more accurate to say that their interest has

shifted to the other aspects of Japanese culture, and anime, manga, and pop culture are not their primary interest anymore.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics of Interest in Cultural Items: Course Levels

	100 level			200 level			300-400 levels			Total		
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N
pop culture	5.3	0.10	37	4.66	1.33	41	4.86	1.11	21	4.94	1.19	99
traditional culture	4.95	0.94	37	4.49	1.27	41	4.33	1.28	21	4.63	1.17	99
music	4.59	1.38	37	4.73	1.29	41	4.76	1.38	21	4.69	1.33	99
films	5.08	1.17	38	4.78	1.26	41	5.10	0.89	21	4.96	1.15	100
anime	5.37	1.22	38	4.78	1.33	41	4.19	1.63	21	4.88	1.42	100
books	4.74	1.13	38	4.49	1.17	41	4.48	1.54	21	4.58	1.23	100
manga	5.16	1.13	38	4.54	1.40	41	4.14	1.59	21	4.69	1.39	100
games	4.74	1.60	38	4.66	1.53	41	3.67	2.06	21	4.48	1.71	100
food	5.58	0.76	38	5.37	1.02	41	5.55	0.89	20	5.48	0.90	99
history	5.03	0.89	38	4.54	1.38	41	4.48	1.25	21	4.71	1.20	100
TV programs	4.39	1.41	38	3.90	1.36	41	5.05	0.97	21	4.33	1.36	100

Note. The maximum score is 6.

According to Onishi (2010), who compared Ukrainian university students in upper and lower years, there were large individual differences in level of their interest in Japanese language and cultural items among students in upper years. Watanabe and Fuse (2008) also reported that whether anime and manga became a reason to keep learning Japanese or not highly depended on learners. Furthermore, Ishikura (2013) indicated that students' interest in anime and/or manga varies from individual to individual. To examine if the same is also true in this study, the distributions of students' responses to the three questions "I like/am interested in Japanese pop culture," "I like/am interested in Japanese anime," and "I like/am interested in Japanese manga (comic books)" were summarized as shown in Figure 19 below.

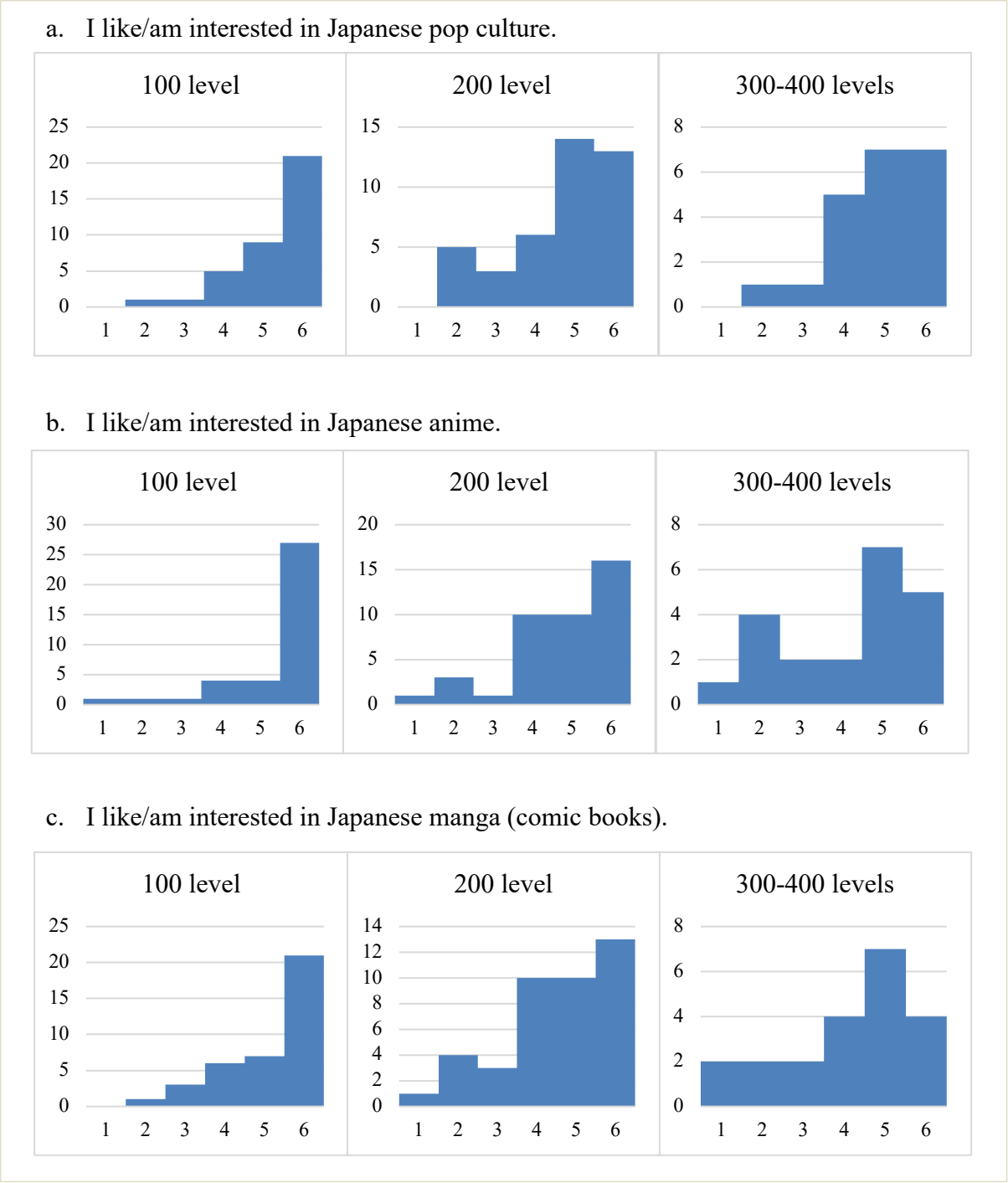


Figure 19. Distributions of Responses from Students in Each Course Level

Although many participants tended to give high scores in all groups, the distributions in 200 level and 300-400 level courses vary more compared with the 100 level course. Thus, it is

possible to infer that most of the beginning-level learners are strongly interested in Japanese pop culture, anime, and manga, as several studies in the literature review reported. However, as time passes, their interest in these cultural aspects begins to vary and for some learners, interest in pop cultures, anime, and manga cease to be their primary reason to study Japanese. This finding is in line with studies by Watanabe and Fuse (2008), Onishi (2010), and Ishikura (2013).

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This study investigated types of motivation that Japanese learners in the United States have. This chapter summarizes the research findings and discusses pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and directions for future research.

Research Findings

First, Japanese learners at the study site tended to respond that their primary reasons for learning Japanese were their pure interest in Japanese language and culture. Moreover, their desired situation in which to use Japanese was traveling rather than working. On the other hand, participants with more extended learning experience did not indicate that their primary reasons were anime and/or manga. Comparing with other studies, the result suggested that Japanese anime and manga can initially motivate people to start learning Japanese but cannot motivate them to keep studying it. Instead, they begin to focus on different aspects of Japan/Japanese.

Second, the participants felt that they were supported by teachers and classmates and had a positive attitude toward and interest in learning the Japanese language and/or cultures. In addition, participants did not feel pressure not to fail in Japanese learning (*Instrumentality-prevention*) or to gain approval from other people by studying Japanese (*ought-to L2 self*). Instead, they tended to learn Japanese despite other people's opinions or expectations (*anti-ought-to L2 self*).

Third, a supportive atmosphere in the classroom was positively related to how much students enjoy Japanese classes and learning Japanese, and this sense of enjoyment positively and strongly correlated with how much effort they put into Japanese learning. In addition, students' ability to visualize their future self-image using Japanese (*ideal L2 self*) positively correlated with

the amount of effort they put into Japanese learning. Furthermore, rather than the pressure to meet expectations from people around them (*ought-to L2 self*), the willingness to keep learning Japanese despite what other people say (*anti-ought-to L2 self*) was a driving force to put more effort into studying Japanese.

Fourth, although the relationship between *Instrumentality-promotion* and the *ideal L2 self* supported the L2MSS, the relationships between the *ought-to L2 self* and *Instrumentality-promotion/prevention* were partially different from the L2MSS and the validation study by Taguchi et al. (2009). In addition, the *anti-ought-to L2 self* had a higher mean score than the *ought-to L2 self* among participants. These results suggested that the *ought-to L2 self* might not be a strong motivational factor for learning Japanese since its characteristic was different from English, which had been primarily investigated in motivation research.

Fifth, although participants were generally interested in every Japanese cultural item, interest in anime, manga, and games did not have any significant correlation with their ability to visualize their future image using Japanese and their efforts in learning Japanese, while interest in the other cultural items positively correlated with them. Even though interest in anime/manga/games significantly correlated with some of the other factors, those were weaker correlations compared with other cultural items. Moreover, anime/manga/games and "pop culture" showed different tendencies in the correlational analysis, suggesting that we must conduct further research to determine what "Japanese pop culture" contains and treat each component separately when relationships between motivation and Japanese culture are examined.

Sixth, academic reasons why participants were taking Japanese made significant mean differences in some factors; students majoring in Japanese had significantly higher *Instrumentality-promotion*, *Instrumentality-prevention*, and the *ideal L2 self*. In addition, participants' first languages showed slight mean differences indicating that paying attention to

students' first language background is important to understand their motivation even though the learning environment is the same. On the contrary, the other characteristics of participants such as gender, course levels, and length of study did not show any notable mean differences/correlations. These results indicated that rather than how long/in which course students study, why/for what they are learning Japanese make the most significant differences in their motivation.

Seventh, males were significantly more interested in games than females, and students with shorter/lower-level learning experiences showed a stronger interest in Japanese anime, manga, and pop culture, whereas students with longer/higher-level learning experiences are less interested in these items. Descriptive statistics indicated that rather than assuming that students at higher level courses have lost their interest in anime/manga/pop culture altogether, as time passed, their interest in these cultural aspects began to vary and shifted to the other aspects of Japanese culture, and anime/manga/pop culture are not their primary interest anymore.

Pedagogical Implications

To Enhance Students' Intended Effort

According to the findings of this study, how much students think that they were supported by teachers/classmates (*Classroom support*) positively correlated with how much students enjoy Japanese classes and learning Japanese (*Attitudes towards learning Japanese*), and this sense of enjoyment positively and strongly correlated with how much effort they put into Japanese learning (*Intended effort*). In addition, *Classroom support* and *Intended effort* also had a moderate positive correlation to each other. Thus, providing a supportive learning environment in the classroom by offering help, being friendly, and having students care for each other have a significant relationship with their intended effort.

This study found that the ideal L2 self was a powerful factor which relates to students' motivated learning behavior as Dörnyei (2005, 2009), Kormos and Csizér (2008), Ueki and Takeuchi (2012), Ryan (2009), and de Silva (2016) suggested. At the same time, the study also found that there was no difference in *Intended effort* and the *ideal L2 self* among students' course levels or length of study, which implies that students with longer/higher-level learning experiences are not always able to imagine their future using Japanese or put more effort into learning Japanese compared with other students at lower course levels or with shorter length of study. These results indicate that teachers need to help students to visualize their future image with Japanese language and help them to have realistic goals to continue their studies regardless of their course level and length of study. As discussed in Chapter 2, Magid and Chan (2012) found that it is possible to enhance L2 learners' vision of their Ideal L2 self through visualization training. For detailed instructions, Dörnyei and Hadfield (2013) suggested various sample activities that provide students opportunities to create their vision, check if their vision is achievable, think how to make it possible, and maintain their vision alive. For instance, some activities ask students just to close their eyes and think about their future image or let them read/listen to someone else's stories about L2 selves, and other activities ask them to complete worksheets or have discussions with classmates. It is possible to include activities that focus on L2 selves to practice some language forms (e.g., present/past tense and expressions for telling wishes, predictions, opinions, advice, and suggestions) in lesson plans for lower levels. For example, students can create sentences that describe what they "want to do" or "will be able to do" with the Japanese language in the future, and compare them with their partner. If their class level is more advanced, students can talk about what they "recommend to do" for their partner to achieve these goals. Students in higher levels can participate in more in-depth conversation or discussion with their partners about how they want to be using Japanese, how it can be achievable, and how they are actually doing right now. It

might even be possible for lower level students to give a chance to discuss their L2 selves in English for one or two times.

How to Use Anime, Manga in Japanese Classrooms

This study basically supported the idea that Nemoto (2011) suggested; Japanese pop culture might not be the reason to keep going, although, in this study, anime/manga/games and pop culture sometimes had different outcomes in analyses. This study suggested that even though most of the beginning-level learners are strongly interested in Japanese pop culture, anime, and manga, as time passes, their interest in these cultural aspects begins to vary and for some learners, interest in pop cultures/anime/manga ceases to be their primary reason to study Japanese. Furthermore, this study also indicated that interest in anime and manga did not have correlations with *Intended effort* and the *ideal L2 self*.

Nevertheless, this does not mean that using anime and manga in the classroom is useless. Indeed, many researchers study about anime and manga as teaching materials. For example, Kumano and Hirokaga (2008) conducted general research on the use of anime/manga for Japanese classes and reported that anime and manga are mainly used for learning Japanese expressions such as honorific expressions and onomatopoeia, cultures, reading skills, unique expressions for anime/manga, and so on. In addition, Williams (2006) interviewed ten university students (seven from the first semester Japanese and three from the third semester) and indicated that anime and other popular culture texts as authentic materials had a positive impact on students (e.g., feelings of competence, self-efficacy, motivation, cultural understanding). Furthermore, Ishikura (2013) taught a manga-integrated Japanese course with 15 students in Japanese level IV at the study site and reported that 13 students found the activities that used manga helpful for their Japanese

learning. She also reported that 12 students responded that reading manga in the class raised their motivation to learn Japanese.

Taking these into consideration, the results in this study suggest that teachers need to consider at which stages their students are, and on the basis of that, decide how much anime and manga to incorporate into their lessons. It would be nonsensical to try to use anime and manga just because they are popular among students. Using anime and manga as authentic materials or visual aids might add variation to classroom activities, get attention from students, and excite them, especially the beginner's level students. However, the results of this study imply that teachers should also actively introduce other Japanese cultural aspects in the classroom and help students expand their interest to keep them motivated.

Limitations of the Present Study and Future Directions

There are three limitations to the present study that need to be considered for a future study.

Question Items

First, although question items were revised carefully, there were several questions that needed to be asked differently or should be added. For example, letting participants leave six-point Likert scale questions unanswered resulted in lowering the sample size. In addition, as we found out that “Japanese pop culture” is not equal to “anime/manga/games,” separate questions can be developed for each pop culture item to examine its relationship with student motivation. Furthermore, there should have been background questions asking useful information such as their experience in visiting Japan or their plan to continue studying Japanese after the semester ended.

Sample Size

Second, although the number of potential participants was four hundred, only one-fourth of them responded to the survey. Moreover, the number of students taking the 400 level class and that of Chinese-speaking learners were too small considering the actual population ratios. Considering that the estimated time to complete the survey was 15 minutes and 23 students stopped responding in the middle, the length of the survey might have discouraged potential subjects from participating in the survey. In addition, since this survey was not mandatory and did not offer any reward, it is possible that students who responded to the survey were already motivated to some extent compared with students who did not participate in it.

Need for Longitudinal and Qualitative Study

Third, since motivation is not static and can change in a short period of time, longitudinal studies are necessary to examine the process of participants' motivational transition. Also, to explore students' learning history or process of their thoughts more closely and focus more on individual differences, qualitative studies are needed.

REFERENCES

The Association of Japanese Animation. (2018). *Anime sangyō report 2018*. Tokyo, Japan: Masuda, H., Sudo, N., Rikukawa, K., Mori, Y., Ito, N., Kameyama, Y., & Haraguchi, M.

Barsoukova, A. (2006). Motivation of Russian university students toward learning Japanese. *Journal of the International Exchange Support Center*, *2*, 155-151.

Cai, A. L. and Cai, A. F. (2010). A study on Japanese learning motivation of university students in Taiwan. *Tokumei Gakuho*, *34*(2), 37-48.

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, *41*, 469–512.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (Eds.). (2002). *Handbook of self-determination*. Rochester: University of Rochester Press.

De Silva, U. I. (2016). *Sri Lanka jin daigakusei no nihongo gakushu douki* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Hitotsubashi University, Japan.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 9-42). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The Psychology of the Language Learner Revisited*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z., & Al-Hoorie, A. (2017). The motivational foundation of learning languages other tan global English: Theoretical issues and research directions. *The Modern Language Journal*, *101*(3), 455-468.

Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K. and Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, Language Attitudes, and Globalisation: A Hungarian Perspective*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., & Hadfield, J. (2013). *Motivating learning*. London: Taylor and Francis

Dörnyei, Z., & Ottó, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, (*Thames Valley University, London*), *4*, 43-69.

Dörnyei, Z., and E. Ushioda. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*, 2nd ed. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Fujimori, H., Yamashita, T., & Fujimura, T. (2009). Internet shiyō ga gakushū belief ni ataeru eikyō -Egypt·Morocco no chōsakekka o motoni-. *The Society for Teaching Japanese a Foreign Language Shunki Taikai: Yokōshū*. 231-236.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Henry, A. (2017). L2 motivation and multilingual identities. *Modern Language Journal*, *101*, 548-565.

Ishikura, N. (2013). *The impact of Japanese popular culture and motivation on language learning: Exploring the use of manga for teaching Japanese culture and reading* (Unpublished master thesis). Purdue University, IN.

The Japan Foundation. (1975). Kaigai nihongo kyōiku kikan ichiran [PDF file]. Retrieved https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/1975gaiyou.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (1981). Kaigai nihongo kyōiku kikan ichiran [PDF file]. Retrieved https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/1981gaiyou.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (1987). Kaigai nihongo kyōiku kikan ichiran [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/1987gaiyou.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (1990). Kaigai no nihongo kyōiku no genjō [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/1990gaiyou.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (1995). Survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 1995 [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/1993gaiyou.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (1998). Survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 1998 [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/e_gaiyou.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (2003). Survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 2003 [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/e/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/2003_summary.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (2006). Survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 2006 [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/e/project/japanese/survey/result/img/2006all.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (2009). Survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 2009 [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/survey_2009/gaiyo2009.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (2012). Survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 2012 [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/survey_2012/2012_s_excerpt_e.pdf

The Japan Foundation. (2015). Survey report on Japanese-language education abroad 2015 [PDF file]. Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/survey_2015/Report_all_e.pdf.

The Japan Foundation. (2017). Nihongo kyōiku kuni·chīki betsu jōhō the United States (2017). Retrieved from https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/area/country/2017/usa.html

Jorden, E. H., & Lambert, R. D. (1991). *Japanese language instruction in the United States: Resources, practice, and investment Strategy*. *National Foreign Language Center Monograph Series*. Washington, DC: Johns Hopkins University National Foreign Language Center.

Kaku, S., & Okita, Y. (2001). Singapore Kajin Daigakusei no nihongogakushū dōkizuke nitsuite. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching, 110*, 130-139.

Kaku, S., & Zen, K. (2006). Motivation of Chinese university students towards leaning Japanese. *Nigata Daigaku Kokusai Center Kiyō*, *2*, 118-128.

Kobayashi, A. (2008). Relation between willingness to communicate in Japanese and learning motive. H*iroshimadaigakuin Kyouikukenkyūka Kiyō*, *57*, 245-253

Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language:Aattitudes, selves, and motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, *58*(2), 327-355.

Kumano, N. (2010). Nihongo gakushūsha to anime·manga: Kikitori chōsakekka kara mieru genjō to nīzu. *Hiroshima University Ryūgakusei Center Kiyō*, *2*, 89-103.

Kumano, N., & Hirokaga, M. (2008). [Anime·manga] chōsakenkyū -tiiki jijō to nihongo kyōzai-. *The Japan Foundation Nihongo Kyōiku Kiyō*, *4*, 55-69.

Kurahachi, J. (1992). Nihongo gakushūsha no dōki ni kansuru chōsa -dōki to bunkatekihaikei no kanren-. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, *77*, 129-141.

Liu, Y., & Thompson, A. S. (2018). Language learning motivation in China: An exploration of the L2MSS and psychological reactance. *System*, *72*, 37-48.

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., & Sparling, H. (2017). Heritage passions, heritage convictions and the rooted L2 self: Music and Gaelic language learning in Cape Breton, Nova Scotia. *Modern Language Journal, 101*, 501-516.

MacIntyre, P., Mackinnon, S. and Clément, R. (2009). Toward the development of a scale to assess possible selves as a source of language learning motivation. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self*, (pp. 193-214). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Magid, M., & Chan, L. (2012). Motivating English learners by helping them visualise their Ideal L2 Self: Lessons from two motivational programmes. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *6*(2), 113-125.

Mao, H., & Fukuda, M. (2010). A comparison on learning motivation between major Japanese learners in China and major Chinese learners in Japan. *Language and Culture*, *23*, 209-232.

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). *Possible selves. American psychologist*, *41*, 954-969.

Mori, M. (2006). Mongol jin nihongo gakushu-sha no nihongogakushudouki ni kansuru bunseki. *Gobun to kyoiku*, *20*, 105-115.

Nakamura, T. (2015). Motivations for learning Japanese and additional languages: A study of L2 self-image across multiple languages. *New Voices in Japanese Studies*, *7*(1), 39-58.

Napier, S. J. (2001). *Anime: From akira to princess mononoke: Experiencing contemporary Japanese animation*. New York: Palgrave.

Narita, T. (1998). The relations between motivations and examination scores: The case of university students in Thailand. *Japanese Language Education Around the Globe*, *8*, 1-11.

Nemoto, A. (2011). Qatar ni okeru Nihongogakushūdōki ni kansuru ichikōsatsu: LTI nihongokōza shūryōsha eno interview chōsa kara. *Hitotsubashi University Global and International Center Kiyō*, *2*, 85-96.

Noels, K. A. (2003). Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication style. In Z. Dörnyei (Ed.), *Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning* (pp. 97–136). Oxford: Blackwell.

Onishi, Y. (2010). Motivation among university students learning Japanese in Ukraine. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, *147*, 82-96.

Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework, *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(1), 12-28.

Papi, M. (2010). The L2 motivational self system, L2 anxiety, and motivated behavior: A structural equation modeling approach. *System*, *38*(3), 467-479.

Purdue University Office of the Register. (2019). *Detailed and summary course enrollment projections by college* [Data file]. Retrieved from https://www.purdue.edu/registrar/documents/reports/Crse_Enrl_Project/Fall_2019_Detailed_and_Summary_Course_Enrollment_Projections_by_College.xlsx

Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self*, (pp.120-143). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Saibe, Y., Kano, F., Ito, K. (1995). Daigakusei no nihongo gakushūdōki ni kansuru kokusaichōsa -New Zealand no bāi-. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, *86*, 162-172.

Sakeda, M., & Kurata, N. (2016). Motivation and L2 selves: A study of learners of Japanese at an Australian university. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *13*(1), 49-67.

Shimoura, S. (2018). Gaikokugo gakushū motivation to nihongo gakushūsha. Unpublished manuscript.

Sugimoto, A., & Kurosawa, M. (2000). Zainichiryūgakusei no nihongoshūtoku (1): Nihongogakushūdōki to nihongonōryoku. *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Japanese Association of Educational Psychology*, *42*, 73.

Taguchi, T., Magid, M. and Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self system among Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self*, (pp. 66-97). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Takagishi, M. (2000). Ryūgaku keiken ga nihongogakushūdōki ni oyobosu eikyō -beikokujin tankiryūgakusei no bāi-. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, *105*, 101-110.

Takeguchi, T., Aso, M., & Bushimakina, A. (2017). Russia gokutō chīki niokeru nihongogakushūdōkizuke kenkyū: Shinrishakaitekizikodouitsusei tono kanren kara. *Kaigai Nihongo Kyōiku Kenkyū*, *5*, 18-35.

Thompson, A. S. (2017). Language learning motivation in the United States: An examination of language choice and multilingualism. *The Modern Language Journal*, *101*(3), 483-500.

Thompson, A. S., & Vásquez, C. (2015). Exploring motivational pro les through language learning narratives. *The Modern Language Journal*, *99*, 158-174.

Tomiyoshi, Y. (2015). Nihongogakushūsha no gakushūiyoku ni eikyō o ataeru youin wa donoyōni sayō suruka- Thai chūbu P daigaku no shusenkōsha o torimaku bunmyaku to L2 self kara-. *Language Education*, *6*, 9-27.

Ueki, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2012). Validating the L2 motivational self system in a Japanese EFL context: The interplay of L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, self-efficacy, and the perceived amount of information. *Language Education & Technology*, *49*, 1-22.

Ushioda, E. (1996). Developing a dynamic concept of motivation. In T. J. Hickey (Ed.), *Language, education and society in a changing world* (pp. 239–245). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (1998). Effective motivational thinking: A cognitive theoretical approach to the study of language learning motivation. In E. A. Soler & V. C. Espurz (Eds.), *Current issues in English language methodology* (pp. 77- 89). Castelló de la Plana, Spain: Universitat Jaume.

Ushioda, E. (2001). Language learning at university: Exploring the role of motivational thinking. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 91-124). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Ushioda, E., & Dörnyei, Z. (2017). Beyond global English: Motivation to learn languages in a multicultural world: Introduction to the special issue. *The Modern Language Journal*, *101*(3), 451-454.

Utsuki, T. (2011). Nihongo nōryoku to nihongogakushūdōkizuke no kankei -Thai jin daigakusei o taishō nishite-. *The Japan Foundation Bangkok Nihon Bunka Center Nihongo Kyōiku Kiyō*, *8,* 65-75.

Wang, W. (2005). Daigakuhisenkousei nihongogakushūdōkizuke to dōkikyōdo nitsuiteno kenkyū. *Nihongo no gakushu to kenkyu*, *3*, 38-42.

Watanabe, S., & Fuse, N. (2008). Beikoku no daigaku ni okeru nihongo gakushū no douki chōsa: Anime/manga no eikyō. *International Conference on Japanese Language Education 2008 Proceedings*, 426-429.

Watanabe, T., & Higurashi, Y. (2012). Understanding university Japanese learners in the United States: A questionnaire survey conducted at San Diego State University. *Gunma University International Education · Research Center Ronshū*, *11*, 29-43.

Weiner, B. (1992). *Human motivation: Metaphors, theories and research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Williams, K. L. (2006). *The impact of popular culture fandom on perceptions of Japanese language and culture learning: The case of student anime fans* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Texas at Austin, TX.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Xia, S. (2010). The image of the Japanese among Chinese learners of the Japanese language: with a focus on its connections with the Japanese learning motivation. *Japanese language education*, *39*, 112-121.

Yamada, A. (2009). Pop culture gaikō no jissen to riron - otaku gaikōkan to yobarete. *Gaiko Forum*, 22(6), 66-71.

Yang, M. (2011). Motivation and perseverance strategies of Japanese language study students in Taiwan : Japanese language major vs. non-major students. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, *150*, 116-130.

You, C., Dörnyei, Z. and Csizér, K. (2016). Motivation, vision, and gender: A survey of learners of English in China. *Language Learning*, *66*(1), 94-123.

Zhang, L. (2017). Uchi Mongol jichiku ni okeru nihogno senkou gakushūsha no dōkizuke ni kansuru chōsa: Gakunen ni yoru chigai o chūshin ni. *Osaka Daigaku Gengo Bunka Kiyō*, *26*, 85-99.

APPENDIX SURVEY ON MOTIVATION IN LEARNING JAPANESE

PART I

For this part, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by simply giving a number from 1 to 6. Please do not leave out any of the items.

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Slightly disagree
4. Slightly agree
5. Agree
6. Strongly agree

(Ex.) If you strongly agree with the following statement, mark 6.
I like skiing very much.

Classroom Support

1. My teachers care about my learning.
2. My teachers are friendly.
3. When there is something I don't understand, my teachers explain Japanese well for me.
4. My teachers provide good help and guidance when I have problems with Japanese.
5. My classmates are friendly.
6. Other students in this class like me as much as they like the others.
7. In this class, students are willing to help each other learn Japanese. (Please leave it blank if you think the question is not applicable to your situation.)

Instrumentality-Promotion

8. Studying Japanese is important to me because Japanese is useful for my future career.

9. Studying Japanese is important for me because I'll need it for future studies in my major.
10. Studying Japanese is important to me because I would like to spend a substantial amount of time living in Japan (e.g., studying and working).
11. Studying Japanese is important to me in order to achieve a special goal (e.g., to get a degree or scholarship).
12. Studying Japanese is important to me in order to attain a higher social status.

Instrumentality-Prevention

13. I have to learn Japanese because if I don't pass the Japanese course I cannot get my degree.
14. I have to learn Japanese because I don't want to fail the Japanese course.
15. I have to learn Japanese because I don't want bad grades on my transcript.
16. Continuing to study Japanese is important to me.
17. I have to study Japanese; otherwise, I might not be successful in my future career.

Cultural Interest

18. I like/am interested in Japanese pop culture.
19. I like/am interested in Japanese traditional cultures. (e.g., Sado, Kabuki, Jūdō, etc.)
20. I like/am interested Japanese music (e.g., pop music).
21. I like/am interested Japanese films.
22. I like/am interested Japanese anime.
23. I like/am interested Japanese magazines, newspapers, or books.
24. I like/am interested Japanese manga (comic books).
25. I like/am interested Japanese video games.
26. I like/am interested Japanese food.
27. I like/am interested Japanese history.

28. I like/am interested Japanese TV programs (non-animated).

Attitudes Towards Learning Japanese

29. I like the atmosphere of my Japanese class.
30. I always look forward to Japanese classes.
31. I find learning Japanese really interesting.
32. Time passes fast while studying Japanese.
33. I would like to have more Japanese lessons at the university.

Interest in Learning Japanese

34. I feel excited when hearing someone speaking Japanese.
35. I am fascinated by the Japanese writing system.
36. I find the difference between my native language and Japanese interesting.
37. I like how Japanese sounds.

Attitudes Towards Japanese Community

38. I would like to travel to Japan.
39. I like Japanese people.
40. I like meeting people from Japan.
41. I would like to know more about Japanese people.

Intended Effort

42. I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning Japanese.
43. I would like to spend lots of time studying Japanese.
44. Even if I had difficulty with my Japanese learning, I would still work hard to overcome it.

45. I think that I am doing my best to learn Japanese. I have a very strong desire to learn Japanese.
46. Learning Japanese is one of the most important aspects of my life.
47. If I had the opportunity to speak Japanese outside of the university, I would do it as much as possible.

Ideal L2 Self

48. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in Japanese.
49. I can imagine a situation where I am doing business with Japanese people in Japanese.
50. I can imagine myself living in Japan and using Japanese effectively for communicating with the local people.
51. I can imagine myself speaking Japanese in the future with Japanese friends at parties.
52. I can imagine myself in the future successfully giving a speech in Japanese to the public.
53. I can imagine myself in the future having discussion with Japanese friends in Japanese.

Ought-to L2 Self

54. It is important to me to study Japanese and gain the approval of my teacher.
55. Studying Japanese is important to me in order to gain the approval of society.
56. I study Japanese because close friends of mine think it is important.
57. I consider learning Japanese important because the people I respect think that it is important.
58. My parents/family believe that I must study Japanese to be an educated person.
59. If I fail to learn Japanese, I will let down people around me.

Anti Ought-to L2 self

60. I want to study Japanese, even if others tell me to give up or to do something else with my time.
61. I chose to learn Japanese even if others encourage me to study something different (another language or a different subject entirely).
62. I would like to reach a high proficiency in Japanese, even if others tell me that it will be difficult or impossible.
63. I want to speak Japanese because it is not something that most people can do.
64. I am studying Japanese because it is something different or unique.

PART II

Please provide the following information.

1. How long/where have you been studying Japanese? (Please answer everything applicable.)

   High schools ____ years

   This university ____ years

   Self-studying ____ years

   Other institutions outside of Japan _____ years

   Other institutions in Japan _____ years

2. Which Japanese language class are you taking currently? If you are not taking one this semester, which is the last Japanese language class you took?

   □JPNS101 □JPNS102 □JPNS201 □JPNS202

   □JPNS301 □JPNS302 □JPNS401 □JPNS 402

3. What is your goal of your study?

   Japanese classes at the study site:

   □JPNS102 □JPNS201 □JPNS202 □JPNS301 □JPNS302 □JPNS401 □JPNS402

JLPT (Japanese Language Proficiency Test):

□N5 □N4 □N3 □N2 □N1 □I don't know what it is.

In general:

□Beginner □Intermediate □High □Near-native □Native

4. Why are you taking Japanese?

□For my major □For my minor

□General education requirement □For fun/personal interest

5. What is your No.1 reason for choosing Japanese?
6. Did you study abroad in Japan? If so, where and how long?
7. How old are you?
8. What is your gender?

□ male □female □other

9. What is your major?
10. What is your minor?
11. What is your race? (e.g. Chinese, American, Korean, Chinese-American etc.)
12. What is your native tongue? For those answered "others," what is your native tongue?

□English □Bahasa Indonesia □Arabic □German □Mandarin □Malay

□Spanish □Russian □Cantonese □Vietnamese □French □Portuguese

□Korean □Thai □Italian □Others _____

13. Have you ever studied languages other than Japanese? If so, which language/where/how long did you study?

Which language _____

Where (ex. High school, this university, self-studying, etc.) _____

How long _____