



Language Learning Motivation of EFL Learners in Japan—A Cross-Sectional Analysis of Various Learning Milieus

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This study explores the types of language learning motivation possessed by Japanese EFL learners from diverse learning milieus. Research on L2 motivation has long been conducted within the paradigm of social psychology. However, the revival of interest in L2 motivation in the 1990s shows a clear shift to an educational focus in which L2 learners' cognitive, affective characteristics, and classroom considerations have become major areas of concern. Following this trend, the present study employed a 50-item motivational questionnaire based on several motivational components from educational and social psychology. The questionnaire was administered to 1,027 participants from various learning contexts. Exploratory factor analysis confirmed six motivational factors and the follow-up multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that some factors are characteristic of certain language learning milieus, while others are common to all situations. The results are discussed in terms of the motivational characteristics of EFL learners in Japan.



Insert Japanese abstract here



Most language teachers believe that motivation is a key factor for success in language learning. During the last 40 years researchers in various fields have attempted to explore the construct of language learning motivation from many different perspectives. In spite of the number of studies, however, there has been little discussion about what language learning motivation actually *is*. Dörnyei (1996) notes:

Motivation theories in general seek to explain no less than the fundamental question why humans behave as they do, and therefore it would be naive to assume any simple straightforward answer; indeed, every different psychological perspective on human behavior is associated with a different theory of motivation and, thus, in general psychology it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuses the scene (p.72).

Since L2 motivation is a multifaceted construct (Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 1998), it is inappropriate for us to seek one theory to explain all aspects of motivation. The term “motivation” is a broad concept that cannot easily be defined. Furthermore researchers often discuss the concept of motivation, whether it is affective, cognitive, behavioral or otherwise, without specifying what kind of motivation they are investigating (Dörnyei, 1998). Thus it is difficult to compare research results across different backgrounds and perspectives.

However it is also true that different theories enable us to look at different aspects of motivation. Therefore when conducting research and analyzing the data, the particular aspect of motivation addressed needs to be clearly specified. Dörnyei warns that “in the analysis of motivational research, researchers need to be explicit about which aspects of motivation they are focusing on and how those are related to other, uncovered dimensions of the motivational complex” (1999, p. 527).

Language Learning Motivation Research

Gardner and Lambert’s early study (1959) indicated that second language achievement is related not only to language aptitude but also to motivation. Their research subjects were English-speaking students in the predominantly French-speaking city of Montreal, Canada. In a subsequent study Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that language learning motivation can be divided into two types; *integrative motivation*, defined as the desire to integrate oneself with the target culture,

and **instrumental motivation**, defined as the desire to learn a language for a specific purpose, such as employment. The importance of integrative motivation in second/foreign language learning has received worldwide attention and has become a primary focus of research (Gardner, 1988; Giles & Byrne, 1982; Schumann, 1978, 1986). However many researchers have tried to analyze language learning motivation without considering the different social contexts in which it occurs. For example some researchers have found instrumental motivation to be a major factor in research conducted in the social contexts of the Philippines, India, and Japan (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Chihara & Oller, 1978).

Towards the end of the 1980s and into the early 1990s the research focus turned to the differences between ESL learners (those living within the target language culture) and EFL learners (those studying the target language within their own culture) (Au, 1988; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990). For example Dörnyei (1990) suggested that in EFL contexts, where learners have not had sufficient experience of the target language community, motivational factors such as instrumental motivation should receive special attention. Oxford (1996) also considered that EFL environments differ from the ESL situation and recommended that instrumental motivation be a main focus for research in EFL contexts.

Throughout the 1990s research on language learning motivation incorporated concepts from psychology and organizational research, fields with substantial bodies of motivation research. Deci and Ryan (1985) classified motivation into **intrinsic motivation**, the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of internally rewarding consequences such as feelings of competence and self-determination, and **extrinsic motivation**, the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of a reward from outside of and beyond the self. However, Hayamizu (1997) argued that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not bipolar and antagonistic, but rather are located on a continuum of motivation types. Williams and Burden (1997) also claimed that motivation results from a combination of different influences. Some are internal, coming from the learner, such as an interest in the activity or a wish to succeed, while others are external, such as the influence of other people. Supporting the perception of motivation as a multifaceted complex of factors, Brown (1994) proposed a two-by-two matrix representing the combination of the intrinsic-extrinsic dimension with the conventional integrative-instrumental dimension. It is difficult, however, to divide language learning motivation into two distinct types such as integrative-instrumental motivation or intrinsic-extrinsic motivation. Inevita-

bly there will be some areas where these four types overlap. In addition to the intrinsic-extrinsic paradigm, other important motivation theories from the field of learner cognition are now being considered—what Dörnyei has termed the **Learner Level Component** of motivation (Dörnyei, 1994). These include **goal-setting theory**, **attribution theory**, and **self-efficacy theory**. **Goal-setting theory** argues that performance is closely related to a person's accepted goals (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). **Attribution theory** claims that the way people explain their own past successes and failures will significantly affect their future achievement behavior (Weiner, 1985). **Self-efficacy theory** suggests that people's judgement of their capabilities to carry out specific tasks will affect their choice of the activities attempted (Dörnyei, 1998).

Besides these theories from educational psychology, there is also a large body of research on anxiety in language learning (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991, 1994; Tsui, 1996). Anxiety is an extremely crucial cognitive factor for all types of learners and "a most studied motivational aptitude" (Snow & Swanson, 1992, p.600). Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994), for example, found that anxiety or self-confidence is one of the major contributing factors determining attitude and motivation towards learning a second language.

Research on second/foreign language learning motivation in the 1990s also concentrated on seeking explanations for outcomes of specific language tasks and behaviors rather than pursuing general tendencies in social contexts. In this regard, what Dörnyei proposes as the **learning specific level component**, including **course-specific**, **teacher-specific** and **group-specific motivational components** (Dörnyei, 1994), should be a subject for extensive research.

Motivation Studies in Japan

Language learning motivation did not become a major research concern in Japan until quite recently. This may be because learner variables in general have not been a focus in foreign language teaching. In Japan the most popular teaching methods have been teacher-centered rather than learner-centered and classes are usually quite large—40 to 50 students per class in most high schools and many universities. Thus the motivation of individual learners has received little attention. Furthermore, although there are some recent studies on language learning motivation in Japan (e.g., Konishi, 1990; Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996; Miyahara, Namoto, Yamanaka, Murakami, Kinoshita & Yamamoto, 1997; Sawaki, 1997; Takanashi, 1990, 1991; Yashima, 2000),

much of this research has used Gardner's approach for investigating motivation in the ESL context and has also regarded Gardner's findings to be applicable to the Japanese EFL situation. However, since Gardner's theory of motivation addresses the social context, not the individual learner, it is suggested that his theory alone cannot explain what motivates language learners in Japan. More attention must be paid to the educational setting when investigating EFL learning motivation.

To this end, other motivational studies have been conducted using different methodological approaches. For example, in their longitudinal study of attitudes and motivation in English learning among Japanese seventh-grade students, Koizumi and Matsuo (1993) administered the same motivational questionnaire four times and found a decrease in motivation after the initial stage of the learning process. Ogane and Sakamoto (1999) investigated the relationships among EFL motivation and proficiency factors using a structural equation modeling approach. In our pilot study (Kimura, 1999), 390 Japanese university EFL students responded to a 50-item questionnaire on motivation consisting of items not only based on the integrative-instrumental and intrinsic-extrinsic paradigms, but also on other domains such as anxiety, attribution, and teacher-specific and activity-specific motivation. The present questionnaire-based study continues in this direction and is intended to stimulate motivational research focused on educational aspects in Japan.

Research Questions

Dörnyei and his colleagues (Dörnyei, 1990; Clément et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 1996) have suggested that there are other aspects of motivation in addition to the ones in Gardner's theory. However, it would be inappropriate to consider that their research results can be fully applied to the Japanese EFL context since little research has been conducted to identify the various motivational components characterizing different learning contexts in Japan. Thus the present study investigates motivational components among Japanese learners of English from differing learning environments, including junior high school, high school, junior college and university classes. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What are some components of EFL motivation possessed by a sample of Japanese EFL learners?
2. Are the components of EFL motivation different for various Japanese learning situations such as junior high school, high school, junior college and university?
3. What motivational differences exist among gender and grade levels in different Japanese EFL learning situations?

Methods

Participants

The participants in this study were 1,027 Japanese EFL students from 12 different learning contexts. Twelve percent were junior high school students, 45% were senior high school students, 39% were junior college (130) and university students (397), and the remaining 4% were students at a private English language school. Although they ranged in age from 14 to 35, 64% were 14 to 18 years old and 30% were 19 to 22. The male/female ratio was almost even; 43% were male and 57% were female. The participants at the tertiary level were fairly evenly distributed across six majors, that is, junior college English majors, social science majors, science majors, foreign language majors, engineering majors, and English language education majors. The participants comprised a convenience sample since they had been asked to voluntarily fill out the questionnaire by their teachers, who were known by the researchers and who kindly cooperated in the research.

Materials

The questionnaire used in the present study is a partially revised version of the Japanese-language instrument used for the pilot study (Kimura, 1999). It consisted of 50 items arranged in a 6 point-Likert-scale format, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The question items were based on the components of motivation suggested by Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996). However, some items were either modified or newly added based on Clément et al. (1994), Dörnyei (1990), Miyahara et al. (1997), and Tremblay and Gardner (1995) so that the wordings could more precisely describe the EFL contexts in Japan. The following motivational components were addressed: five items about ***Intrinsic Motivation***, six about ***Extrinsic Motivation***, seven about ***Instrumental Motivation***, five about ***Situation Specific Motivation***, four about ***Teacher Specific Motivation***, ten about ***Activity Specific Motivation***, five about ***Attitudes towards Anglophonic Culture and Integrative Motivation***, and eight about ***Attribution Theory*** (see Table 1 below).

Procedure and Statistical Analyses

The questionnaire was administered in Japanese between January and March, 1999 under the supervision of the participants' English teachers. On completion of the data collection, descriptive statistics were computed for all questionnaire items to eliminate skewed items with

ceiling and floor effects. The data was then analyzed in two phases. First, a factor analysis was performed to summarize the underlying characteristics of language learning motivation of this population. This was followed by multivariate analyses of variances (MANOVA) using the factor scores for each motivational factor to investigate the relationship between language learning motivation and learner factors such as gender, academic major, and the institutional grade. Table 1 gives the descriptive statistics for the 50 items.

Insert Table 1 about here

Examination of the mean and standard deviations for the 50 items revealed that four items were left-skewed and two items were right-skewed. The left-skewed items, or the items to which the participants responded extremely negatively, include Items 6 (*The reason for studying English is to make parents or teachers happy*), 25 (*The appearance of teachers such as blue eyes or fair hair motivates one's English language learning.*), 34 (*Pair or group activities are a waste of time.*) and 48 (*One's dislike of English can be attributed to the existence of repulsive teachers.*). The right-skewed items were Items 36 (*I want English class to be enjoyable by incorporating activities such as watching movies and singing songs*) and 45 (*Poor results can be attributed to poor devotion to study.*). The participants responded to these items to an extremely positive degree. Therefore, the six skewed items were excluded from further analysis. Statistical analyses were conducted using *SPSS10.07* (1999). Cronbach's alpha statistics were computed for the 44 remaining questionnaire items and a reliability of .865 was obtained.

Results

Some Components of Motivation in the Japanese EFL Context

Using the Principal Factors procedure and Varimax Rotation, six factors were extracted. Table 2 presents the factor matrix with an item loading greater than .40 as a criterion of salience. These factors accounted for 50.42% of the variance in the 44 items.

Factor 1 received appreciable loadings from 13 items, the largest component of language learning motivation for this sample. As shown in Table 2, the variables for this factor were quite varied. Four items

(39, 40, 38, 41) relate to integrative motivation, while others (15, 13, 12, 14) concern instrumental motivation. Still others (5, 4, 3) relate to intrinsic motivation. Thus this factor is called ***Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive***.

Factor 2 received loadings from six items (9, 17, 8, 18, 7, 37). Items 9, 8 and 7 are concerned with extrinsic motivation, while Items 17 and 18 are typical of instrumental motivation. Therefore, this factor can be labeled ***Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive***.

Insert Table 2 about here

Factor 3 received loadings from two items (50, 49), both of which relate to positive aspects of teachers. Therefore this factor can be termed ***Influence of Good Teachers***.

The four items of Factor 4 all relate to anxiety in language learning. Using the terminology of Horwitz et al. (1986), Items 20 and 19 are called ***Communication Apprehension***, Item 21 is interpreted as ***Fear of Negative Evaluation*** and Item 22 is ***Test-Anxiety***. These items connote negative anxiety, also known as debilitating anxiety, compared with the positive form of anxiety termed facilitative anxiety (Brown, 1994). Following Dörnyei (1994), this factor is therefore called ***Language Use Anxiety***.

Factor 5 is characterized by heavy loadings from three items (32, 29, 31). Though they are all related to classroom activities, Items 32 and 31 have positive loading values, indicating a preference for teacher-centered lectures, whereas Item 29 has a negative value, implying an unwillingness to participate in pair or group activities. Therefore, this factor can be called ***Preference for Teacher-Centered Lectures***.

Factor 6 obtains appreciable loadings from two items (47, 46) implying a negative inclination towards learning language due to past unpleasant experiences. Considering Weiner's (1985) Attribution Theory, Nakata (1999) suggests that learners scoring high on this factor can still maintain their self-worth and control their effort. This factor is labeled ***Negative Learning Experiences***.

Differences among the Components of Motivation in Various Japanese EFL Milieus

The six factor scores were submitted to one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) as dependent variables with participants' institutions or majors as independent variables. All multivariate *F* statistics

(i.e., Pillai's trace, Wilks' lambda, Hotelling's trace, and Roy's largest root) were significant at the .001 alpha level. Therefore, univariate analysis variance was run for the six dependent variables. The univariate *F* values of all factors except Factor 5 and Factor 6 were significant at the .001 alpha level (see Table 3).

Insert Table 3 Near Here

Post-hoc Scheffé's test revealed that there were several significant pairs among the factors from Factor 1 to Factor 4. Table 4 summarizes these results.

Insert Table 4 Near Here

The results of Table 4 are further summarized in Table 5 to reveal the relationship between each motivational factor and category. The summary identifies pairs with a relationship at the .001 significance level.

Insert Table 5 Near Here

Table 5 indicates that Factor 1 (Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive) was high among junior high school learners, junior college English majors, foreign language majors, and English language school learners. Since these subjects are either learners at the early stages of their learning experience or have clear goals for learning English, it appears that such learners tend to be motivated by a combination of intrinsic, instrumental, and integrative concerns. On the other hand, Factor 2 (Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive) was positive only among junior high students and engineering majors and is negative for senior high students, social science majors, education majors, and those studying at a language school. Engineering majors apparently tend to study English for more extrinsic and pragmatic reasons than those who feel they need English for their future careers, such as students majoring in English education and those studying at an English language school. Table 5 also indicates that learners who are familiar with English or need English for their careers (e.g., junior college English majors, university students majoring in English as a foreign language, and those

studying English at a language school) felt that their teachers have a positive influence on their learning process while those in secondary school or those majoring in science or engineering did not. Finally, learners majoring in English as a foreign language reported less anxiety in the classroom than senior high students, junior college English majors, or social science majors.

Motivational Differences According to Gender and Grade Level

In order to investigate motivational differences with regard to gender and grade level, a 2 (male and female) by 6 (grade level) two-way MANOVA was performed with the six factor scores as dependent variables. The analysis confirmed that all multivariate F statistics (i.e., Pillai's trace, Wilks' lambda, Hotelling's trace and Roy's largest root) for the two main effects of gender and grade as well as interaction effects were significant (see Table 6). Therefore, a univariate analysis of variance for gender and grade interaction was performed to see which dependent variables were significant. As is shown in Table 7, only Factor 5 (Preference for Teacher-centered Lectures) was significant at the .005 level.

Insert Table 6 Near Here

Insert Table 7 Near Here

The descriptive statistics for Factor 5 are shown in Table 8 and the results are graphically summarized in Figure 1.

Insert Table 8 Near Here

Insert Figure 1 Near Here

Examination of Figure 1, the interaction plot for Factor 5 as determined by a post-hoc contrast (Scheffé's test), revealed that the second year male high school participants significantly preferred teacher-centered lectures. This outcome is somewhat perplexing. However the sample of second year high school students used here was taken from

three different schools with somewhat different academic expectations. Two of the schools are considered to be fairly academic while the remaining one is not, which may account for this result. Further studies are necessary to clarify this point.

Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

This study has attempted to identify the characteristics of foreign language motivation possessed by a range of EFL learners in Japan. The largest factor of language learning motivation observed is complex, consisting of intrinsic, integrative and instrumental subscales. This complexity is consistent with the findings of Koizumi and Matsuo (1993) and Matsukawa and Tachibana (1996), who suggest that there are multiple factors of language learning motivation among Japanese junior high school EFL students. The complexity of the first factor accurately reflects the lack of a single motivational factor among the present subjects as well, and may be evidence of the difficulty that many teachers report in motivating Japanese EFL learners. Comparative studies on learning styles such as Reid's (1987) have indicated Japanese learners' lack of predominant learning styles in comparison to learners of other nationalities. The present findings support the implication that Japanese learners may be hard to motivate to learn foreign languages.

However, a close examination of each questionnaire item for this factor (Table 2) shows that there seem to be three fairly distinct dimensions of "integrativeness." Items 39 (*Want to make American or British friends*) and 38 (*Long for American or British culture*) can be defined as Attitudes towards Anglophonic Culture, whereas Items 40 (*To touch upon the culture of English-speaking countries*), 15 (*To make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries*), and 41 (*To communicate with people in Southeast Asia or Africa*) [negative loading] are similar to Gardner's (1985) definition of the integrative motive, also involving to some extent Graham's assimilative motivation (Graham, cited in Brown, 1994, p. 155). On the other hand, Items 12 (*Useful when traveling in many countries*) and 33 (*Activities should be to improve communication skills in English*) can be described as the "friendship orientation" or "travel orientation" described by Clément and Kruidenier (1985), since opportunities for communication in a foreign language can easily be found while traveling in foreign countries.

Further interpretation of the items in Factor 1 and 2 in relation to their original subscales of motivation in our questionnaire reveals an-

other characteristic about EFL instrumental motivation in Japan. Items 15 (*To make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries*), 13 (*To study abroad in the future*), and 12 (*Useful when traveling in many countries*) were originally clustered on the instrumental subscale. However, as suggested above, these items seem to have a more integrative connotation when taken together with the other questionnaire items in Factor 1. This is a very different characteristic from that of the items originally clustered on the same instrumental subscale but located in Factor 2, such as Item 17 (*To find an exciting job*) or 18 (*To have a financial benefit*), which have stronger pragmatic connotations. The fact that items originally clustered in the same category as instrumental motivation exist in separate factors with slightly different connotation—the ones in Factor 1 being more integratively oriented and the ones in Factor 2 being more instrumental in a pragmatic sense—implies that the instrumental motivation found in the present study has multifaceted aspects. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) describe two distinct kinds of instrumental motivation as follows:

To the extent that an instrumental motive is tied to a specific goal, however, its influence would tend to be maintained only until that goal is achieved . . . On the other hand, if the goal is continuous, it seems possible that an instrumental motivation would also continue to be effective (pp. 70-71).

In the present study, however, the subscale items for instrumental motivation located in Factor 1 (Items 15, 13, and 12) might apply to cases related to continuous goals. Making foreign friends or going abroad for study or sightseeing purposes often requires learners to set long-term goals. On the other hand, the more pragmatic subscale items located in Factor 2 (Items 17 and 18) might be tied to a specific goal because finding an exciting job or receiving financial benefits relate more to short-term goals.

The existence of Factor 3 (Influence of Good Teachers) suggests that learners may attribute their success in learning a foreign language to their teachers. This result may seem to contradict Factor 5 which represents bad learning experiences caused by teachers or their teaching. However, this apparent contradiction can be interpreted as the opposite sides of the same coin. Teachers in a non-ESL setting such as Japan may have a greater influence on their learners in both positive and negative ways than ESL teachers. Unlike the ESL context, where learners are exposed to the target language outside of class, teachers in the Japanese EFL context tend to be the main provider of English

due to the absence of a target language community.

Another finding, Factor 4 (Language Use Anxiety), is also worthy of mention. Anxiety is usually considered to influence the language learning process. For example, Tsui's (1996) qualitative data analyses of reticence in Hong Kong EFL classes illustrate how language learning anxiety among Chinese students hinders their classroom interactions. According to Tsui, students did not take the initiative or answer questions until they were asked by the teacher to do so. Although the students knew the answers they felt anxious and did not want "to give their peers the impression that they are showing off" (Tsui, 1996, p. 158). It would be beneficial for teachers in the similar Japanese EFL setting to adopt the classroom strategies specified by Tsui (1996) such as "improving questioning technique," "accepting a variety of answers," and "peer support and group work or focus on content" (Tsui, 1996, pp. 161-163). It is also crucial for EFL teachers to create a comfortable classroom environment and to establish good relationships with their students, and thereby minimize negative anxiety.

Factor 5 (Preference for Teacher-centered Lectures) and Factor 6 (Negative Learning Experiences) were both shown to be motivational factors for EFL learners in Japan. Both of these factors as well as Factor 3 (Language Use Anxiety) are negative aspects in learning foreign languages. For example, those who have had negative experiences due to poor teachers or teaching may have high negative anxiety. Such learners may be inactive in class and may have lost interest in learning the foreign language. As a result, they may prefer passive or teacher-led language classes. Providing these learners with extracurricular opportunities may be one way to assist them to overcome their anxiety and negative feelings. For example, class journals for students or an e-mail bulletin board on the teacher's website can expand the chances of communication between teachers and learners.

A second purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors present within different learning contexts. The major finding here is that those learners who need English skills for their present or future careers tend to be motivated intrinsically and integratively as well as instrumentally. One interesting phenomenon (Table 5) is that different motivational patterns can be observed for junior and senior high school learners. Both Factor 1 (Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive) and Factor 2 (Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive) are high among junior high school 3rd year learners yet both were low among senior high school learners. This result suggests that junior high school learners are highly motivated compared to senior high school learners. However, in this sample, all of the 3rd year junior high school students at-

tended a school attached to a national university of education and so have been screened by strict entrance examinations. Under such circumstances, it is not surprising that the present junior high school students showed high motivation scores. This finding must be confirmed by studies with different populations of junior and senior high school learners.

Another explanation can be found in the difficulty of holding learners' interest in studying English for a long period of time. While Japanese junior high school EFL learners are usually enthusiastic about English at least during the first semester of their first year, they start exhibiting unwilling attitudes towards learning English during the first semester of their second year (Hatori & Matsuhata, 1980). Another nationwide survey shows that 30.8 percent of high school students expressed an unwillingness to study English (Matsuura, Nishimoto, Ikeda, Kaneshige, Ito & Miura, 1997). These results support the suggestion that the senior high school EFL learners in the present study were less motivated than those in junior high school.

The final goal of this study was to explore motivational differences with regard to gender and grade levels. However, based on the results of the multivariate analyses of variance, interpretation of the significant interaction of gender and grade for Factor 5 (Preference for Teacher-centered Lectures) is difficult. One possible explanation for the high scores of the high school 2nd year male students is that they were particularly well motivated in terms of preparing for entrance examinations, and were willing to listen to English lessons presented in a lecture style. As mentioned, the high schools from which these students were drawn were relatively high in terms of academic level. As to why the female students from the same schools did not show the same results, it is necessary to wait until more research is conducted.

Conclusion

The findings from this study of a large sample of Japanese EFL learners from various learning milieus support several suggestions which have been made about language learning motivation. The data clearly indicates that the largest motivational factor in English language learning among Japanese EFL students is complex, with both intrinsic and integrative characteristics. What has been defined as instrumental motivation in the ESL context was also found to be the second largest motivational component among the present EFL learners, but in the Japanese context instrumentality itself seems to be multifaceted in nature.

The present data also suggests that Japanese EFL learners have inhibitory factors operating against learning English such as anxiety, past



negative experiences, or preferring teacher-dominated lectures. However the learners also hold an affirmative motivational factor recognizing the role of teachers in facilitating successful learning. These findings imply that EFL teachers should pay careful attention to their students, not only from a narrow pedagogical standpoint, but also in terms of human relations between learners and facilitators.

There are at least four areas that should be investigated in future research. First, the survey should be redesigned to include a more careful selection of items. Although the items in the present investigation were developed based on previous studies, with some items being directly adopted and others being modified or newly created, all items did not necessarily perform well. For example, although items such as Item 25 (***The appearance of teachers such as blue eyes or fair hair motivates one's English language learning***) were included because of the existence of this attitude elsewhere (for example, Suzuki, 1999), the item was extremely negatively skewed, meaning that Japanese EFL learners may no longer possess this sort of appearance-related xenophilic motivation for English learning.

Second, the motivation sub-categories should be reconsidered. Although the present questionnaire incorporated motivational components based on research in educational psychology, such as attribution, anxiety, and teacher specific and activity specific motivation, ample room is left for other components to be included.

Third, the relationships among motivational factors should be explored more fully. One way to analyze this is to employ a structural modeling approach to the present data. Finally, as Fotos (1994) notes, the research methodologies used to study language learning motivation should be more diverse. Research in this area "has been typically conducted using survey methods that have varied little since Gardner published his general research design in 1968" (Fotos, 1994, p. 44). However, it is insufficient to merely replicate this research, relying only on numerical data. Rather, future study should employ plural methods of data collection, including qualitative methods such as ethnographic classroom observation, classroom discourse protocol analysis, and diary analysis.

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Beliefs about Learning and Teaching Communicative English in Japan

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This study examines Japanese university EFL student and teacher beliefs about learning and teaching communicative English in Japan. Over 300 students and 82 college teachers were given a 36-item questionnaire to assess their beliefs about (a) important instructional areas, (b) goals and objectives, (c) instructional styles and methods, (d) teaching materials, and (e) cultural matters. The results indicate that many students preferred traditional styles of ELT pedagogy including a teacher-centered approach (listening to lectures), learning isolated skills (pronunciation), and focusing on accuracy (Japanese translation). On the other hand, the teachers' preferences appeared to have shifted towards more recent pedagogy such as a learner-centered approach, integrated skills, and a focus on fluency. These results suggest that constant assessment of student beliefs is essential to link ELT theories and classroom practice.

Insert Japanese abstract here

English education in Japan has seen a number of changes over the past 15 years. The Ministry of Education (MOE) has initiated several reforms at the secondary school level aimed at changing the prevailing system

of English education, often dominated by grammar-translation pedagogy, to one with a stronger emphasis on communication. The first of two prominent reforms is the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Program, in which native English speaking ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers) team teach public school English classes with Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2000). In 1999 alone 5,241 ALTs were appointed to junior and senior high schools throughout Japan (Ministry of Education, 1999a). The second MOE initiative was the 1994 introduction of a new high school subject, Oral Communication, consisting of three courses on listening, speaking, and discussion/debate. Many high schools have implemented this program and use oral communication textbooks screened and approved by MOE officials. Thus English education in Japan has progressed in the direction of teaching the language for communication.

At the university level as well, teaching and learning communication skills in English is now considered to be important. In November, 1999 the MOE asked one of its advisory boards to consider what language education ought to consist of, and in particular, to recommend how communication skills could be improved (Ministry of Education, 1999b). Recognizing that English is an important means of communication, the advisory board emphasized the need for increased English ability for all students, especially in the areas of listening and speaking (Ministry of Education, 2000). However, despite this stress on the communicative use of English, neither the MOE nor the advisory board has provided guidance as to pedagogical goals, objectives, or teaching methods for communicative English instruction. Therefore in practice these remain quite diverse, with unpredictable and unreliable outcomes. Unlike secondary school classes, university English classes need not use MOE-approved English textbooks, so there is a range of material and course designs. Thus both students and teachers continue to hold various beliefs about how English should be learned.

Learner and Teacher Beliefs about Language Learning

Learner beliefs about language learning is an important research area in ESL/EFL. As Horwitz (1988) pointed out, investigating learners' beliefs has "relevance to the understanding of their expectations of, commitment to, success in, and satisfaction with language classes" (p. 283). Although few researchers have examined students' beliefs about language learning (see Wenden, 1986; Horwitz, 1988; Mori, 1999), students hold various ideas and beliefs as to how they can better learn a language and how teachers can help them. It is worthwhile, therefore, to investigate how student beliefs differ from teacher beliefs because

such differences can influence the effectiveness of classroom instruction.

Learner Beliefs

A study by Horwitz (1988) investigated beliefs of university students in beginning-level foreign language classes. Using the BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) scale (Horwitz, 1985), Horwitz assessed student beliefs in five areas: (a) difficulty of language learning, (b) foreign language aptitude, (c) the nature of language learning, (d) learning communication strategies, and (e) motivations and expectations. Wenden (1986) also examined learner beliefs about second language learning by interviewing a group of adult ESL learners in advanced-level English classes in the U.S.A. and classifying their responses into five categories: (a) designating (language), (b) diagnosing (language proficiency), (c) evaluating (outcome of strategies), (d) self-analyzing (personal factors), and (e) theorizing (how best to approach language learning).

Teacher Beliefs

Other researchers have investigated beliefs and attitudes held by teachers (see Wolf & Riordan, 1991; Chiba & Matsuura, 1998; Renandya, Lim, Leong & Jacobs, 1999). Wolf and Riordan (1991), for example, conducted a survey on attitudes of foreign language teachers toward curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. Their survey included two instructional approaches, a traditional approach and a teaching-for-proficiency approach. Teachers who preferred the traditional approach were likely to agree with such questionnaire items as “***In introductory classes students should focus only on the grammar mechanics of the language,***” and “***Direct translation into the native language is the most effective way to evaluate reading comprehension***” (p. 475). On the other hand, teachers who preferred the teaching-for-proficiency approach were likely to think that “***Teachers should evaluate communication activities by the success of the communication,***” and “***Teachers should include some communication activities in student evaluation procedures at all levels of instruction***” (p. 476). For this group the traditional teaching approach received either “disagree” or “strongly disagree” as responses while the teaching-for-proficiency approach elicited either “agree” or “strongly agree” reactions.

In a survey of teacher attitudes in Japan, Chiba and Matsuura (1998) reported findings from a Japanese university freshman EFL program where native English speakers and Japanese teachers team taught the