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

Yuzo Kimura
Naruto University of Education

Yoshiyuki Nakata
Kyushu International University

Tomomi Okumura
Higashi-Otsu Senior High School

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 and 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.

本研究の目的は、多様な学習環境を背景とした日本人英語学習者の動機づけの動向を探ることである。これまで外国語学習の動機づけ研究は、社会心理学の枠組みからのアプローチが主流であった。しかし、９０年代に入ってから、外国語学習の動機づけ研究には教育面への効果を視野に入れたアプローチが盛んに取られるようになった。本研究では、社会心理学的および教育心理学的動機づけ理論を背景とした５０項目から成る質問紙を作成し、様々な学習環境で英語を学習する１０２７名の被験者を対象として実施した。因子分析とそれに続く多変量分散分析の結果、本被験者に固有の６つの動機付け因子が抽出され、被験者の性差、専攻・学校によってこれらの因子に差異が確認された。これらの結果を基に、本論では日本人英語学習者の動機の特徴について考察する。

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 (1998) 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 (pp. 117-118).

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.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the 50 Questionnaire Items

#	Questionnaire Items	Mean	S.D.
Intrinsic Motivation			
1	I study English because I like it.	3.375	1.576
2	I feel satisfaction when I am learning English.	3.205	1.435
3	I wish I could learn English without going to school.	3.444	1.595
4	I want to learn any foreign language and as many as possible.	3.818	1.633
5	I want to continue studying English for the rest of my life.	3.667	1.611
Extrinsic Motivation			
*6	The main reason I am learning English is that I want my parents/ my teacher to be happy about it.	1.766	1.116
7	I am learning English because English is my compulsory subject.	3.394	1.752
8	The main reason I need to learn English is to pass examinations.	3.378	1.678
9	I am learning English because everybody in Japan should be able to understand English nowadays.	3.537	1.415
10	I am learning English because English is a must for a Japanese in the global society.	3.831	1.466
11	I wouldn't like to learn English if I didn't have to do so (reverse-coded)	3.824	1.738
Instrumental Motivation			
12	I want to learn English because it is useful when traveling in many countries.	3.803	1.456
13	I want to learn English because I want to study abroad in the future.	2.821	1.590
14	The main reason I am learning English is that my future job requires the English skills.	3.224	1.644
15	One reason I am learning English is that I can make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries.	3.203	1.657
16	If I learn English better, I will be able to get a better job.	3.607	1.546
17	The better marks I can achieve in English class, the more chances I will get to find an exciting job.	3.171	1.459
18	Increasing my English proficiency will have a financial benefit for me.	2.427	1.348
Situation Specific Motivation (Anxiety)			
19	I feel uncomfortable if I am called on and have to answer the questions in my English class.	3.898	1.629
20	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	3.907	1.577
21	I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	2.908	1.478
22	I think I can learn English well, but I don't perform well on tests and examinations.	3.345	1.428
23	I feel uncomfortable when I have to conduct pair or group work in my English class.	3.0497	1.602
Teacher Specific Motivation			
24	I would be encouraged if the teacher spoke only English during the class.	3.090	1.431
*25	I would find myself motivated if the teacher had blue eyes and fair hair.	2.551	1.557
26	I would be more interested in English if the teacher was a person who patiently explains difficult matters of the English language in Japanese.	4.269	1.412
27	I would be discouraged if the English teacher had each student read aloud or answer questions after calling on them individually (reverse-coded).	3.231	1.556
Activity Specific Motivation			
28	I would be encouraged to learn English if I had more explanations of grammatical points and Japanese translation.	3.007	1.441
29	I like English learning activities in which students work together in pairs or small groups.	3.433	1.391
30	I would like to have a class where only English is spoken.	2.780	1.390
31	In English class, the teacher should do most of the talking while the students should only answer when they are called upon.	2.441	1.278
32	I prefer to work by myself in English class, not with other students.	2.869	1.456
33	Activities in the class should be designed to help the students improve their abilities to communicate in English.	3.912	1.506
*34	Group activities and pair work in English class are a waste of time.	2.243	1.326
35	In my English class, I want to read English novels or English news articles.	3.478	1.452
**36	In my English class, I enjoy learning when emphasis is put on such things as movies or music.	4.878	1.260

37	I want to practice the questions of the proficiency test such as STEP**** or TOEFL.	3.517	1.469
Integrative Motivation			
38	I long for American or British culture.	3.931	1.648
39	I would like to make American or British friends.	4.085	1.642
40	I am learning English because I can touch upon the cultures of English-speaking countries.	3.693	1.533
41	I am learning English because I can communicate with people in Southeast Asia or Africa (reverse-corded)	3.739	1.515
42	Most of my favorite actors and musicians are either British or American.	2.708	1.535
Attribution			
43	My success in learning English in this class is a direct result of my effort.	4.477	1.440
44	My accomplishments in English in this class are mainly due to the teacher.	3.348	1.417
**45	If I receive a poor grade in this English class, it is because I haven't studied enough.	4.723	1.415
46	If I receive a poor grade in this English class, it is due to the teaching.	2.592	1.386
47	If I receive a poor grade in this English class, it is due to the quality of teaching.	2.893	1.411
*48	Main reason I don't like English is because there was a teacher I did not like in the past.	2.353	1.601
49	Main reason I like English is because I was praised by an English teacher in the past.	2.619	1.515
50	Main reason I like English is because I was taught by a good English teacher in the past.	3.108	1.632

Note: *Floor effects; **Ceiling effects; ***The Society for Testing English Proficiency

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 the 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 diverse. 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*.

Table 2: Results of Factor Analysis for All Subjects (n=1,027)

Item #	Questionnaire Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	h^2
39	Want to make American or British friends.	.809						.668
40	To touch upon the culture of English-speaking countries.	.803						.706
15	To make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries.	.704						.591
38	Long for American or British culture.	.686						.554
41	To communicate with people in Southeast Asia or Africa.	.685						.560
5	Want to continue studying English for the rest of my life.	.647						.700
13	To study abroad in the future.	.623						.522
4	Want to learn any foreign language (as many as possible).	.616						.483
33	Activities should be to improve communication skills in English.	.515						.528
11	Would not learn English if I didn't have to do so (reverse-coded).	.504						.558
12	Useful when traveling in many countries.	.500						.406
14	My future job requires English skills.	.483						.584
3	Wish I could learn English without going to school.	.439						.326
9	Everybody in Japan should be able to understand English nowadays		.647					.546
17	To find an exciting job.		.574					.522
8	To pass examinations.		.553					.484
18	To have a financial benefit for me.		.517					.440
7	Because English is a compulsory subject.		.481					.429
37	Want to practice the questions for the proficiency test		.449					.290
50	Like English because taught by a good English teacher.			.540				.421
49	Like English because praised by an English teacher before.			.515				.374
20	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.				.753			.581
19	Feel uncomfortable if called on to answer questions in class.				.721			.552
21	I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak English.				.534			.362
22	I don't perform well on tests and examinations.				.448			.239
32	Prefer to work alone in English class.					.733		.440
29	Fond of pair or group activities.					-.582		.503
31	Fond of teacher-centered lectures					.575		.307
47	Poor grade in this class can be attributed to the quality of the teaching.						.824	.553
46	Poor grade in this class can be attributed to the quality of the teacher.						.776	.547
	Eigenvalue	10.30	4.51	2.05	1.98	1.75	1.58	
	Percentage of Variance	23.42	10.25	4.67	4.51	3.99	3.59	
	Cumulative Percentage of the Total Variance	23.42	33.66	38.33	42.84	46.82	50.42	

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 debilitative 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).

Table 3: Results of Univariate Analysis of Variance and Mean Factor Scores

	F (8, 1018)	JHS	SHS	JC	SO	SC	FL	EG	ED	LS
Factor 1	13.694***	.186	-.253	.355	-.002	-.313	.569	-.575	.436	.482
Factor 2	13.047***	.597	-.113	-.010	.291	.213	-.334	.468	-.406	-.719
Factor 3	17.744***	-.071	-.310	.488	-.005	-.012	.568	-.234	.862	.631
Factor 4	7.743***	-.182	.176	.079	-.033	.352	-.615	-.128	-.135	-.372

Factor 5	2.690*	-.079	.083	.075	-.027	-.055	-.162	.182	-.146	-.132
Factor 6	1.931	-.092	.038	.170	.029	-.016	.190	-.091	-.141	-.382

Note. JHS=junior high school (n=124); SHS=senior high school (n=461); JC=junior college (n=130), SO= social (n=83); SC=Science (n=34); FL=Foreign language (n=85); EG=engineer (n=40); ED=education (English major) (n=25); LS=language school (n=45)

*p<.01 ***p<.001

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

Table 4: Summary of Post-hoc Scheffé's Test

Factors	Post hoc (Scheffé's test) Results
Factor 1	FL>(SHS***, SO*, SC**, EG***); LS>(SHS***, EG***); JC>(SHS***, EG***); JHS>(SHS**, EG**); ED>EG*;
Factor 2	JHS>(SHS***, JC**, FL*, ED***); EG> (LS***, SHS*, FL**, ED*); SO>(LS***, SHS*, FL**); SC>LG**; JC>LS**
Factor 3	LS>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***, SO*); FL>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***, SO**), ED>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***, SO**, SC*); JC>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***)
Factor 4	SHS>FL***; SO>FL**; SC>FL***; JC>FL***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

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.

Table 5: Conceptual Summary of Motivational Factors

	JHS	SHS	JC	SO	SC	FL	EG	ED	LS
Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive	+	−	+			+	−		+
Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive	+	−		−			+	−	−
Influence of Good Teachers	−	−	+		−	+	−	+	+
Language Use Anxiety		+	+		+	−			

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) is positive only among junior high learners and engineering majors and is negative for senior high learners, 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 had 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.

Table 6: Results of Two (Gender) by Six (Grade) Two-way MANOVA

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Gender (A)					
Pilla's trace	.094	15.484	6	897	.000
Wilks' lambda	.906	15.484	6	897	.000
Hotteling's trace	.104	15.484	6	897	.000
Roy's largest root	.104	15.484		897	

Grade Level (B)					
Pilla's trace	.240	7.585	30	4505	.000
Wilks' lambda	.776	7.840	30	3590	.000
Hotteling's trace	.269	8.014	30	4477	.000
Roy's largest root	.166	24.999		901	
A x B					
Pilla's trace	.061	1.853	30	4505	.003
Wilks' lambda	.940	1.859	30	3590	.003
Hotteling's trace	.062	1.862	30	4477	.003
Roy's largest root	.033	4.904	6	901	000

Table 7: Univariate ANOVA for Gender and Grade Interaction

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Factor 1	6.726	5	1.345	1.730	.125
Factor 2	6.961	5	1.392	1.897	.092
Factor 3	5.352	5	1.070	1.672	.139
Factor 4	4.424	5	.885	1.168	.323
Factor 5	12.891	5	2.578	3.350	.005
Factor 6	5.576	5	1.115	1.348	.242

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

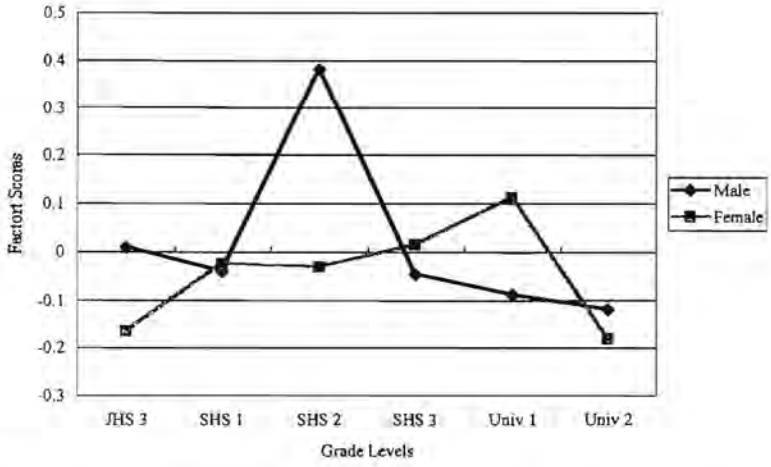
Table 8: Descriptive Statistics for Factor 5

		n	*M*	*SD*
Male	J 3	62	.008	1.019
	SHS 1	61	-.039	.893
	SHS 2	122	.381	.847
	SHS 3	55	-.046	.869
	Univ 1	106	-.090	.910
	Univ 2	13	-.119	.618
Female	J 3	62	-.165	.984
	SHS 1	53	-.025	.931
	SHS 2	144	-.030	.850
	SHS 3	25	.016	.904
	Univ 1	137	.113	.765
	Univ 2	74	-.182	.886

Note. M=male (n=419); F=female (n=495); JHS3=junior high school 3rd year (n=124); SHS1=senior high school 1st year (n=114); SHS2=senior high school 2nd year (n=266); SHS3=senior high school 3rd year (n=80); Univ1=University 1st year (n=243); Univ 2=University 2nd year (n=87).

Due to the small number of participants, university 3rd and 4th year students as well as language school participants were excluded from the analysis.

Figure 1: Interaction Plot for Factor 5



Examination of Figure 1, the interaction plot for Factor 5 as determined by a posthoc contrast (Scheffé 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 not so easily motivated 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 another 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 connotations—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 attended a school attached to a national university of education and had 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 signifi-

cant 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. Al-

though 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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Yuzo Kimura, past JALT Kobe Chapter President, is an associate professor at Naruto University of Education. His research interests include the role of metacognition in L2 learning and language learning motivation. E-mail: ykimura@naruto-u.ac.jp.

Yoshiyuki Nakata is an associate professor at Kyushu International University. His research interests are language learning motivation and listening strategies. E-mail: nakata@econ.kiu.ac.jp.

Tomomi Okumura is an English teacher at Higashi-Otsu High School in Shiga. Her present research focus is the motivation of Japanese learners of English.

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