Motivations of Chinese/Japanese/Korean Language Learners and their Relationship to Pedagogical Preferences

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine motivations of Asian Language learners, their pedagogical preferences in terms of classroom structures and activities in U.S. higher education setting, and their relationship based on age, gender, self-rated target language proficiency, first language, heritage/nonheritage, prior second language experience, and the academic major.

Data were collected using a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) developed by Gardner (1993), and Pedagogical Preference Questionnaire adapted from Schmidt &Watanabe (2001)'s Questionnaire Part B (Preferences for instructional activities). Using SPSS software, the collected data were analyzed to examine descriptive statistics, and primary predictors, and the relationship between motivation and their pedagogical preferences through T-test analysis, one-way ANOVAs, correlational analysis, and regression.

The study indicated that the learners of the Asian languages (Chinese/Japanese/Korean) recorded high second language learning motivations (L2 Motivations) across the five subscales: integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation and instrumental orientation. Gender, major, first language (L1), and target language (TL), however, were strongly correlated with their L2 Motivations. Female students had a much higher level of the integrative-ness. Chinese (L1) speaking students showed the lowest level of integrative-ness, but they showed the higher scores on the language requirement question than either English or Korean speaking students. The learners of Chinese (TL) recorded the highest anxiety; the learners of Japanese stood in the middle; the learners of Korean had the lowest anxiety.

As for their pedagogical preferences, Practical Proficiency was liked the most, Innovative Approach and Traditional Approach were next highly preferred. Cooperative Learning and Challenge were liked the least by all the participants. Gender, age, and L1 were significantly correlated with the students' pedagogical preferences. The female students had a significantly higher appreciation for Traditional Approach, Practical Proficiency, and Innovative Approach than the male students. The age group of 18-19 and 22-23 welcomed Cooperative Learning (CL) more than students of above 23 years old. The English-speaking students showed significantly higher preferences for Practical Proficiency than Chinese-speaking students.

There were statistically significant links between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences. Integrative-ness, attitude, and motivation of L2 Motivations had a weak to moderate correlation with most types of classroom activities. A liking for challenging classroom activities was associated positively with most aspects of L2 Motivations; highly motivated L2 learners for various reasons were more likely to welcome challenging classroom activities. However, the language requirement was not a significant predictor of the pedagogical preferences in the study.

This study suggests that foreign language teachers should be aware of their students' L2 motivations to design the most effective courses. Needs analysis should be implemented to recognize their motivation at the early stage of teaching. Teachers should also incorporate the learners' preferences in lesson planning, balancing different liked styles of teaching among the learners. However, it should not be neglected to encourage the learners to go beyond their comfort zone and explore other dimensions of communicative competence. Without balancing all the four competences—grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence, they cannot use the target language successfully.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Chinese, Japanese, and Korean language courses in U.S. higher education recorded a notably large enrollment in recent years. According to the Modern Language Association (MLA) of America's 2018 report (Looney & Lusin, 2018), Japanese enrollments increased by 3.1%, from 66,771 in 2013 to 68,810 in 2016; Korean enrollments increased by 13.7%, from 12,256 in 2013 to 13,936 in 2016. The MLA of America's 2018 report addressed, "The percentage change between 1958 and 2016 for Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese is over 8,000%, but it is Korean, with a 53,500% increase, that has the highest percentage change" (p. 4). Reflecting this increased language demand for Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, many institutions in U.S. higher education have been expanding those three Asian class offerings in recent years.

There are a variety of interests and motivations for the Asian language learners in higher education such as: pure enjoyment for learning a new language, university language requirement for graduation, benefits for career, personal attachment to the Asian language as a heritage language, communication with target language speakers, and enjoyment of the Asian culture. Learners' motivation is considered a significant factor that affects the success of second language / foreign language (SL/FL) learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Gardner, 1985). Thus, keeping learners motivated is a crucial factor for persistent student effort in learning (Dornyei & Otto, 1998). Especially when it comes to adult learners, motivation for language learning is one of the significant predictors related to successful learning. Houle (1996) suggested that adult

educators “should involve learners as many aspects of their education as possible and in the creation of a climate in which they can most fruitfully learn” (p. 30).

The field of second (or foreign) language teaching has undergone many fluctuations and dramatic shifts over the years (Celce-Murcia,1991a). Over the last hundred years, there were a variety of language-teaching approaches and methods. In the 1960s there was a popular method named Audiolingual Method (ALM) featuring mimicry, memorization, and overlearning of language patterns. Stephen Krashen’s (1981) Monitor Model of second language acquisition was also an influential approach to the field. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emphasizes the importance of communication experience or practice in the development of communicative competence (Hymes,1971). Recently, pragmatics instruction is getting popular that facilitates the learners’ ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations they encounter (Bardovi-Harlig, & Rebecca, 2003). Celce-Murcia (2001) pointed out that certain features of several approaches arose in reaction to perceived inadequacies or impracticalities in an earlier approach or approaches. The big presumption around the professional development was that a single venue did not nor does it seem to exist. Many teachers seek such a method which would include attention to rule formation, affect, comprehension, and communication and which would view the learner as someone who thinks, feels, understands, and has something to say (Celce-Murcia, 2001). There isn’t a one-size-fits-all approach in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Moreover, excluding adult learners’ motivations and their inclinations towards classroom activities, any method could not be successful in teaching a language that is already perceived challenging.

There are potential challenges to learners of the three Asian languages. Korean is categorized as one of the most challenging languages to learn for native English speakers by the

Defense Language Institute (n.d.) and Foreign Service Institute (U.S. Department of State, n.d.). On top of the linguistic difficulty and complexity, in the case of Korean language, it requires greater pragmatics ability of learners in every utterance due to Confucian cultural background underpinning Korean language and culture (Yoon, 2010); ending elements of every utterance are subject to change, depending on the relationship among the interlocutors that are affected by age, socioeconomic status, contexts, intended message, etc. or so-called pragmatic features. Pragmatic ability for KFL learners is essential in the selection of appropriate speech styles in context.

For Japanese language learners, pragmatic competence can be a potential challenge as well. For instance, Japanese listeners actively engage in conversation by sending verbal responses (aizuchi) and non-verbal responses (nods) toward the speaker (Kita and Ide, 2007; Miyazaki, 2007). To become competent listeners, learners must acquire pragma-linguistic knowledge that involves knowing the linguistic forms and socio-pragmatic rules that native speakers of Japanese share about how to provide listener responses appropriately in interactional communicative exchanges within a given social context.

Lastly, it is also reported that the Chinese language requires extended learning periods for most native speakers of English in the MLA of America's 2018 report. Concerning the difficulty of learning Chinese as a foreign language, Walker (1989) writes:

> Chinese orthography is a significant factor in the difficulty of learning to function in Chinese. That being so, writing is the most time-consuming activity for the learner. . . . For reasons too diverting to explore now, the return to the learner for the hundreds of hours spent writing characters has a smaller payoff in terms of functioning as a

participant in Chinese society than the work she puts into any other of the skill areas. (p. 65).

With these concerns, it is meaningful to investigate motivations of the Asian languages learners in a university setting with classroom structures and types of activities to which adult foreign language students react positively. Dornyei (2006) also suggested that knowing which instructional methods better match the participant's approach to learning could promote overall learning effectiveness. A better match between the teaching methods and the learning preferences of learners alleviates a potential source of the difficulty and instructions could promote overall learning effectiveness.

Statement of Problem

It is generally assumed in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) that different types of instruction may lead to different outcomes in learning (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Tomita, 2010), with some learners benefiting more from a specific instructional type than others. While one learner may find a wholly detailed explanation of a grammar rule useful, another may prefer an approach where, given a hint, he has to find out for himself how a particular grammar structure works (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Tomita, 2010). Motivation is widely considered to be an essential determinant of all learning and one of the primary sources (together with aptitude) of individual differences in SLA (Gardner, 1985 a; Krashen, 1980). Since adult learners are more self-directed learners (Knowles,1975), their learning motivation should be placed in the center of their learning process. Instructional methods that better match the participants' approach to learning could promote overall learning effectiveness (Dornyei, 2006). With the full range of second language teaching methods, the selection of appropriate classroom structures and activities is the key to successful language teaching. Nunan (1993) found a

mismatch between the teaching preferences of the teacher and the learning preferences of learners as a potential source of the difficulty.

There are previous studies regarding motivation (Bryant, 2014; Clark, 2000; Dembo, 2000; Hartzell, 2012; Nielsen, 2015; Wolf, 1990), adult foreign language learning (André, 2019; Bo & Fu, 2018; Boers & Webb, 2018; Brooks-Lewis, 2014; Saito, 2017; Tejada, 2015; Włosowicz, 2016), and pragmatics instruction (Kong-In & Damnet, 2018; Lu, 2019; Martinez & Hernández, 2019; Myers, 2018; Siddiqui, 2018; Tang, 2019; Taguchi & Li, 2019, Tulgar, 2018) independently; however, there are few studies examining all the three components especially as related to Asian languages teaching –Chinese, Japanese, and Korean language. There have been some studies on the relationship between student motivation and pedagogical preferences (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996; Jacques, 2001; Ockert, 2011; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). For example, Schmidt et al. (1996) reported that students with high score on the affect dimension of motivation welcomed communicative classes, while those with low score on that dimension tended to reject the communicative classroom and that determined learners preferred classes in which there was a balance among different skill emphases and between teacher control and learner-centeredness. Meanwhile, Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) found that motivation to learn affects a liking for challenging activities in the classroom most. However, the study on the link between motivation and pedagogical preference has been left mostly unresearched; Schmit and Watanabe (2001) commented that "We are not aware of any other research that addresses possible links between motivational factors and how students react to specific aspects of foreign language pedagogy " (p. 314).

Concerning those Asian language teaching, previous studies focused primarily on its unique linguistic features and empirical research on best practices (Allen, 2008; Byon, 2004a, 2004b,

2005; Choi, 1999; Lee, 1989, 1993; Lee, 1992; Lee, 1982; Miyazaki, 2010). Thus, there is a strong need to investigate motivation of Asian language learners in a university setting, and the kinds of classroom structures and types of activities to which adult foreign language students react positively, given that those Asian languages are categorized as languages that require extended learning periods for most native speakers of English (Looney & Lusin, 2018).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify motivations of learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean languages as a foreign language in U.S. higher education and relationship of their demographic variables such as age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level. A secondary purpose was to examine pedagogical preferences in terms of classroom structures and activities based on the same background variables mentioned above. It was also intended to explore the relationship between the Asian language learner's motivations and preferred learning activities. This study employed a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) originated from Gardner (1985 b)'s Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to investigate the language learners' motivations at a four-year institution in higher education. Pedagogical preference questionnaire adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe (2001)'s Questionnaire Part B (preferences for instructional activities) is to examine the learners' preferences as to class activities for their foreign language learning. The Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) was also used to better understand the relationship that exists between the students' background variables, their motivations, and their pedagogical preferences in their foreign language classes.

Significance of the Study

This study provides insights to identify Asian language (Chinese/Japanese/Korean) learners' motivations in universities in the U.S. The results from this study will assist instructors to have a deeper understanding of the challenging foreign language learners' motivations and relate them to planning students' learning experiences in their classrooms.

This study provides insight related to student motivation to learn in certain classroom activities, and to making more relevant instruction to the learners. Horwitz (1988) argued that language teachers should understand learners' beliefs about language learning to facilitate the learning process. This study indicates the three Asian language learners' pedagogical preference patterns are based on their motivation and demographic variables. The findings of the study then serve as the basis of the planning of learning experiences and facilitate the three Asian language instructors to plan their language classes more relevant to their students.

The findings of this study were especially critical for institutions that offer those Asian language instructions in higher education with the dramatic increase in enrollment to the language courses over the decade (MLA of America, 2018). Having a better understanding of the motivations of the Asian language learners, instructors can develop their language curriculum appealing to the learners; instructors can equip their courses with more relevant learning experiences to the actual learners so that they can both foster successful learning and accommodate students' needs sufficiently and effectively.

Research Questions

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the L2 motivations of the learners Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
2. Do demographic variables —age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their L2 motivations?
3. What are pedagogical preferences in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
4. Do demographic variables — age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences?
5. Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences?

Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations of the study regarding the definition of the key constructs of the study, study participants, and data collection method. First, the key construct of the study, motivation is a general term that can be defined and be measured in various ways using different theoretical frameworks. This study, however, used Gardner's (1985a) socio-educational model of second language acquisition for the motivational factors. So, the results of this study concerning

Chinese, Japanese, and Korean language learners' motivations may not be congruent with other studies using a different theoretical framework.

Another limitation of the study regarding the key construct was that pedagogical preferences can also be defined in various ways depending on the scope of the term. Even though pedagogical preferences can be characterized in numerous details on the practical level, pedagogical preferences in this study are classroom structures and classroom activities based on second language acquisition (SLA) theories that developed over past decades in the discipline. It used Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) questionnaire to measure second language learners' motivations. Thus, the results of this study cannot fully identify the Asian language learners' pedagogical preferences in a detailed manner.

Second language learners' motivation and their preferences can also vary based on the learners' demographic information. Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners' motivation and their pedagogical preferences in this study may not be representative of students in other areas such as non-credit Chinese/Japanese/Korean language programs, or programs beyond the scope of this study. This study was implemented with students taking Chinese, Japanese, and Korean classes for course credit in a U.S. university setting. They were not homogenous in terms of cultural background since they come from different nationalities. Thus, the results of the present study may not be generalizable to a different population.

Lastly, the data collection method of this study is limited to a survey. The nature of a survey does not allow the researcher to collect in-depth demographic data. To maintain the appropriate extent of practicality, the survey questionnaire in this study could not be as lengthy as the original version. Due to the limitation on the data collection method, the study cannot

reveal the foreign language learners' motivations and their pedagogical preferences in depth as well as the reasons behind their choice of answers to the questions on the survey.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made for this study:

1. Certain factors constitute the motivation of second language learning.
2. Certain motivational factors are affected by demographic variables such as age, gender, self-rated target language proficiency, race/ethnicity, heritage/nonheritage, prior second language experience, and academic program in which learners are enrolled.
3. There are particular pedagogical preferences of the adult second language learners, but their favorites are affected by demographic variables such as age, gender, major, first language, prior second language learning experience, and self-rated target language proficiency.
4. There is a relationship between language learning motivations and pedagogical preferences around language learning.
5. Participants understood the survey questions and answered them honestly and coherently.
6. Mini-AMTB for language learners' motivations and Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) questionnaire for second language learners' pedagogical preferences are reliable and suitable instruments to measure those constructs.
7. The results as reported on mini-AMTB and Schmidt and Watanabe (2001)'s questionnaire reflect the participants' language learning motivation and pedagogical preferences.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used in this study:

1. Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL): CFL refers to language learning and instruction of Chinese to speakers of other languages in a non- Chinese -speaking community or country where Chinese is generally not a local medium of communication by non-native speakers.
2. Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL): CFL refers to language learning and instruction of Japanese to speakers of other languages in a non- Japanese -speaking community or country where Japanese is generally not a local medium of communication by non-native speakers.
3. Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL): CFL refers to language learning and instruction of Korean to speakers of other languages in a non- Korean -speaking community or country where Korean is generally not a local medium of communication by non-native speakers.
4. L1: It refers to a first language or native language of a second/foreign language learner.
5. L2: It refers to a second/foreign language or target language.
6. L2 Motivations: It is the desire that individuals have and the contentment the individuals experience as they attempt to learn a second/foreign language (Gardner, 1985a).
7. Pedagogical preference: It refers to the kind of classroom structures and type of activities to which students react positively (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001).

8. Pragmatic competence: It refers to functional knowledge, or the ability to produce and understand speech acts in the discourse, and sociolinguistic knowledge, which is sensitivity to dialect differences, to formal and informal registers, and style (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).
9. The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB): It is an instrument to assess second language learning motivation developed by Gardner, Clément, Smythe, and Smythe, (1979). The scales making up the AMTB were integrative-ness (integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages), attitudes toward the learning situation (evaluation of teacher and course), motivation (motivational intensity, desire to learn the target language, and attitude toward learning the target language), language anxiety (language class and language use anxiety), and instrumental orientation (learning for utilitarian purposes).

Organization of the Chapters

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study, which is about motivations of the three Asian language learners and their relationship to pedagogical preferences including pragmatics instruction. This chapter also provided the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the limitations of the study, and the definitions of terms. Chapter 2 presented a review of the literature about characteristics of adult learning, adult L2 learning, L2 Motivations, Gardner's socio-educational model, and L2 teaching approaches and predictors of successful language learning and their pedagogical implications. Chapter 3 described the research design, the instruments, the participants, the data collection, and the data analysis. Chapter 4 presented the results of the data analysis and the findings of the study concerning the research questions.

Chapter 5 provided the discussion of the findings of the study, the conclusion, the pedagogical implications, and the recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the MLA report of 2018, the number of Chinese, Japanese, and Korean language learners in higher education has increased rapidly; the percentage change between 1958 and 2016 for Chinese, and Japanese is over 8,000%, and Korean with a 53,500% increase has the highest percentage change. Despite the high popularity of introductory level courses in those Asian languages, a large portion of the learners on introductory level don't move on to the next level; the ratio of introductory to advanced level course enrollments, however, showed decreasing at the advanced level between 2013 and 2016: Chinese (3:1), Japanese, and Korean (5:1). It may imply that not everyone acquires the target language successfully enough to move onto the higher level, but it may also imply that they don't have motivations that lead to further learning.

Their potential success or failure and resolution for further learning of the foreign language is determined in large part by factors related to the foreign language learning motivations. Engin (2009) contended that the more positive motivation the students possess, the more able they are to benefit from their learning activities and, it facilitates their achieving of success in all their endeavors. The motivation for learning is a more fundamental factor for adult learners. Tough (1967) explains that adult learners are self-directed learners who establish their specific goals, decide how to accomplish it, find relevant resources, plan their strategies, and maintain their motivation to learn independently. Engin (2009) stated that if teachers have good information about students' motivation, they can assist the students in improving their learning techniques

and second language learning skills. They can even develop students' integrative and instrumental motivation by utilizing appropriate activities for their learners. Thus, answers to the following questions are invaluable: how are the language learners motivated? And what types of activities successfully develop their motivation. The potential answers to this question might lie in an analysis of the second language learner's learning motivation, and individual's pedagogical preferences about learning.

This chapter presented a review of literature, concerning adult L2 learners, L2 Motivations, pedagogical preferences about language learning, and the relationship between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences. The review of literature begins with adult language learning motivations covering a review of empirical studies of adult learning, adult L2 learning, researches on L2 Motivations. Then, approaches and methods in L2 teaching will be discussed, including pragmatics instruction which is a relatively new approach. Lastly, the discussion of the predictors of successful Asian language learning addressed various factors involved in the learning process in relation to pedagogical preferences.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify what are motivations of learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean languages as a foreign language in U.S. higher education and how different the motivations are, depending on their background variables such as age, gender, self-rated target language proficiency, first language, heritage/nonheritage, prior second language experience, and the academic major in which students are enrolled. A secondary purpose was to examine their pedagogical preferences in terms of classroom structures and activities based on the same background variables mentioned above. It was also intended to explore the relationship between the Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learner's motivations and preferred learning

activities. This study employed a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) that originated from Gardner's (1985b) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to investigate the language learners' motivations at a four-year institution in higher education. Pedagogical preference questionnaire adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) Questionnaire Part B (preferences for instructional activities) is to examine the learners' preferences as to class activities for their foreign language learning. The Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) was also used to understand better the relationship that exists among the students' background variables, their motivations, and their pedagogical preferences in their foreign language classes.

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4. Do demographic variables — age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience, and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences?

5. Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences?

Characteristics of Adult Learning

Adult learners generally share unique attributes that are different from children. Recognizing the differences, Knowles (1968) gave a new label, andragogy, to adult learning. Andragogy is a representative term for the characteristics of adult learners as opposed to pedagogy for pre-adult learners. Andragogy is based on the Greek word aner with the stem andra meaning "man, not boy" or adult, and agogus meaning "leader of." Knowles defined the term as "the art and science of helping adults learn" to emphasize the differences between the education of adults and children (Davenport, 1987). Andragogy refers to the science of understanding (theory) and supporting (practice) lifelong and life-wide education of adults.

Andragogy postulates the six assumptions about adult learners' characteristics as follows: adults have independent self- learning; their learning needs are closely related to their social roles; they are problem-centered and interested in immediate application of knowledge; their strongest motivators are internal rather than external; they have a need to know why they need to learn something (Schunk, 2014). Knowles's (1975) developed and defined the characteristics of self-directed learning as "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes." (p. 18). Table 1 provides a summary of the differences between pedagogical and andragogical teaching principles.

Concerning adult education, Knowles (1980) contended that the goal of adult education should be self-actualization; thus, the learning process should involve the whole emotional,

psychological, and intellectual being. The mission of adult educators is to assist adults in developing their full potential, and andragogy is the teaching methodology used to achieve this end. In Knowles' view, the teacher is a facilitator who aids adults in becoming self-directed learners (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982). In order to further distinguish between the pedagogical and andragogical approaches to design and operate adult educational programs, Knowles (1973) compared his andragogical model with a pedagogical model.

Table 1

Pedagogy vs. Andragogy

	Pedagogical	**Andragogical**
The Learner	• The learner is dependent upon the instructor for all learning. • The teacher/instructor assumes full responsibility for what it taught and how it is learned. • The teacher/instructor evaluates learning.	• The learner is self-directed. • The learner is responsible for his/her own learning. • Self-evaluation is characteristic of this approach.
Role of the Learner's Experience	• The learner comes to the activity with little experience that could be tapped as a resource for learning. • The experience of the instructor is the most influential.	• The learner brings a greater volume and quality of experience. • Adults are a rich resource for one another. • Different experiences assure diversity in groups of adults. • Experience becomes the source of self-identity.
Readiness to Learn	• Students are told what they have to learn in order to advance to the next level of mastery.	• Any change is likely to trigger a readiness to learn. • The need to know in order to perform more effectively in some aspect of one's life is important.

		• Ability to assess gaps between where one is now and where one wants and needs to be.
Orientation to Learning	• Learning is a process of acquiring prescribed subject matter. • Content units are sequenced according to the logic of the subject matter.	• Learners what to perform a task, solve a problem, live in a more satisfying way • Learning must have relevance to real-life tasks • Learning is organized around life/work situations rather than subject matter units.
Motivation for Learning	• Primarily motivated by external pressures, competition for grades, and the consequences of failure	• Internal motivators: self-esteem, recognition, the better quality of life, self-confidence, self-actualization

Note. Adapted from floridatechnet.org as reported in

http://www.educatorstechnology.com/2013/05/awesome-chart-on-pedagogy-vs-andragogy.html

The pedagogical model is a content model concerned with the transmitting of information and skills, and the teacher operates as a controller over the process. The teacher decides in advance what knowledge or skill needs to be transmitted, arranges this body of content into logical units, selects the most efficient means for transmitting this content (lectures, readings, lab exercises, films, tapes, for example), and then develops a plan for presenting these units in some sequence. By contrast, the andragogical model is a process model concerned with providing procedures and resources for helping learners acquire information and skills, and the teacher operates as a facilitator, change-agent, or consultant over the process. In this model, the teacher prepares a set of procedures for involving the learners in a process that includes (a) establishing a climate conducive to learning, (b) creating a mechanism for mutual planning, (c) diagnosing the needs of learning, (d) formulating program objectives (content) that will satisfy these needs, (e)

designing a pattern of learning experiences, (f) conducting these learning experiences with suitable techniques and materials, and (g) evaluating the learning outcomes and re-diagnosing learning needs.

Rachel (1983), however, noted that these two approaches are not neatly dichotomous and mutually exclusive. The teacher-directed approach would still require the instructor to follow a free exchange of ideas and to allow students to pursue personal interests (through papers, projects, or presentations) if they go along with the course objectives. In the self-directed approach, instructors would still set the general requirements for the course and serve as more than merely resource persons. They must also provide leadership and take primary responsibility for evaluation. Knowles (1980) also repeated by stating that "Furthermore, the models are probably most useful when seen not as dichotomous but rather as two ends of a spectrum with a realistic assumption in a given situation falling in between the two ends" (p. 43).

The ages of most Asian language learners in a four-year institute are found between childhood and adulthood. It is a unique time in the life of a young person and one involving transition. Adolescents enter the emerging adulthood age period, which is a period of instability and exploration during which they must adjust to an unfamiliar environment consisting of different academic and social relationships, identity explorations, and possible changes in self–concept (Arnett, 2004; Swenson, Nordstrom & Hiester, 2008). Even among college students, there are mixed preferences in terms of pedagogical and andragogical teaching methodology. According to Richardson's (1994) study with 481 sophomore, junior, and senior baccalaureate nursing students, in general, students preferred the andragogical teaching methodology over the pedagogical teaching methodology. However, there was a significant difference in preferences with sophomore and senior students preferring more andragogical teaching methods than junior

students. Interestingly, the students' satisfaction with the program went reversely; junior students were more satisfied with the program than sophomore or senior students.

It cannot be claimed that a pedagogical methodological approach outweighs an andragogical approach and vice versa. Knudson (1980) reminded educators that both the pedagogical and andragogical approaches have something to offer. "Like the Chinese symbol of *yin* and *yang*, they are at the same time opposites and complements and equally necessary" (p. 8). He suggested incorporating in a learning process the differences as well as the similarities that exist between both adults and children as learning human beings. He approaches human learning as a matter of degree, not kind. Because of the unique characteristics of undergraduates, the flexibility of educators within the continuum between andragogy and pedagogy in undergraduate schools is required more than at any other levels of school. Polson (1993) asserted that the adult learner is not a recognizable, single entity for whom there is one best way to teach, or for whom there is one best way to learn. Holmes & Abington-Cooper (2000) advised, "Most important is that the visibility of andragogy has sharpened our awareness and understanding of adult learning. A major key for educators is to be aware of their personal philosophies for working with adult learners" (p.54).

Characteristics of Adult Language Learning

Even though there are many studies conducted on adult learners' andragogical and pedagogical orientation to learning in other areas and academic subjects (Hadley, 1975; Christian,1983; Davenport & Davenport,1986; Grubbs,1981; Chen, 1994; Richardson, 1994), the field of a foreign language teaching is devoid of such studies. The curriculum of programs preparing foreign teachers seems to focus more on the pedagogical orientation of education, which tends not to focus on adult learners (Deveci, 2007). Concerning the reality of foreign

language education, O'Connell and Norwood (2007) reported that all levels of institutions face some degree of difficulty in identifying qualified instructors.

Accordingly, administrators have turned to a native speaker of the language as a quick fix in this circumstance (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009). However, the qualification of being a native speaker as an instructor guarantees neither quality nor success of the course and the program; one of the common characteristics of failed Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTL) programs is that their instructors were native speakers with very limited or no professional training in the field of education or foreign language teaching (Sanatullova-Allison, 2008). The LCTL teachers in Stenson, Janus, and Multern (1998) were also not aware of training or preparation opportunities specifically aimed at teaching the language they taught, even though most of the survey participants had some kind of experiences related to language and/or pedagogy such as linguistics courses, orientation, and language teaching experience. Because of this challenge, most LCTL teachers in higher education who may implement andragogical practices in their teaching are likely not aware of their doing so or have a lack of exposure to andragogical language teaching methods.

Adult L2 learners have unique characteristics as a group. Brown & Lee (2015) explained that many of practices for teaching children could apply in some ways to teaching adults, but adult learners pose some different, special considerations for the classroom teachers; adults have superior cognitive abilities and self-confidence that can contribute to success in certain classroom endeavors, but their level of shyness can be equal to or greater than that of children. Adults bring life experiences to the classroom that works as background schemata for the situations introduced in a curriculum. In Splading (2013)'s study (as cited in Brown & Lee, 2015), the characteristics of adults are described as follows: "My students have told me where

you can buy a fake Social Security card… and what life is like in a refugee camp in Thailand [and] about underground clubs and high school race riots. My students have taught me more than I could have learned in a hundred lifetimes" (p.13). Brown & Lee (2015) specified the natures of adult L2 learners as follows:

- **Abstract thinking ability.** Adults are better able to understand a context-reduced segment of language. Authenticity and meaningfulness are, of course, still highly relevant, but with adults, a teacher can take temporary digressions to dissect and examine isolated linguistic properties.
- **Attention Span.** Adults have longer attention spans for material that may not be intrinsically interesting to them.
- **Self-confidence.** Adults often bring a modicum of general self-confidence into a classroom, so their egos may be somewhat stronger, but we should never underestimate the emotional fragility of adults.
- **Vocational interests.** Adult learners, especially those in their college years and beyond, are more able to focus on their vocational future and will derive motivational intensity from such a vision. (p. 117)

At the individual level, there is a difference between children and adults; Atkinson, Smith, & Kirby (2018) pointed out that there is a close correlation between the age of acquisition and ultimate language proficiency and strong evidence suggests that learning L2 after puberty results in productive and receptive deficiencies in phonology, morphology, and syntax (Clahsen, Felser, Neubauer, Sato, & Silva, 2010; Clark, 2003; Johnson & Newport, 1989; Kusters, 2003; Lenneberg, 1967; McWhorter, 2007; Newport, 1990, 2002; Scovel, 2000; Trudgill, 2011). For older learners, their ultimate attainment is highly variable, dependent on the age of acquisition,

learning context, and learner motivation (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Nettle, 2012; Selinker, 1972).

With respect to linguistic challenges for adult learners, Atkinson et al (2018) noted that adult learners are thought to find certain linguistic features particularly challenging to acquire, including morphological complexity, syntagmatic and paradigmatic redundancy, and irregularities, even when similar features are found in their native language (Bentz & Winter, 2013; Clahsen et al., 2010; Lupyan & Dale, 2010; Trudgill, 2011; Wray & Grace, 2007). Klein and Perdue (1997) conducted a longitudinal study of adult learners of Dutch, English, French, German, and Swedish, whose productions were found to be limited in terms of the case, number, gender, tense, aspect, and morphological agreement. Parodi, Schwartz, and Clahsen (2004) illustrate that adult learners of German find morphological inflections challenging regardless of their native language.

Atkinson et al. (2018) speculated that "languages with greater degrees of adult learning are under increased pressure for simplification due to these acquisition difficulties" (p. 2822). According to this hypothesis, the languages adapt to the needs and abilities of the older learners, with the more difficult features filtered out (Bentz & Winter, 2013; Lupyan & Dale, 2010; Wray & Grace, 2007). This reduction in complexity will result in a greater reliance on extralinguistic, pragmatic, information in the case of adult learners (Lupyan & Dale, 2010). On the contrary, redundancy may aid child learning, in that it provides infants with additional linguistic cues to supplement their relatively undeveloped abilities to use extralinguistic, pragmatic, information (Snedeker & Trueswell, 2004; Trueswell, Sekerina, Hill, & Logrip, 1999; Weighall, 2008).

In relation to the psychological differences between children and adults, Abdullah and Akhter (2015) contended that language ego hinders the adults from learning a second or foreign

language properly; a child is less mindful of committing mistakes of grammar, accent, and spelling and may learn the second language without any shyness, ego, and hesitation. Children are not too concerned about their egos. Guiora (1972) was the first linguist, who identified the notion of language ego, claiming that this agent occurs when the learner is aware of the limitations and boundaries of a language. Therefore, language ego refers to the very personal nature of New Language Learning and is associated with the fear of making mistakes. These mistakes work as internal and external threats to one's ego. That emotional interference develops with increasing age.

Brown (1994) illustrates the negative effect of language ego on language learning as follows: "These inhibitions are heightened in the trauma of undergoing critical physical, cognitive and emotional changes. Their egos are affected not only in how they understand themselves, but also on how they reach out beyond themselves, how they relate to others socially, and how they use the communicative process to bring on affective equilibrium" (as cited in Abdullah and Akhter, 2015, p172). Abdullah and Akhter concluded that age is the strongest predictor in the process of second language learning, and ego is one of the most critical factors that impede the ability of second language learning in adults.

Abdullah and Akhter (2015) also suggested encouraging adult learners to grow self-confidence by not highlighting their mistakes in the presence of the others in the classroom. The following factors are critical to help adult second language learners to overcome their language ego and to learn the second language in the classroom — " Motivation of teacher and adult learners, the aptitude of adult second language learners, ways of instructions and teaching methodology of the learned and motivated teacher as well as classroom atmosphere (p.173)". Brown & Lee (2015) advised adult L2 teachers as follows:

- Avoid too much abstract explanation of grammar and vocabulary. Keep adults focused primarily on meaning, secondarily on the form.
- Despite their incompetence in expressing complex thinking in the L2, they are intelligent adults with mature cognition and adult emotions. Respect the deeper thoughts and feelings that may be "trapped" for the moment by an inability to convey it in the L2.
- Treat them like responsible adults in your class. Don't call them "kids" or talk "down" to them.
- Despite the adult learners' longer attention spans than children, it's still important to keep your activities moving along at a lively pace.
- Allow your students to make a choice about what they will do in and out of the classroom. They, then, can more effectively make an investment in their own learning process by enacting their agency.
- Provide them opportunities to share their stories about their lives, past, and present. Even at lower ability levels, asking them to share them, can expand the meaningfulness of learning the L2.
- Relate your students' vocational or avocational interest as much as possible to your choice of topics, issues, questions, and discussions in the discussions in the classroom. For adults in their twenties and beyond, extra-class field trips, Internet exploration, interviews, and projects can help escalate relevance and investment.

Despite the great differences between children and adults in the language learning process, employing only pedagogical orientation of education or neglecting andragogical orientation of education, however, will be detrimental to adults' L2 learning. If the language education programs do not take these adult learners' characteristics into consideration and language

teachers lack the capability to adopt andragogical orientations to teaching adults learning a second/foreign language, the result might be detrimental (Deveci, 2007).

Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

Various paradigm shifts took place over the second half of the twentieth century in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and foreign language learning. Traditionally, the intention of language instruction was for teaching language-specific rules through rote learning and internalizing (Brown 2007; Celce-Murcia et al. 2013). In this traditional instruction, learners are exposed to focused practice after they have developed interlanguage ability. As a strong objection to the traditional approach, in the 1970s and 1980s, the dominant theories of language and of SLA excessively emphasized the unconscious nature of linguistic knowledge and unconscious processes of learning. Many SLA researchers addressed the importance of interactional and social aspects of language ability for language acquisition (Canale and Swain, 1980; Habermas, 1970; Halliday, 1973; Hymes, 1967;1968;1972; Savignon, 1972). Hymes (1972) contended that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (cited in Schmidt, 1990, p. 137). However, Hatch (1978) noted that for adult SLA, the relationship between interaction and acquisition is much less clear. He contended that empirical studies on children's language learning revealed that the correlation between interaction and acquisition is strong, but it is much weaker in the case of adults. The years of formal instruction is a better predictor of adult proficiency than years of natural exposure to and use of English (Krashen, Seliger, and Hartnett, 1974).

After various paradigm shifts, in the current SLA field, there is a common agreement that adult learners cannot gain success in learning a second language simply by being exposed to the target language. Implicit learning or interaction alone cannot guarantee their proficiency

improvement (Schmidt, 1990). Adults cannot acquire language, specifically, grammar through interaction alone or only wholly unconscious learning. Schmidt (1990) explained that "Adults do seem to have lost the still mysterious ability of children to acquire the grammatical forms of language while apparently not paying attention to them" (p.172). Based on his empirical case studies on adult second language learners with two adult English learners, he drew the conclusion that some level of conscious attention to form is required.

The contemporary approaches in SLA put much of the focus on the role that awareness or consciousness plays in learning. Much of concern in SLA has shifted toward the understandings of further effectual language instruction (Ögeyik, 2018) and shedding light on how to change the way the input is perceived and processed by learners (Gass and Selinker, 2008). In the innovative teaching process, contrary to the traditional language teaching, learners are assumed to be able to direct their attention to or notice linguistic forms to promote form and meaning correspondence for better intake (VanPatten, 2015b).

Noticing is a crucial cognitive construct that has been generated experimental studies, and suggestions for L2 pedagogy in second language acquisition (Schmidt, 2010). With a variety of terms for the cognitive aspect of learning, there have been numerous studies exploring the role that awareness plays in learning such as attention focusing (Van Lier, 1991), focus on form and focus on forms (Long, 1991), conscious raising (Rutherford, 1987; Smith, 1981), input enhancement (White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta, 1991), input processing (VanPatten, 1992, VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993; Díaz, 2018), preliminary intake and final intake (Chaudron, 1985), uptake (Allwrith, 1984; Slimani, 1987; 1992), and language awareness (Kelly, 2019).

R. Schmidt is one of the most influential scholars who stressed noticing or conscious attention to the form of input. His Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1994, 2001) has

impacted all areas of second language research and teaching. Schmidt (1990) identifies three aspects of consciousness involved in language learning: awareness, intention, and knowledge. The first sense, consciousness as awareness, embraces noticing. According to Schmidt (1995, p. 20), "the noticing hypothesis states that what learners notice in the input is what becomes intake for learning." Regardless of whether a learner deliberately attends to adopt a linguistic form in the input, or it is noticed purely unintentionally, as long as it is noticed, it becomes intake. Therefore, noticing is a necessary condition for L2 acquisition. In other words, "the emergence of new forms should be preceded by their being noticed in the input" (Lai & Zhao, 2006, p. 102). Conversely, the input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered.

Even though Schmidt (2001) acknowledged that incidental learning is clearly both possible and effective, he contended that it is when the demands of a task focus attention only on what is to be learned and even in incidental learning, paying attention is probably facilitative and may be necessary if adult learners are to acquire redundant grammatical features. He reiterated that noticing is the essential element for language learning; subliminal language learning is impossible, and that noticing is the necessary, and sufficient condition for converting the input to intake.

Cross (2002) elaborated the factors that Schmidt (1990) asserted to influence noticing in the input as follows:

1. **Instruction.** Instruction provides structured, differentiated input that assists noticing by focusing attention on and enhancing awareness of language features (Skehan, 1998). Also, Schmidt (1990) proposes that instruction rmay play an important role in priming learners to notice features by establishing expectations about language. In

contrast, Ellis (1997) points out that instruction serves to draw attention to items that do not conform to expectations and may, therefore, not be noticed.

2. **Frequency.** A language feature may become frequent due to repeated instruction or by way of teacher talk. As such, when the item does appear more frequently in the input, the likelihood that an item will be noticed and integrated into the interlanguage system is increased (Schmidt, 1990). Also, as Skehan (1998) suggests, at times, learners' attentional resources are stretched, and a form may, on occasion, go unnoticed. Therefore, the more frequent an item, the greater the number of opportunities for noticing exists.
3. **Perceptual salience.** The more prominent a language form at the input, the greater the chance it will be noticed (Skehan, 1998). It stands to reason, therefore, that the less salient a form, the less likely it is to be noticed and such forms include those morphemes that are bound, contracted, or unstressed (Slobin, 1985).
4. **Skill Level.** According to Schmidt (1990), skill level includes how well individuals are able to routinize previously met structures. This processing ability, in turn, determines how ready learners are to notice new forms in the input. Another relevant factor Schmidt identifies is an individual's ability to attend to both form and meaning in L2 processing. Noticing ability varies; some learners are better "input processors," as they have a larger working memory capacity or due to their superior speed of analytical processing within working memory (Skehan, 1998).
5. **Task demands**. Task demands refer to the way in which an instructional task causes learners to notice particular features that are necessary in order to carry out that task (Schmidt, 1990). Ellis (1997) suggests that language features may be made

> intentionally prominent or the task is designed to "force" learners to process the language. Also, Skehan (1998) points out that noticing may be more or less likely depending on whether the level of processing that the task demands are low, such as in the exchange of familiar information or high, as in a task that requires imaginative and abstract decision-making (p.3-4).

All the factors listed above are related to instruction, and whether or not learners notice the form of language highly depends on how teachers carry out classroom activities. The importance of instruction for adult language learners was already addressed earlier, and the Noticing Hypothesis contributes to elevating the status of instruction in adult SLA. The Noticing Hypothesis concerns that language instruction needs to be completed by selective conscious attention to form since meaning-focused instruction alone seems to be unable to bring about the acquisition of language form (Bielak and Pawlak, 2013). Noticing can take place at any time or interval by focalizing on the samples of input and output tasks of learners through which learners become aware of their gap in their interlanguage (Swain, 2000; Schmidt, 2001). Ögeyik (2018) also pointed out that there seems to be a link between the act of noticing certain forms in the input and the emergence of the noticed forms in the output, which is a kind of circulation prompted through interventions in teaching and learning processes.

Various studies focused on interventions using noticing treatments were carried out since the Noticing Hypothesis was proposed. Ögeyik (2018) classified 41 studies published between 2008-2016 and put forth some interesting facts: the largest part of focal mode of noticing treatment (64.3%) is on grammar; a large amount efforts made for developing the language skill is speaking (in 12 studies — approximately 28%), reading (9 studies–21 %) and writing (8 studies–19 %), while the rest varies among listening skill (only 2 studies; as for the countries

where the studies were carried out, most of the studies in this review were carried out in the Middle East and Far East (79 %), which implies that noticing is mostly embraced by non-western countries; all of the studies are conducted with adolescent and adult second language learners; noticing treatments have constructive and potential influence on the learners' language development. In other words, noticing treatments to direct learners' attention to the language form as well as meaning is very effectual among adult learners.

Pedagogical implementations of the Noticing Hypothesis

The relationship between conscious awareness and language learning is one of the significant concerns in applied linguistics because of its importance for pedagogy (Schmidt, 1993b). The Noticing Hypothesis has contributed to language teaching and led to various pedagogical implementations such as consciousness-raising tasks, enhanced input, enriched input, negative/positive evidence, and so on to boost noticing during the learning process (Bielak and Pawlak, 2013; Gass et al. 2013). Additionally, in the process, a variety of feedback types during the task implementation is provided to continue noticing (Gass and Selinker, 2008). Ogeyik (2018) elaborates on the features of a variety of noticing treatments in SLA, as given in Table 2.

Table 2.

Noticing treatments

	Features
Input Enhancement	Improvements of language input - Visual input: textual manipulation such as highlighting linguistic features by underlining, using boldface or italics - Oral input: oral repetition, using intonation, stress, pitch, etc.
Enriched Input	Increasing the frequency of the input/flooding the input

Corrective Feedback	Any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect and opportunities to compare their production with the feedback and may encourage them to reformulate the incorrect linguistic form. - Implicit feedback/recasts: given without overt indicator that an error has been committed, restating or rephrasing a learner's incorrect utterance fo correcting implicitly (Lightbown and Spada, 1990;Lightbown and Spada, 2013) - Explicit feedback: pointing out the correct form explicitly (Ortega, 2009; Shirazi and Sadighi, 2012) - Metalinguistic feedback: providing various comments, information, or questions relevant to the leaner's utterance (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) - Clarification requests: makes requests to learners for clarifying their utterance(s), thus making them notice the ill-formed utterance(s) (Gass and Selinker,2008) - Elicitation: asking some questions to evoke learners' attention and to elicit the correct form (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) - Repetition: Teachers repeat the erroneous utterance by using appropriate intonation to attract the learners' attention to the error (Ellis, 2009; Bahrami, 2010)
Consciousness-Raising Tasks	- Drawing learners' attention receptively to linguistic features and facilitate learners to identify linguistic features through hypothesis formulation and control what they are doing and how they can reflect on what they are doing with eventual goals instead of immediate mastery (Ellis, 1993)
Positive/Negative Evidence	- While positive evidence is based on the language forms that actually occur, negative evidence deals with the incorrectness of a form (Gass and Selinker, 2008).
Input and Output Processing	- Input processing is implemented through focused practice after getting the input and turning the information into output. - Interrelated with input processing, the learner who is exposed to production by being pushed to create their own utterances in interlanguage processing can be more able to pay attention to linguistic features (VanPatten, 1996; Ellis, 1997).
self-generated or self-confronted tasks	- Heightening the awareness or noticing of learners toward their performance through self- assessment.
Stimulated recall	- introspective method for exploring target language learning process - learners' report of thinking about a task or activity after some interval. (Egi, 2010)
task repetition	- learners are asked to perform the task over again to check the improved performance in the repeated task (Birjandi and Ahangari, 2008; Hawkes, 2011).

Note. Adopted from The comparative effectiveness of noticing in language learning by Muhlise Cosgun Ogeyik, 2018, *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 56*(4), 377-400.

Ogeyik (2018) also noted the various treatments used to foster noticing in many studies within the Noticing Hypothesis framework. As displayed in Figure 1, two types of processing activities – input processing and output processing were implemented to provide circumstances for boosting noticing levels of the participants. "The products in the output redeveloped into input sources in a circulation. In other words, the output can be pushed into subsequent input for learners to create automaticity of language use through teacher and learner interaction" (Ogeyik, 2018, p. 393).

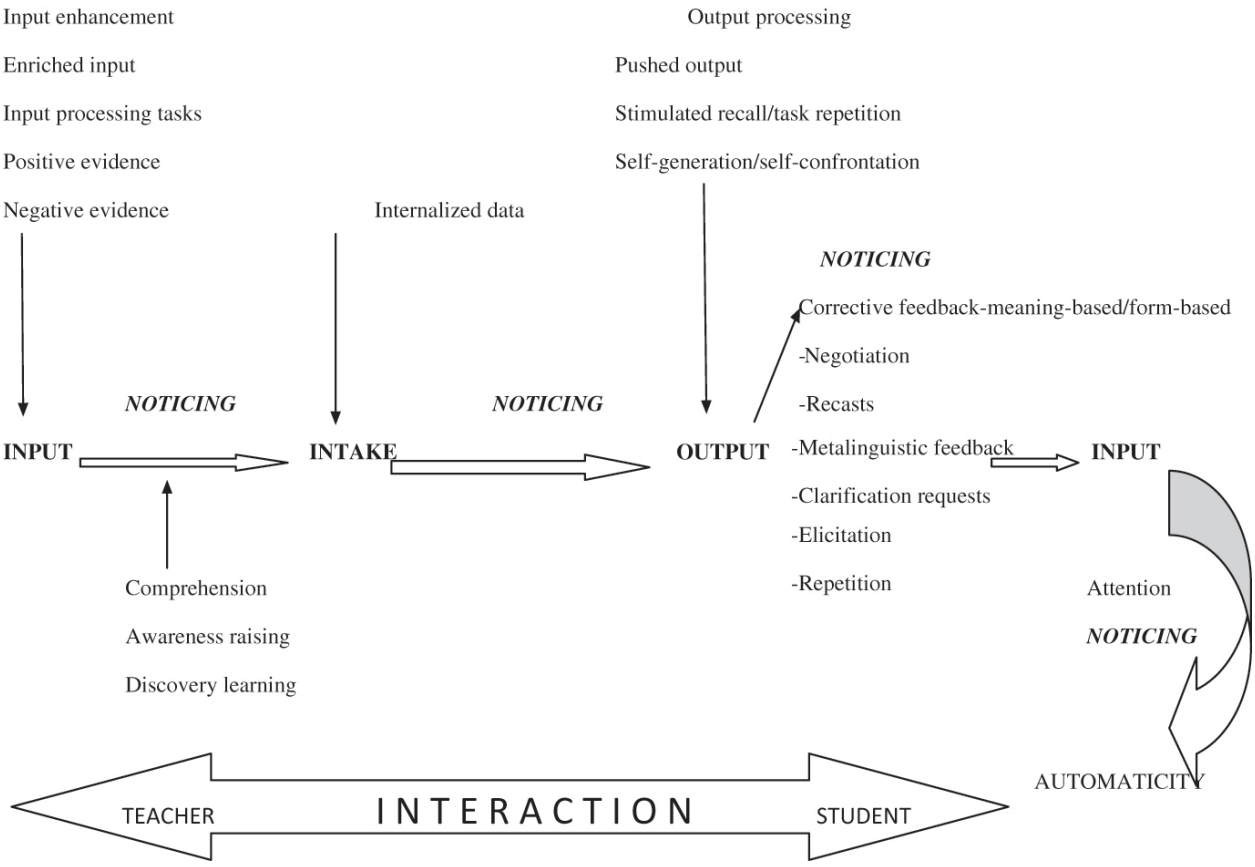

Figure 1. Treatments for fostering noticing. Cited from The comparative effectiveness of noticing in language learning by Muhlise Cosgun Ogeyik, 2018, *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 56*(4), 377-400, p.393.

Krashen's Five Hypothesis

Krashen (1981)'s five hypotheses in second language acquisition take a somewhat different stance from Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis. Krashen (1981) claimed that language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and it does not require a tedious drill. Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language – natural communication in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding. The best methods are, therefore, those that supply

comprehensible input in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but they allow students to produce when they are ready, recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production.

His main viewpoints are as follows:

1. The Acquisition-Learning Distinction: Adults have two different ways to develop competence in a language; language acquisition and language learning. Language acquirers develop a "feel" for correctness rather than being consciously aware of the grammatical rule of the grammatical rules of the language. Language learning, on the other hand, refers to the "conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them" (p.14). It can be compared to learning about a language. Adults do not lose the ability to acquire languages the way that children do. Too error correction has little effect on language acquisition.
2. The Natural Order Hypothesis: "The acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order" (p.15). For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early, others late, regardless of the first language of a speaker. This does not mean that grammar should be taught in this natural order of acquisition.
3. The Monitor Hypothesis: The language that one has subconsciously acquired "initiates our utterances in a second language and is responsible for our fluency," (p.18) whereas the language that we have consciously learned acts as an editor in situations where the learner has enough time to edit, is focused on form, and knows the rule, such as on a grammar test in a language classroom or when carefully writing a composition. This conscious editor is called the Monitor. Different individuals use their monitors in

different ways, with different degrees of success. Monitor Over-users try always to use their Monitor and end up "so concerned with correctness that they cannot speak with any real fluency" (p. 20). Monitor Under-users either have not consciously learned or choose not to use their conscious knowledge of the language. "Optimal Monitor users can, therefore, use their learned competence as a supplement to their acquired competence" (p. 21).

4. The Input Hypothesis: A language acquirer who is at "level I" must receive comprehensible input that is at "level i+1." "We acquire, in other words, only when we understand language that contains a structure that is 'a little beyond' where we are now" (p. 22). We should instead focus on communication that is understandable. If we do this, and if we get enough of that kind of input, then we will in effect be receiving and thus acquiring out i+1. "Production ability emerges. It is not taught directly" (p. 23).
5. The Affective Filter hypothesis: Motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety all affect language acquisition, in effect raising or lowering the stickiness or penetration of any comprehensible input that is received (p. 30).

Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis

Since the 1970s, the interest in affective factors has been raised in the field of foreign language learning and teaching. Many researchers have stressed the importance of understanding affective factors in second language learning. Arnold (2000, p. 2) asserted the importance with two reasons: firstly, "attention to affective aspects can lead to more effective language learning"; secondly, attention to affective aspects can contribute to the whole-person development, which is "beyond language teaching and even beyond what has traditionally been considered the academic realm". With the development of applied linguistics and psychological analysis,

researchers in SLA now turn to seek deeper psychological factors, that is, affective factors in second language learning. Learners' affective factors are obviously of crucial importance in accounting for individual differences in learning outcomes. "Whereas learners' beliefs about language learning are likely to be fairly stable, their affective states tend to be volatile, affecting not only overall progress but responses to particular learning activities on a day-by-day and even moment-by-moment basis." (Ellis, 1994, p. 483).

With the rising interest in affective factors, Dulay and Burt (1977) first proposed the affective filter hypothesis and explained its influence on the foreign language learning process. It is later incorporated by Krashen (1982) as one of his five input Hypotheses. Krashen (1982) explains that due to the affective filter, an acquirer "stops short (and sometimes well short) of the native speaker level (or "fossilize"; Selinker, 1972)" (p. 30). The affective filter acts to prevent input from being used for language acquisition, as illustrated in Figure 2. Krashen argued that affective filter is a kind of psychological obstacle that prevents language learners from absorbing available comprehensible input completely and reduces the amount of language input the learner is able to understand. In other words, affective factors determine the proportion of language learners' input and intake. In his theory, a number of affective variables play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. These variables include motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

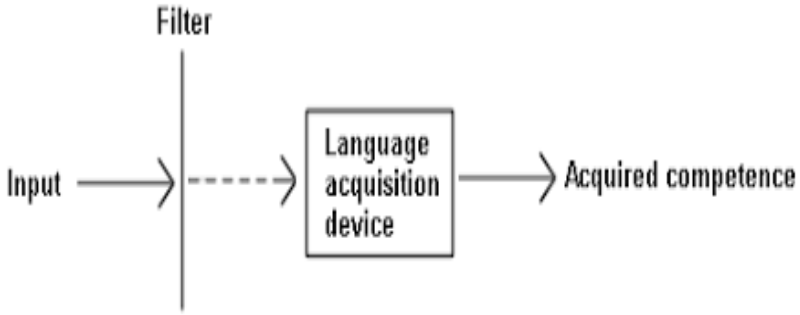

Figure 2. Operation of the "affective filter." Treatments for fostering noticing. Cited from Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*, p.30. Copyright 1982 by Stephen Krashen

Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. They have low filters and so receive and take in plenty of input. On the other hand, low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can combine to 'raise' the affective filter and form a 'mental block' or a high filter that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition, and therefore obtain little input. In other words, when the filter is 'up' it impedes language acquisition. The Affective Filter Hypothesis shows that the affective factors strongly influence the learners' input and the proportion of intake converted from the input.

Implications of the Affective Filter Hypothesis for Second/Foreign Language Teaching

The Affective Filter Hypothesis has significant implications for foreign language teaching. A low filter should be created and advocated for effective language teaching. Classrooms that encourage low filters are those that promote low anxiety among students, that keep students "off the defensive" (Stevick, 1976). Du, X. (2009, p.164) suggested ways to make use of the affective filter hypothesis in second language teaching as follows:

1. Analyze students' learning motivation, motivate them, and help them possess a positive attitude using a variety of tactics such as diverse teaching methods, vivid and humorous language to enlighten students, a harmonious and light atmosphere for learning, sharing culture and background knowledge of the target language, providing more opportunities to use the language in the classroom, encouraging them to attend social activities where the language is used outside the classroom and so on.
2. Boost up students learning confidence and lower their language anxiety through a delighted, lively, and friendly classroom atmosphere that helping students overcome their psychological barrier and lower their anxiety. Teachers should employ more encouragements and praises, encouraging student's active participation as well as allowing them to keep quiet when they don't feel ready; it is not effectual to push them to say something they are not ready or willing to say. A teacher should take into consideration the individual variations and teach them in accordance with them.

Based on the empirical study with fifty English major college students in China, Ni (2012) suggested that teachers need to pay extra attention to affective factors when giving feedback to students. According to the study, the most favored method of giving feedback among the participants is providing a clue and expecting self-repair (44.97%) that is followed by elicitation (23.03%), recast (18.97%), interrupting in time and explicit correction (9.94%). Two least preferred ways of error treatments were ignoring and correcting later and asking another student to answer instead. Therefore, learners' affective filters are influenced by teachers' feedback. Attempts should be made to lower the affective filter and let learners feel less stressed and more confident in a comfortable learning atmosphere.

Motivation in Second/Foreign Language Learning

Motivation is considered as the major source of variation in educational success. Good and Brophy (1994) stress that "You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink' (as cited in Dörnyei, Z, 1998, p. 204). In second/foreign language (L2) learning, motivation has also been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success (Dörnyei, Z, 1998). Without a student's sufficient motivations, the most remarkable abilities, appropriate curricula, and good teaching cannot ensure a student' achievement or long-term goals of learning the second language. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions. Gardner and Lambert (1972) emphasize motivational factors can override the aptitude effect and learning conditions. They focused on motivation as a significant predictor of variability in language learning success. Gardner (2010) contended that cognitive factors such as aptitude and ability and the "availability of learning opportunities" for learning the second language did not sufficiently explain the variability in achieving success in SLA (p. 26).

Because of the critical importance in language learning, L2 motivation has been the focus of a great deal of research during the past decades in SLA. However, there is not much agreement about the definition of the construct among the researches: Brown (1990) defines motivation as "the extent to which you will make choices about (1) goals to pursue, and (2) the effort you will devote to that pursuit" (p. 384); Keller (1983) identified motivation as what a person will do; Johnson (1979) referred to motivation as the "tendency to expend effort to achieve goals" (p. 283); Schunk (1990) defined it as the force that energizes and directs a behavior towards a goal.

Those different definitions on the same construct reflect the complexity and multifaceted-ness of L2 motivation. Accordingly, there have been diverse approaches, and they highlight different aspects of motivation. Gardener (2010) explained the complexity of motivation as follows:

> Motivation to learn a second language is not a simple construct. It cannot be measured by one scale; perhaps the whole range of motivation cannot be assessed by even three or four scales. It cannot be assessed by asking individuals to give reasons for why they think learning a language is important to them. (p. 9)

The multi-dimensional nature of L2 motivation is elaborated in Dörnyei (1998)'s synthesis of different L2 motivation constructs with seven dimensions (see Table 3.)

Table 3

Different Dimensions on L2 Motivation by Different Researchers

Dimension	Subconstruct	Researchers
Affective/integrative dimension	Integrative motive	Clement et al. (1994), Dörnyei (1990, 1994a), Gardner (1985a), Gardner(1985b)'s AMTB, Julkunen (1989)
	Affective motive	Schmidt et al. (1996: MDS)
	Language attitudes	Laine (1995), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997),
	Intrinsic motive / Attitudes toward L2 learning/Enjoyment/ Interest	AMTB, Dörnyei (1990,1994a), Gardner (1985a), Julkunen (1989), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995)*, Williams & Burden (1997)
Instrumental/pragmatic dimension		AMTB, Dörnyei (1990,1994a), Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Schumann (1998),

		Tremblay & Gardner (1995)*, Williams & Burden (1997)
Macro-context-related dimension		Laine (1995), Tremblay & Gardner (1995)
Self-concept-related dimension	Self-concept	Laine (1995), Schumann (1998), Williams & Burden (1997)
	Confidence /self-efficacy	Clement et al. (1994), Dörnyei (1994a), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)
	Anxiety/inhibitions	AMTB, Julkunen (1989), Laine (1995), Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Williams & Burden (1997)
	Success /failure-related (attributional)factor	Dornyei (1990, 1994a), Julkunen (1989), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA, MDS), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)
	Expectancy	Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: MDS)
	Need for achievement	Dornyei (1990,1994a), Oxford & Shearin (1994)
Goal-related dimension		Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: MDS), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)
Educational context-related dimension (learning/ classroom/school environment)		Clement at al. (1994), Dornyei (1994a), Julkunen (1989), Laine (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)
Significant others-related dimension (parents, family, friends)		AMTB, Williams & Burden (1997)
AMTB=Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery; MDS=Multi-dimensional scaling; FA=Factor analysis * Included as a subcomponent of the main factor		

Note. Adapted and modified from *Motivation in second and foreign language learnin*g by Dörnyei, p. 128. Copyright 1998 by Zoltán Dörnyei.

The multi-faceted nature of motivation has led to a variety of L2 motivation studies employing many new directions and methodological approaches over the decades. Until the 1990s, research on motivation had been largely dominated by the influential work of Gardner and Lambert (1972; Gardner, 1985a). Based on a social-psychological approach, Gardner (1985a) saw second languages as mediating factors between different ethnolinguistic communities in multicultural settings. Accordingly, he considered the motivation to learn the language of the other community as the primary force that is responsible for either enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation. Gardner and his Canadian associates had been investigating motivation in second language learning in the bicultural (French and English) setting of Canada since before 1959. Based on extensive empirical research, they formulated a complex model of L2 motivation and developed a standardized motivation battery, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), which operationalized the components of this model in measurable terms (Gardner, 1985b; Gardner and Clément, 1990; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). These studies shaped the motivation theory and research for the following 20 years. The socio-educational model will be discussed in-depth in the following section as the theoretical framework of this study.

Since the 1990s, with the rising interest in L2 motivation, a number of researchers attempted to reopen the research agenda in order to shed new light on L2 motivation. Three types of movements were observed in the studies on L2 motivation carried out since the 1990s: 1) endeavor to expand the theoretical L2 motivation framework; 2) description of the classroom dimension of L2 motivation; 3) and descriptive studies of L2 motivation in relation to socio-cultural factors and demographic factors.

First, concerning the L2 motivation framework, Oxford & Shearin (1994) endeavored to expand the theoretical framework of language learning motivations beyond Gardner's socio-educational model. Dörnyei (1990) also carried out research with learners of English in Hungary in foreign language context — English is taught as a foreign language, as opposed to the second language contexts upon which Gardner's theories have been based. Furthermore, Dörnyei (1998) has developed a framework of L2 motivation that incorporates various research findings into three main dimensions: Language Level, Learner Level, and Learning Situation Level.

The subcomponents of the dimensions are presented in Table 4. The most general level of the construct is the Language Level where the focus is on orientations and motives related to various aspects of the L2, such as the culture it conveys, the community in which it is spoken, and the potential usefulness of proficiency in it. The second level of the L2 motivation construct is the Learner Level, involving a complex of affects and cognitions that form fairly stable personality traits. The third level of L2 motivation is the Learning Situation Level, made up of intrinsic and extrinsic motives and motivational conditions concerning three areas: 1) course-specific motivational components – the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks; 2) teacher-specific motivational components including the affiliative drive to please the teacher, authority type, and direct socialization of student motivation– modeling, task presentation, and feedback; 3) group-specific motivational components – goal oriented-ness, norm and reward system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure.

Table 4

Components of foreign language learning motivation

Language Level	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
Learner Level	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence * Language Use Anxiety

	* Perceived L2 Competence
	* Causal Attributions
	* Self-Efficacy
Learning Situation Level	
Course-Specific	Interest
Motivational Components	Relevance
	Expectancy
	Satisfaction
Teacher-Specific	Affiliative Motive
Motivational Components	Authority Type
	Direct Socialization of Motivation
	* Modelling
	*Task Presentation
	* Feedback
Group-Specific	Goal-oriented-ness
Motivational Components	Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion
	Classroom Goal Structure

Note: Cited from Dörnyei, Z. (1998). *Motivation in second and foreign language learning. Language teaching, 31*(3), 117-135, p. 125. Copyright 1998 by Zoltán Dörnyei.

Secondly, numerous researchers carried out descriptive studies of L2 motivation in relation to socio-cultural factors and demographic factors in the 1990s (see Table 5). They are less concerned with motivation in isolation but rather examining the learners' motivational patterns in given socio-cultural or educational environment. The starting point for this research is the work of Crookes and Schmidt (1991). They argued that research on motivation in learning a second language should be not only general but also consider strategies that can be applied in a certain context. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggested that motivation in learning a second language dealt with the students' choice, engagement, and persistence. Oxford and Shearin (1994) supported Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) findings that students' motivation to learn a second/foreign language is broader than the distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. As research in motivation developed, researchers interested in how students are motivated to learn a second or foreign language have incorporated different theories, such as

reinforcement theory, self-determination theory, self-efficacy theory, expectancy-value theory, and goal theory (Dörnyei, 2010).

Table 5

Different Topics in relation to L2 Motivation by Different Researchers

Author(s)	Year	Topic
Coleman	(1994, 1995, 1996)	the L2 motivation of British university students as compared to students in Ireland, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Austria, and France
Dornyei, Nyilasi, and Clement	(1996)	8th-grade school children in terms of their motivation to learn five different target languages: English, German, French, Italian and Russian
Laine	(1995)	Two ethnic groups (Finland and Belgium)' motivation to learn the other speech community's language (the relationship between ethnolinguistic vitality, language-attitudes and L2 learning achievement)
Kuhlemeier, Bergh and Melse	(1996)	Dutch learners' attitudes towards German and its effect on the learners' final course achievement, learners' attitude difference between a communicative course and grammatically oriented course
Julkunen and Borzova	(1997)	Differences in the students' motivation to learn English
Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy	(1996)	Motivation and learning strategy use of adult Egyptian learners of English
Nakata	(1995a, 1995b)	Individual difference variable among Japanese learners, namely international orientation or cosmopolitan outlook
Julkunen Djigunovic	(1994) (1993)	Gender differences in learner motivation
Green	(1993)	Relationship of task enjoyment with task effectiveness
Djigunovic, Mihaljevic,	(1994) (1992)	Effect of appraisal of the language teacher on Croatian learners' motivation
Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret	(1997)	Effects of parental influence on motivation
Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels	(1994)	Relationship between learner motivation and group cohesiveness
Dornyei	(1994)	Teacher's

Note. Adapted and modified from Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language teaching, 31*(3), 117-135.

Thirdly, despite the impact of the socio-educational model of Gardner in the previous decade, "it was felt that the approach did not provide a sufficiently detailed description of the classroom dimension of L2 motivation" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 205). A more pragmatic, education-centered approach to L2 motivation has been taken by many researchers. Situation-specific motives that are closely related to classroom reality came to light. Brown's (1990) study focused on practical implications for motivating students. Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) explored the relationship between motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in a foreign language classroom. Dörnyei is one of the leading researchers who explored a new approach shedding light on the classroom dimension of L2 motivation.

Pointing out the relative lack of research devoted to motivating learners to the amount of research on L2 motivation, Dornyei and Csizer (1998) conducted a survey involving 200 Hungarian teachers of English from various language teaching institutions. The teachers were asked to complete questionnaires in which they were supposed to indicate how frequently they used 51 motivational strategies listed in the questionnaires. From the result of the questionnaires, Dornyei and Csizer (1998) concluded that ten major motivational strategies for direct classroom application or "Ten Commandments" underpinned motivation for second language learners (see table 6).

Table 6

Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners: final version

1. Set a personal example with your own behavior.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.

3. Present the tasks properly.
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners.
5. Increase learner's linguistic self-confidence.
6. Make the language classes interesting.
7. Promote learner autonomy.
8. Personalize the learning process.
9. Increase the learners' goal-oriented-ness.
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture.

Note: Adopted from Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (1998). *Ten commandments for motivating language learners: results of an empirical study*, p. 215. Copyright 1998 by Edward Arnold.

The results of the study made the concept of motivating learners more teacher-friendly and reiterated a need to raise teachers' awareness about the importance of motivating learners. Gardner and Tremblay (1994) also welcomed it as follows:

> We believe that many of the generalizations made by Dörnyei are valuable. We also believe, however, that it is valuable to conduct research in order to evaluate hypotheses. In this light, we would like to suggest that the various strategies that Dörnyei presents could well be considered hypotheses that could be treated in the context of second language acquisition. (cited in Dörnyei & Csizér,1998, p. 209).

The growing need to translate research results into practical terms results in rigorous studies in the L2 motivation discipline recently. The accomplishment of earlier research on L2 motivation aroused language instructors' awareness of the significant effect of L2 motivation. Now for application into language classrooms and their students, language instructors are more interested in how they can motivate their students than in what motivation is. Based on his research on second/foreign language motivation, Dornyei (2001) provided a summary of the available practical knowledge on motivating language learners with a total of 102 motivational strategies, called motivational teaching practice (MTP).

Motivational teaching practice systematizes the application of motivation into a circular system comprising four phases: 1) Creating the basic motivational conditions 2) Generating initial student motivation 3) Maintaining and protecting motivation 4) Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation (see Figure 3). It covers a wide range of areas from making more relevant teaching materials by setting specific learner goals to enhancing learner satisfaction. This cycle implies that student motivation should be built, generated, maintained, and encouraged (p. 29).

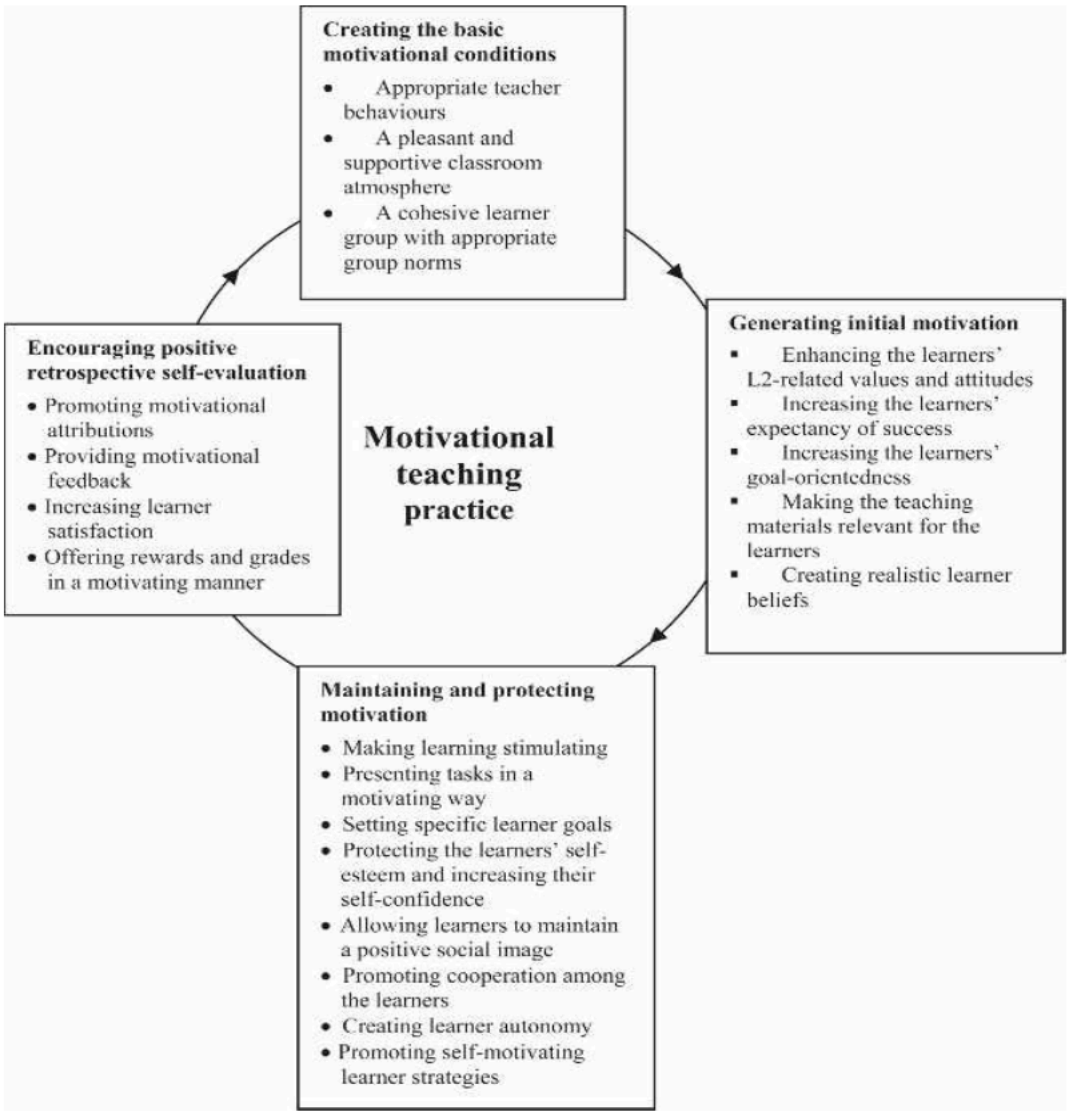

Figure 3. Components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom. From *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom* (p. 29), by Z. Do¨rnyei, 2001, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. Copyright 2001 by Cambridge University Press.

Over the decades, research on L2 motivation has made rigorous achievements; Dörnyei (1998) mentioned "these are indeed exciting times in motivation research, with enough food for thought for both researchers focusing on theoretical and measurement issues and methodologists interested in classroom implications and applications" (p.132). Dörnyei (2003) expected that

there will be “the time when the existing gap between linguistic and psychological approaches to the study of SLA has disappeared and the two research traditions can coexist in a complementary and integrative manner” (p. 27).

The Socio-educational model

L2 motivation research was initiated in Canada, and it was promoted by the Canadian government. The unique Canadian situation with the “coexistence of the anglophone and francophone communities speaking two of the world’s most vital languages” (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 4) drew L2 motivation researchers’ interest. Gardner and Lambert (1972) were pioneer researchers who studied the relationship between learners’ attitudes and motivation for second language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) regarded the motivation to learn the language of the other community as a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation. The researchers claimed that cultural contexts influence people’s attitudes and motivation in learning another culturally distinct language. Thus, the social, contextual, and pragmatic reasons are considered as critical elements to drive people to learn other languages.

Defining L2 motivation as the desire that individuals have and the satisfaction the individuals experience as they attempt to learn a language, Gardner and Lambert (1972) made the distinction between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation for foreign language learning. In their definition, integrative motivation is positive attitude toward the target language group and a willingness to integrate into the target language community. Integratively motivated learners have a desire to learn a language so as to integrate themselves with the target culture. On the other hand, instrumental motivation refers to practical reasons for learning a language, such as to gain social recognition or to get a better job. Instrumentally motivated learners learn a

language for practical and utilitarian purposes. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), integratively motivated learners are seen as having more enduring motivation for language learning and are therefore more likely to develop better communicative skills. On the contrary, instrumentally motivated learners may be more likely to see language learning as enabling them to do special tasks but as not holding personal meaning in itself (Gardner, 1985a). Gardner claimed that learners' effort, learners' desire to learn the language, and learners' satisfaction with learning are basic indicators of learner motivation; they are necessary to describe foreign language learning motivation.

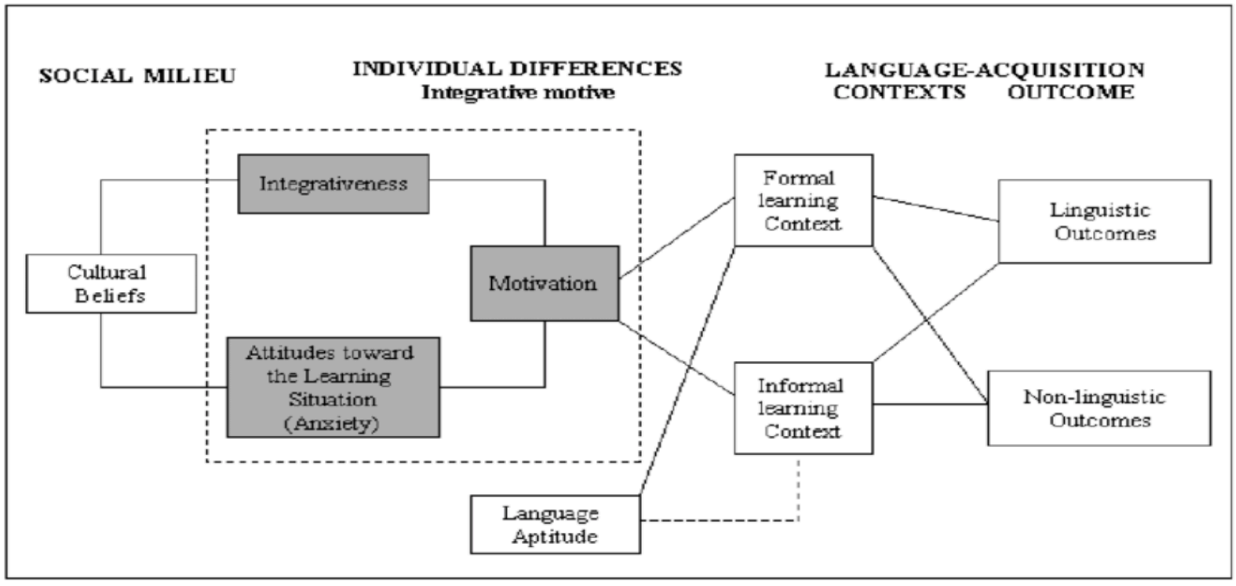

Figure 4. Gardner's Socio-educational Model. From *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation.* by R.C. Gardner, 1985, London, England: Edward Arnold. Copyright 1985 by Edward Arnold (1985a).

Garnder (1985a) established a model of motivation in second language learning called the socio-educational model, as illustrated in Figure 4. It has influenced various studies of L2 motivation to the present day. The model focused on the role of various individual differences in the learning of an L2. The social milieu is the starting point where learners have initial attitudes

towards the culture behind the L2. It refers to the individual's cultural beliefs or environment. The social milieu, in turn, influences both affective and cognitive individual differences among language learners as well as the strategies, which individuals use in acquiring the L2. Two classes of variables, integrative-ness, and attitudes toward the learning situation are said to contribute to the learner's level of motivation, and these three classes of variables— integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, learner's level of motivation are said to form integrative motive. Integrative motivation refers to a positive interpersonal /affective disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community (Dörnyei, 2003). The learning context refers to the setting where the language is being learned and the combination of formal language learning and informal language experience. Finally, when the learners have already acquired experience and knowledge of the L2, they obtain varying positive outcomes of both linguistic outcomes such as language skills, and a non-linguistic outcome like appreciation of the other culture.

The model, however, has undergone numerous revisions in response to calls for the "adoption of a wider vision of motivation" (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, p. 505). The new model depicts L2 motivation's function in the process of second and foreign language learning with a language attitudes motivational behavior achievement sequence (see Figure 5). Three mediating variables were incorporated between attitudes and behavior: goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy, which are adopted from expectancy-value and goal theories.

Even after the revision, from 1993 to 2010, the model's schema was rigorously modified to incorporate the variability in the external factors affecting L2 learning. The term "social milieu," for example, became "the external factors." More characteristics were added to describe the variables affecting each of the individual factors to capture the sub-processes underlying in each

of the individual factors. The revised model offers a "synthesis of Gardner's earlier, socially motivated construct and recent cognitive motivational theories, and demonstrates that additional variables can be incorporated into Gardner's socio-educational model of L2 learning without damaging its integrity" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 127). The revised socio-educational model is shown schematically in Figure 5.

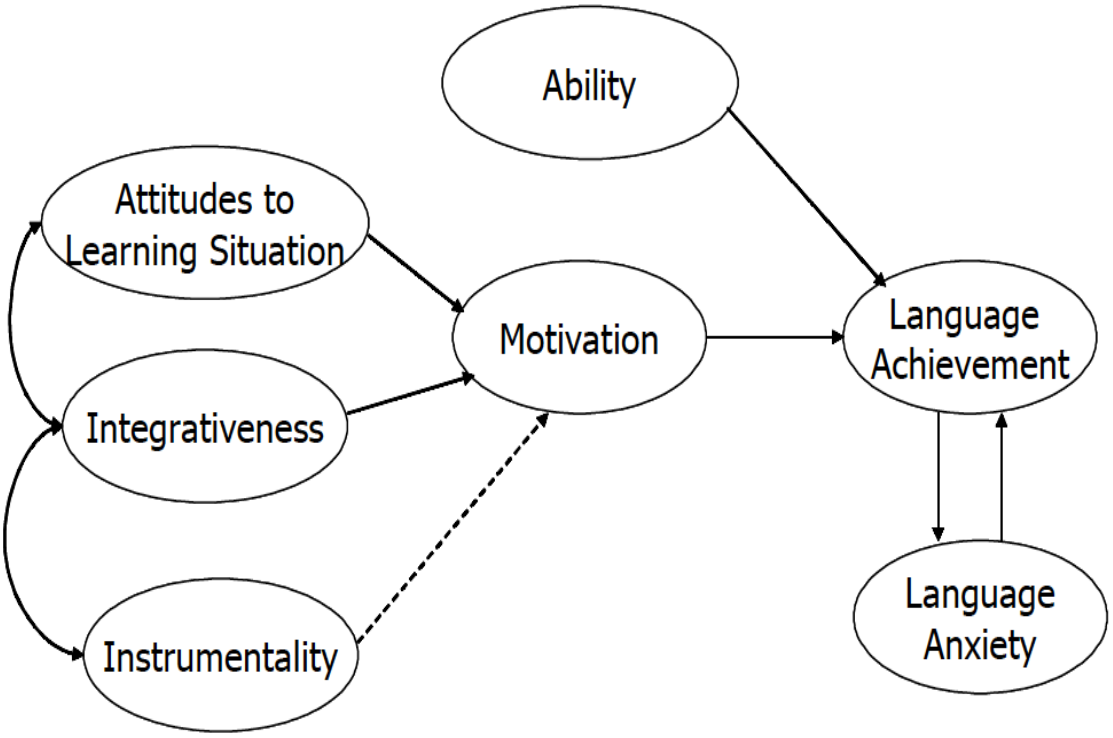

Figure 5. Revised Socio-educational Model. From *Integrative motivation and second language acquisition.* by R.C. Gardner, 2005, London, Canada.

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

Based on the socio-educational model, Gardner (1985b) developed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to assess various individual difference variables. Gardner (1985b) explained the reason for developing AMTB as follows:

> The goals of any second language program are partly linguistic and partly non- linguistic. The linguistic goals focus on developing competence in the individual's ability to read, write, speak, and understand the second language, and there are many tests available with which to assess these skills. Non-linguistic goals emphasize such aspects as improved understanding of the other community, desire to continue studying the language, an interest in learning other languages, etc. Very few tests have been made available to assess these non-linguistic aspects. The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery has been developed to fill this need (p.1).

The purpose of developing the AMTB is to quantitively measure the major affective components and their sub-units shown to be involved in second language learning as a research instrument to predict L2 performance of the learning (Gardner, 1985b).

It was widely applied in investigation in relation to three major topics: "1) the correlations of sub-tests and composited test scores with indices of language achievement and behavioral intentions to continue language study, 2) the effects of specific programs, excursions, etc., on attitudinal/motivational characteristics, and 3) the relation of attitudes and motivation to classroom behavior" (Gardner, 1985a, p. 5). Adaptations of the AMTB have been used in many studies of L2 motivation (e.g., Baker & Macintyre, 2000; Gardner, Day, & Macintyre, 1992; Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987; Gardner & Macintyre, 1991; Gardner & Macintyre 1993; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Gliksman, Gardner, & Smythe, 1982; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

The socio-educational model has generated many other predictions related to second language acquisition from a myriad of studies using the AMTB. Some of the major findings are (Gardner, 2005, p. 13):

1. Integrative motivation is predictive of classroom behavior in three grade levels of high school French instruction (Gliksman, Gardner, & Smythe, 1982).
2. Students who drop out of language study once it is no longer required are lower in motivation, integrativeness, and attitudes toward the learning situation (Gardner, 1983).
3. Structural Equation models support the socio-educational model as described (Gardner, 1985a).
4. Faster learning of English/French pairs is related to integrative motivation (Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorcroft, 1985).
5. Integrative and instrumental motivation are both related to the learning of English/French pairs (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991).
6. Integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation are factorially distinct (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).
7. The socio-educational model can incorporate other motivational variables in structural equations (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).
8. Attitudes and motivation influence state motivation which influences the rate of learning of English/Hebrew word pairs (Tremblay, Goldberg, & Gardner, 1995).

The AMTB is made up of over 130 items, comprising 11 subtests that can be grouped into five categories: attitudes toward the learning situation, integrative-ness, motivation, language anxiety, and instrumentality (see Figure 6). The details of each category are as follows (Gardner, 2005):

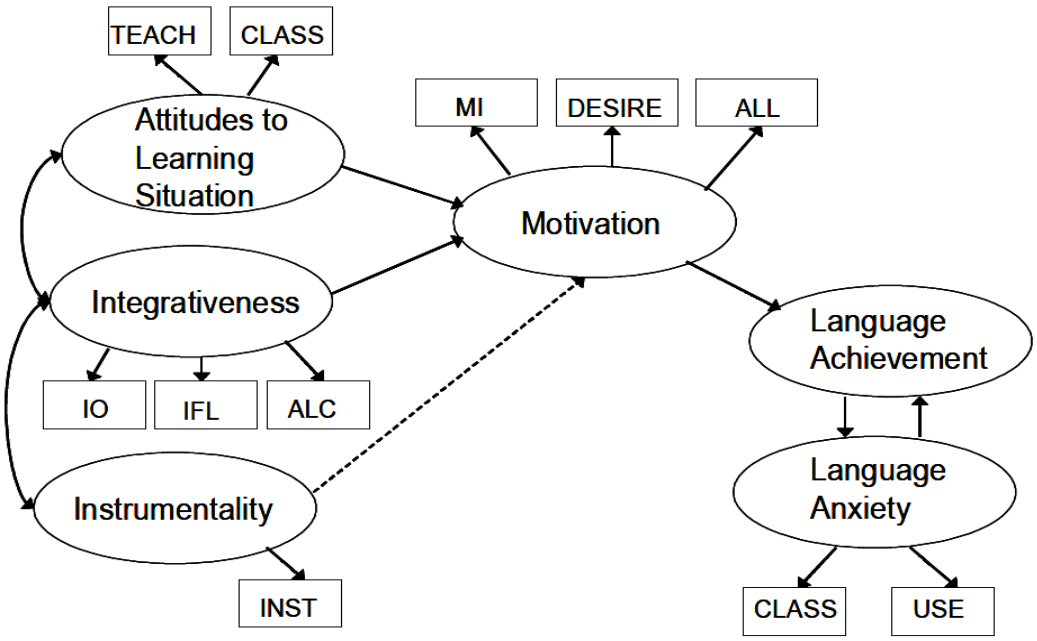

Figure 6. Revised Socio-educational Model with Indicator Variables. From *Integrative motivation and second language acquisition.* by R.C. Gardner, 2005, London, Canada.

Attitudes to Learning Situation. Attitudes to learning situation refer to affective reactions to any aspect of the class. In the AMTB, these attitudes are assessed in terms of the participants' evaluation of the teacher and the course. It could be reflected "in terms of class atmosphere, the quality of the materials, availability of materials, the curriculum, the teacher, etc." (p. 10). The two measures are Language teacher evaluation and Language course evaluation.

Integrative-ness. Integrative-ness represents group-related affective reactions. It reflects an openness to other cultures in general, and the target culture in particular. In the AMTB, it involves the individual's orientation to language learning that focusses on communication with members of the other language group, a general interest in foreign groups, especially through their language, and favorable attitudes toward the target language group. "Individual differences in integrative-ness probably are formed from the interplay of cultural factors, family beliefs and attitudes, child-rearing characteristics, and possibly even genetic predispositions" (p.10). Three

measures from the AMTB are Integrative orientation, Interest in foreign languages, Attitudes toward the language community.

Motivation. Three measures were selected as the fundamentals that best identify motivation: 1) effort and persistence, 2) the desire to learn the language, and 3) affective reactions to learning the language. The three scales in the AMTB used to assess motivation are: Motivational intensity, Desire to learn the language, and Attitudes toward learning the language.

Language Anxiety. Language anxiety involves anxiety reactions when called upon to use the second language. Anxiety about the language could result from more general forms of anxiety such as trait anxiety, previous unnerving experiences in language classes, or concern about deficiencies in language knowledge and skill. That is, language anxiety could have detrimental effects on learning, and inadequate skill could lead to feelings of anxiety. For the purposes of the socio-educational model, two broad situations were distinguished: the language class, and contexts outside of the classroom situation where the language might be used. Two measures are employed—Language class anxiety and Language use anxiety.

Gardner and Macintyre (1993) found that among attitudes, motivation, and anxiety, measures of both classroom anxiety and language use anxiety showed the strongest correlations with several language production measures including a cloze test, a composition task, and an objective proficiency measure.

Instrumentality. The notion of instrumentality refers to "conditions where the language is being studied for practical or utilitarian purposes" (p.11). The only measure to assess the notion is instrumental orientation. Instrumental orientation refers to an interest in learning the language for pragmatic reasons that do not involve identification with the other language community. It has been mentioned above in comparison with integrative-ness.

Table 7 presents a listing of the constructs assessed in the AMTB, the subtests that define each construct, and the number of items typically used in each subtest.

Table 7

Constructs and Scales of the AMTB

Construct 1:	Integrative-ness
Subtest 1:	Integrative orientation (4 items)
Subtest 2:	Interest in foreign languages (10 items)
Subtest 3:	Attitudes toward the target language group (10 items)
Construct 2:	Attitudes toward the Learning Situation
Subtest 4:	Evaluation of the language instructor (10 items)
Subtest 5:	Evaluation of the language course (10items)
Construct 3:	Motivation
Subtest 6:	Motivation intensity (10 items)
Subtest 7:	Desire to learn the language (10 items)
Subtest 8:	Attitudes toward learning the language (10 items)
Construct 4:	Instrumental Orientation
Subtest 9:	Instrumental orientation (4 items)
Construct 5:	Language Anxiety
Subtest 10:	Language class anxiety (10 items)
Subtest 11:	Language use anxiety (10 items)

Note. Adopted from *Integrative motivation and second language acquisition.* by R. C. Gardner, p. 8-9. Copyright 2001 by Robert C. Gardner.

The test generally instructs participants to rate a set of statements on a scale of 1 to 7 (i.e., least likely to most likely), and on a 6-level Likert Scale (i.e., strongly disagree to strongly agree). Different statements correspond to a specific variable (or main factor), and the total scores from those sets are calculated to determine how much of that variable is influencing the language learning of the participants. Like the model, however, the AMTB has also been revised over the years.

Reliability and Validity of the AMTB

Gardner presented the reliability and validity information of the AMTB in the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery: Technical Report (Gardner, 1985b).

Reliability

Internal consistency/reliability. First, concerning reliability, the Cronbach coefficient α assesses the degree of homogeneity (internal consistency) of the items within each scale or internal consistency. According to the report (Technical Report), "the range of the 544 coefficients presented is from .13 to .97, 483 or 89% exceed a value of .70. And the median reliability for the total is .85. The measure of Instrumental Orientation is the least reliable scale for four of the five grade levels presented, and in fact 29 of the 61 coefficients with values less than .70 are associated with this scale. The remaining low reliability coefficients are scattered throughout the result table. Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that the one scale with relatively lower reliability is that for Instrumental Orientation" (p. 6). Although the reliability coefficients for Instrumental Orientation are lower than those for the other scales, they are nonetheless acceptable. "The median reliability for Instrumental Orientation is .62" (p.7). In general, the internal consistency reliability of the majority of scales is substantial.

Test-Retest Reliability. Estimates of test-retest reliability were determined by correlating scores from two administrations of the test with an interval of approximately one year. With such a large time interval, the 72 reliability coefficients for reactions to the French teacher range from -.01 to .59 with a median of .32; for the French course, they range from .14 to .76 with a median of .50. The reliabilities for the remaining nine measures are substantially higher. The median of the 162 values presented is .61, with 84% of the coefficients exceeding .50. Furthermore, of the 26 values which are less than .50, the majority are due to two scales: 1) Instrumental Orientation which has already been described as having lower internal consistency than the other measures, and 2) Attitudes toward European French People. Gardner (1985b) speculated that the test itself may not be unreliable, but rather that the underlying attitude is subject to change over time.

Gardner (1985b) concludes about the reliability, "Taken together the two sets of reliability coefficients would seem to warrant the generalization that the scales of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery demonstrate a reasonable level of reliability" (p. 9).

Validity

Validity is defined as "an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores or other modes of assessment" (Messick, 1989, p. 13).

Predictive Validity. Not all the scales included in the Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery are expected to evidence a high correlation with the various criteria. It would be predicted that some scales would relate more highly to some criteria than others. But considerable research has documented the predictive validity of the test battery such as Clement, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; 1981; Gliksman, 1981; Lalonde, 1982.

Construct Validity. Construct validation involves a series of operations designed to determine the psychological reality of a variable or construct (Nunnally, 1978; Crano & Brewer, 1973). Convergent validity is demonstrated whenever a scale correlates with other measures with which it should correlate if the theoretical formulation underlying the construct is correct (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Gardner (1985b) presents considerable data relevant to the convergent validity of the scales and composite indices. These measures correlate meaningfully with indices of achievement in the second language, persistence in second language study, participation in inter-ethnic contact situations, and specific behaviors in the language classroom. Discriminant validity is demonstrated whenever a scale is shown not to correlate with measures with which it should not correlate if the theory underlying the construct is correct (Gardner, 1985b). The scales in the AMTB correlate well with indices of the L2 achievement, and they do

not correlate with other indices of intellectual achievement. It indicates that the Attitude/Motivation Battery has high discriminant validity.

In general, the reliability and validity for these various measures of the AMTB have been supported by much of the research (Gliksman,1976,1981; Lalonde & Gardner,1984; Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorcroft, 1985; Gardner & Lysynchuk, 1990; Gardner & Macintyre, 1991; Gardner & Gliksman, 1982; Gardner & Macintyre, 1993).

The mini-AMTB (Attitude/Motivation Test Battery)

A short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (the mini-AMTB) has recently been introduced to reduce administration time while maintaining the basic conceptual structure of the original version. This Guilford style instrument measured the eleven variables in the original AMTB using single-item indicators each on a 7-point rating scale. Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorcroft (1985) used the Campbell and Fiske (1959) multi-trait/multimethod approach to investigate the relationship between two different measures: one measure was based on a Likert (1932) format and the other on a Guilford (1954) single-item format. In general, the correlations of the two measures of the same variable were high, indicating that by and large, they measured comparable constructs.

Several studies have successfully employed the mini-AMTB (e.g., Baker & Macintyre, 2000; Gardner & Macintyre, 1993; Macintyre & Charos, 1996; Macintyre & Noels, 1996; Masgoret, Bernaus & Gardner, 2001). In spite of the potential problems with single-item measures, Gardner and Macintyre (1993) have shown that this instrument has acceptable concurrent and predictive validity. Since the original AMTB was written with regard to attitudes toward learning French and French Canadians, it was modified to refer to attitudes toward learning English and English speakers.

Second/Foreign Language Teaching Approaches

So far, learner-related issues were reviewed in light of adult second/foreign language learning. Now, it will move on to the teacher-related issues concerning second/foreign language teaching. The field of second (or foreign) language teaching has undergone many fluctuations and dramatic shifts over the years. Language teaching is "a field where fads and heroes have come and gone in a manner fairly consistent with the kinds of changes that occur in youth culture" (Celce-Murcia, 1991a, p. 3). "A myriad of approaches has been directed by a search for the right one that would work with all learners in all contexts. And there never was and probably ever will be a method for all." (Nunan, 1991, p. 228). It has been noted that no single method has been sufficient to deal with the great variety of circumstances, types of learners, and levels of instruction that constitute second language pedagogy (Stern, 1992). So instead of a one-size-fits-all solution of using a single approach everywhere, as many prestigious language teachers suggest, an approach for enlightened eclectics (Brown, 1994) should be sought. Along with a good understanding of the principles and practices of different approaches and methods that have come and will be developed; such knowledge on the origins of different approaches and methods will give some healthy perspective in evaluating the so-called innovations or new approaches to methodology that will continue to emerge over time (Celce-Murcia, 1991a). Conteh-Morgan, M. (2002) also emphasizes awareness of theories of second language learning and approaches to teaching because principle-based teaching methods can be more applicable to many other learning situations.

Grammar-Translation Approach

By the beginning of the 19th century, the systematic study of the grammar of Classical Latin and of classical texts had taken over in schools and universities throughout Europe. The

analytical grammar-translation approach became firmly entrenched, as a method for teaching not only Latin but modern languages as well. According to Celce-Murcia (1991a), the key features of the grammar-translation approach are:

1. Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
2. There is little use of the target language.
3. Focus is on grammatical parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words.
4. There is an early reading of difficult classical texts.
5. A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
6. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
7. The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language (p. 5).

Direct Method

Then, again, the pendulum continued to swing to the other direction, the Direct Method, by the end of the 19th century. The Direct Method once more stressed the ability to use rather than to analyze a language as the goal of language instruction. They started from a belief that a language cannot be taught, and teachers can only create conditions for learning to take place. Celce-Murcia (1991a) outlined the features as follows:

1. No use of the mother tongue is permitted (i.e., the teacher does not need to know the students' native language).
2. Lessons begin with dialogs and anecdotes in a modern conversational style.
3. Actions and pictures are used to make meanings clear.
4. Grammar is learned inductively.

5. Literary texts are read for pleasure and are not analyzed grammatically.
6. The target culture is also taught inductively.
7. The teacher must be a native speaker or have nativelike proficiency in the language (p. 6).

The Audiolingual Method (ALM)

World War II made it imperative for the U.S. military to teach foreign language learners how to speak and understand a language quickly and efficiently. At this time, the audio-lingual approach, which drew heavily on structural linguistics and behavioral psychology, was born. The Audiolingual Method (ALM) was firmly based on the linguistics and psychological theory of the 1940s and 1950s: structural linguistics that advocated a scientific descriptive analysis of various languages and behavioral psychology that highlighted conditioning and habit-formation models of learning. The main characteristics of the ALM are as follows (Celce-Murcia, 1991a):

1. Lessons begin with dialogs.
2. Mimicry and memorization are used, based on the assumption that language is habit formation.
3. Grammatical structures are sequenced, and rules are taught inductively.
4. Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking, reading, writing postponed.
5. Pronunciation is stressed from the beginning.
6. Vocabulary is severely limited in the initial stages.
7. A great effort is made to prevent learner errors.
8. Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context.
9. The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, etc. that s/he is teaching since learning activities and materials are carefully controlled (p. 6).

Savignon (2001) explained that in those years, four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) were treated as separate skills as if they had boundaries around them and could be improved in isolation, not regarding complexity or their interrelatedness. Moreover, being preoccupied with surface structural features hindered them from paying appropriate attention to deep semantic structures.

Cognitive Approach

Human language is not just a repetition of what they have heard or practiced. Human's creativity of unheard sentences is a huge issue. It is not surprising to see that there were many researchers who debunked Behaviorism based language teaching practices. In the 1960s and the 1970s, the so-called, Innatists don't see language development as being influenced by the response to environmental stimuli. Chomsky played the initiative role in criticizing the tenets of Behaviorism. Chomsky's (1965) rebuke on ALM was a great starter for language teachers to think about communication and language. Chomsky constructs the notion that all humans are born with a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) that provides them with the innate ability to process linguistic rules. The LAD enables the children to have linguistic competence that is the knowledge of the underlying system of grammatical rules. He asserts that children piece together the grammar of the language as they go through the natural developmental process. The cognitive approach, as a reaction to the behaviorist features of the audiolingual approach, became dominant in SLA in the 1970s and 1980s. Bickerton (1981) also proposed that human beings are bio-programmed to proceed from stage to stage. People are innately programmed to release certain properties of language at certain developmental ages.

The Cognitive Approach that views language is rule-governed cognitive behavior (not habit formation) has the following key principles (Celce-Murcia, 1991a) :

1. Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation.
2. Instruction is often individualized; learners are responsible for their own learning.
3. Grammar must be taught, but it can be taught deductively (rules first, a practice later) and/or inductively (rules can either be stated after practice or left as implicit information for the learners to process on their own).
4. Pronunciation is de-emphasized; perfection is viewed as unrealistic.
5. Reading and writing are once again as important as listening and speaking.
6. Vocabulary instruction is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels.
7. Errors are viewed as inevitable, something that should be used constructively in the learning process.
8. The teacher is expected to have good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language. (p.7)

Affective-Humanist Approach

As a reaction to the general lack of affective considerations in both the audiolingual approach and cognitive approach, the affective humanist approach stresses the affective (emotional) development of the students (Benseler & Schulz, 1980). Learning a foreign language is a process of self-realization and of relating to other people. The approach utilizes special group interaction techniques. The representative methods of this approach are community language learning, suggestopedia, the total physical response method, and the silent way. Celce-Murcia (1991a) explained the characteristics of the approach as follows:

1. Respect is emphasized for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his/her feelings.
2. Communication that is meaningful to the learner is emphasized.
3. Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups.

4. The class atmosphere is viewed as more important than materials or methods.
5. Peer support and interaction is needed for learning.
6. Learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization experience.
7. The teacher is viewed as a counselor or facilitator.
8. The teacher should be proficient in the target language and the student's native language since translation may be used heavily in the initial stages to help students feel at ease; later it is gradually phased out. (p.7)

Comprehension-Based Approach

Due to the outgrowth of research in first language acquisition, the comprehension approach methodologists during the 1970s and 1980s recreate the first language acquisition experience for the second/foreign language learner (Winitz, 1981). They claimed that comprehension is primary and that it should thus precede any production. "Comprehension can best be taught initially by delaying production in the target language while encouraging the learner to use meaningful nonverbal responses to demonstrate comprehension" (Celce-Murcia, 1991b, p. 461). Language acquisition occurs if and only if the learner comprehends meaningful input. They propose that all grammar instruction be excluded from the classroom since they feel that it does not facilitate language acquisition; at best it merely helps learners to monitor or become aware of the forms they use (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

The comprehension-based approach has these features (Celce-Murcia, 1991a):

1. Listening comprehension is very important and is viewed as the basic skill that will allow speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time, given the right conditions.

2. Learners should begin by listening to meaningful speech and by responding nonverbally in meaningful ways before they produce any language themselves.
3. Learners should not speak until they feel ready to do so; this results in better pronunciation than when the learner is forced to speak immediately,
4. Learners progress by being exposed to meaningful input that is just one step beyond their level of competence.
5. Rule learning may help learners monitor (or become aware of) what they do, but it will not aid their acquisition or spontaneous use of the target language.
6. Error correction is seen as unnecessary and perhaps even counterproductive; the important thing is that the learners can understand and can make themselves understood.
7. If the teacher is not a native speaker (or near-native), appropriate materials such as audiotapes and videotapes must be available to provide the appropriate input for the learners. (p.7)

Communicative Approach

The work of anthropological linguists such as Hymes (1972) and functional linguists, Halliday (1973) influenced language teaching. They viewed language as an instrument of communication, which is adopted by Widdowson (1978) and Wilkins (1976) into language teaching; they claimed that communication should be the goal of second or foreign language instruction. They also reiterated the importance of communication in organizing a language course; grammar should not be the central principle in organizing a language course but "subject matter, tasks or semantic notions and/or pragmatic functions" should do the work (Celce-Murcia, M.,1991b, p. 462).

There were many researchers who advocated the significance of communication in language instruction (Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit & Johnson, 1979; Breen & Candlin, 1980; Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1983). Hymes (1972) published an essay on communicative competence, and in 1980, Canale and Swain provided the theoretical bases of communicative competence (CC). They proposed four major components of CC (Canael & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; cited from Brown & Lee, 2015, p. 30) as follows:

1. **Grammatical.** Knowledge of and ability to use the forms of language.
2. **Discourse.** Knowledge of and ability to comprehend and produce stretches of the language across sentences in both oral and written modes.
3. **Sociolinguistic.** Applying sociocultural contexts to communication, including participants' roles, the information they share, and the functions of a communicative act.
4. **Strategic.** Use of verbal and nonverbal tactics to accomplish a communicative goal, including compensation for breakdowns.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was a byword in language teaching. Brown & Lee (2015) evaluated CLT as follows: "Today CLT continues to be recognized globally as what is best described as a broadly-based approach (not a method) to language teaching that interweaves a cluster of principles and foundation stones of SLA" (p. 31). They offered seven interconnected characteristics as a description of CLT.

Characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching (Brown & Lee, 2015)

1. **Overall goals.** CLT suggests a focus on all of the components (grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic) of communicative competence. Goals, therefore, must

inter-wine the organizational (grammatical, discourse) aspects of language with the pragmatic (sociolinguistic, strategic) aspects.

2. **Relationship of form and function.** Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus but remain as important components of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
3. **Fluency and accuracy**. A focus on students' flow of comprehension and production and a focus on the formal accuracy of production are seen as complementary principles. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use. At other times the student will be encouraged to attend to correctness. Parts of the teachers' responsibility is to offer appropriate corrective feedback on learners' errors.
4. **Focus on real-world contexts**. Students in a communicative class ultimately have to use the language, productively, and receptively in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom. Classroom tasks must, therefore, equip students with the skills necessary for communication in those contexts.
5. **Autonomy and strategic involvement.** Students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through raising their awareness of their own styles (strengths, weaknesses, preferences) of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for production and comprehension. Such awareness and action will help to develop autonomous learners capable of continuing to learn the language beyond the classroom and the course.

6. **Teacher roles.** The role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide, not an all-knowing font of knowledge. The teacher is an empathetic coach who values the best interests of students' linguistic development. Students are encouraged to construct meaning through genuine linguistic interaction with other students and with the teacher.
7. **Student roles.** Students are active participants in their own learning process. Learner-centered, cooperative, collaborative learning is emphasized, but not at the expense of appropriate teacher-centered activity. (p.30)

Summarizing one and a half centuries of meandering history of SLA, Brown & Lee (2015) contended that "We did not allow history simply to deposit new dunes exactly where the old ones lay" (p. 34). Reflecting the cumulative history enables us to appreciate major key beneficial elements for successful language teaching such as doing language interactively, the emotional as well as cognitive side of learning, absorbing language automatically, analyzing the language consciously when useful and appropriate, directing learners' attention to real-world where they will use the language communicatively. Celce-Murcia (1991a) also shed light on the fruits of the earlier approaches, especially, the four more recent approaches: cognitive, affective-humanistic, comprehension, and communicative approach and implied the possibility of such an integrated approach "which would include attention to rule formation, affect, comprehension, and communication and which would view the learner as someone who thinks, feels, understands, and has something to say" (p. 8).

Endeavors towards integrating key factors into communicative language teaching

Integrating grammar instruction. Over time, grammar has been a controversial issue that drives language teaching into two extremely opposing sides: using a language approach and analyzing a language approach. As Rutherford (1987) points out, "for 2,500 years, the teaching of grammar had often been identified with foreign language teaching" (cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991b, p. 459). Then, the audiolingual approach excludes grammar instruction totally and emphasizes using the language rather than analyzing it. The pendulum then was headed towards the approach that views language learning as rule-governed behavior. The debate over grammar instruction in SLA seemed to be endless; however, in the mid-1970s, there was a more integrated approach which entitles grammar as one of the four pivotal elements of communicative competence. There is a great difference between the way grammar was viewed before 1967 and the way it is viewed today.

Prior to 1967, grammar was either overly emphasized or totally ignored. However, existing research such as Long (1983), Rutherford & Sharwood (1988), Higgs & Clifford (1982), Selinker (1972) strongly suggest that some focus on form or grammar may well be necessary for many learners to achieve accuracy as well as fluency in their acquisition of a second or foreign language (Celce-Murcia, 1991b). However, Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) also clarify that grammar should never be taught as a goal in itself but always with references to meaning, functions or social factors, or discourse—or a combination of these factors.

Pedagogical strategy. Celce-Murcia (1985) provides guidelines on integrating grammar into language classes, concerning 1) learner variables – age, proficiency level, and educational background, and 2) instructional variables – educational objectives, register, and medium of language, and learner need. According to the guidelines, when teaching beginning-level adults

who are preliterate and in need of survival communication skills, focus on form is not a top priority of the language instruction. On the other hand, when teaching literate young adults who are in college and at the high-intermediate proficiency level, some focus on form is essential. The key principle of integrating grammar into communicative language teaching is that grammar is resources for creating meaning through text and for negotiating socially motivated communication (Celce-Murcia, 1991b).

Integrating learners.

Cooperative Learning. Cooperative Learning is gaining broad acceptance in language learning classrooms recently. It is a systematic instructional method in which students work together in small groups to accomplish shared learning goals. Compared with competitive and individualistic efforts, a large amount of research revealed that cooperation has positive effects on a wider range of outcomes (Johnson & Johnson, 1991, 2000; Slavin, 1995; Kagan, 1999).

The main differences between cooperative language learning and traditional language teaching are illustrated in table 8. Cooperative language learning shares the same basic principles with the Communicative Language Teaching and incorporates the communicative and affective factors in language learning. It focuses on how to use the knowledge of the language, including grammatical rules and vocabularies to express or narrate thoughts and ideas.

Table 8

Comparison of Cooperative Language Learning and Traditional Language Teaching

	Traditional language teaching	Cooperative language learning
Independence	None or negative	Positive
Learner roles	Passive receiver and performer	Active participator, autonomous learners
Teacher roles	The center of the classroom, Controller of teaching pace and direction, judge of students' right or wrong, the major source of assistance, feedback, reinforcement and support.	Organizer and counselor of group work, facilitator of the communication tasks, intervener to teach collaborative skills.
Materials	Complete set of materials for each student.	Materials are arranged according to purpose of lesson. Usually one group shares a complete set of materials.
Types of activities	Knowledge recall and review, phrasal or sentence pattern practice, role play, translation, listening etc.	Any instructional activity, mainly group work to engage learners in communication, involving processes like information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction.
Interaction	Some talking among students, mainly teacher-student interaction	Intense interaction among students, a few teacher-student interaction
Room arrangement	Separate desks or students placed in pairs.	Collaborative small groups
Student expectations	Take a major part in evaluating own progress and the quality of own efforts toward learning. Be a winner or loser.	All members in some way contribute to success of group. The one who makes progress is the winner.
Teacher-student relationship	Superior-inferior or equal	Cooperating and equal

Note. Adopted from Cooperative Language Learning and Foreign Language Learning and Teaching. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research 1.* (1). P. 81-83. by Y. Zhang, 2010, Copyright 2010 by Academy Publisher.

Findings from many types of research indicated that Cooperative Learning has a strong positive correlation with achievement level, self-esteem, long-term retention, or depth of understanding of course material and so forth. Jia (2003) holds that social interaction is a significant element to effective language learning. Crandall (1999) and Kagan (1995) contend that group interaction enables learners to negotiate for more comprehensible input and to modify their output to make it more comprehensible to others. Long and Porter (1985, cited in Zang, 2010) conclude that group work assists learners to produce more, use longer sentences, and show less grammatical errors. Stern (1992), Brown (1994), and Crandall (1999) reiterate the

significance of a social and affective climate which reduces students' anxiety and fear by providing a relaxed climate in the classroom. Long and his colleagues (1976, cited in Zhang, 2010) found that cooperative learning activities in group work brought greater quantity and variety of speech than teacher-centered activities did. Johnson & Johnson's (1991) study indicated that cooperative learning help students become more autonomous and self-controlled.

Pedagogical strategy. Stevick (1980) indicated that "success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom" (p. 4). It has been clearly noticed that learning is likely to more successful when the group cohesiveness is established in the classroom. Cohesiveness is defined as "the mutual support and commitment of group members to the group and to one another" (Wazzan, 2015, p. 184). Harmer (2007) suggested that groups should be unitary and have a similar attitude to progress so that the individual would eventually be immune to a lack of spirit and a feeling of alienation from peers and from the teacher. Mutual support and motivating each other are the key elements to keep group cohesiveness.

Mullen and Copper (1994, cited in Wazzan, 2015) contended that cohesiveness takes at least three components:

1. Interpersonal attraction: Desire to the group because of liking the other members – this is, for example, often the primary source of cohesiveness of various clubs.
2. Commitment to task: Desire to belong to the group because of the interest in the task; in other words, the group feeling is created by the binding force of the group's purpose – this is often the primary source of cohesiveness in optional afternoon groups/circles at school such as the school choir or the drama group.

3. Group pride: Desire to belong to the group because of the prestige of its membership – this may be the primary source of cohesion in the school's football team that has won the country/state championship. (p. 185)

Rogers (1983, cited in Dornyei and Malderez, 1997) depicted three main characteristics of an efficient facilitator, which can be fully applicable in the language classroom.

1. Acceptance of the members (unconditional positive regard). Good teachers are able to develop this disposition about even troublesome students, along the line of "he/she may not be perfect, but he/she is still one of us!"
2. Empathic ability. Empathy involves the ability to get on the same wavelength as the students and to be sensitive to the group atmosphere.
3. Congruence. Being congruent refers to the teacher's ability to live, to be, and to communicate according to his/her true self. It involves the teachers' being open about his or her own limitations. (p. 76)

Integrating communicative tasks.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). TBLT has become a significant topic in the field of second language acquisition to enhance learners' real language use along with the emergence of the communicative language teaching approach in the early 1980s (Jeon and Hahn, 2006). Willis (1996) defined task is "a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome" (p. 53). To make it more specific, Skehan (1998) provided four criteria for a task: 1) meaning is primary; 2) there is a goal that needs to be worked towards; 3) the activity is outcome-evaluated; 4) there is a real-world relationship.

Hismanoglu and Hismanoglue (2011, p. 46) outlined three major characteristics of task-based language teaching relevant to classroom practice citing many recent research studies as follows:

1. TBLT is in line with a learner-centeredd educational philosophy (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2005).
2. TBLT is made up of specific constituents such as goal, procedure, specific outcome (Skehan, 1998; Murphy, 2003; Nunan, 2004).
3. TBLT supports content-oriented meaningful activities rather than linguistic forms (Beglar & Hunt, 2002; Carless, 2002; Littlewood, 2004).

Swan (2005) elaborated the characteristics of TBLT in more details as follows:

1. Instructed language learning should mainly involve natural or naturalistic language use, based on activities related to meaning rather than language.
2. Instruction should support learner-centeredness rather than teacher-control.
3. Because totally naturalistic learning does not normally lead to target-like accuracy, intervention is essential to foster the acquisition of formal linguistic elements while keeping the perceived benefits of a natural approach.
4. This can best be carried out by providing opportunities for focus on the form, which will attract students' attention to linguistic elements as they emerge incidentally in lessons whose primary focus is on meaning or communication.
5. Communicative tasks are especially appropriate devices for such an approach. More formal pre- or post-task language study may be useful. This may make a contribution to acquisition by leading or boosting 'noticing' of formal features during communication.

6. Traditional approaches are ineffective and unsuitable, particularly where they require proactive formal instruction and practice isolated from communicative work.

Pedagogical strategy. Language teachers aiming at infusing task-based approach into their language classrooms should attribute prominence to the following points for the effective implementation of task-based pedagogy (Ellis, 2009; cited in Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2011):

1. The tasks must be adjusted to the linguistic proficiency levels of the students (e.g., if the students have limited proficiency, tasks should first be of the input focused rather than output-focused type).
2. Tasks should be tested to provide that they make a contribution to suitable L2 use and revised within the framework of experience.
3. For TBLT to work, teachers should have a general comprehension of what a task is.
4. Teachers and students should be aware of the purpose and logic behind doing tasks (e.g., they should comprehend that tasks contribute to incidental learning of the kind that will lead to the development of their communicative skills).
5. Principally, the teachers must be engaged in the design of the task materials that will be used in their task-based courses.

Integrating culture.

Culture has taken an important place in second language teaching. Brown and Lee (2015) defined culture in general terms as "the context within which we exist, think, feel, and relate to others" (p. 156). Wintergerst and McVeigh (2011, cited in Brown & Lee, 2015), however, divided culture into four subsets: big C visible culture, big C invisible culture, little c visible culture, and little c invisible culture. "Big C visible culture means the literature, arts, architecture, history, and geography of the country in which a target language is spoken, whereas

the big C invisible culture implies the native speakers' core values, beliefs, social norms, assumptions, and legal foundations. On the other hand, little c visible culture includes gestures, body language, use of space, dress, food, leisure life, and daily customs while little c invisible culture is related to popular opinions, viewpoints, preferences, or tastes" (p. 157).

It has been widely recognized that culture and language have an inseparable relationship with each other; "a language is a part of the culture, and culture is a part of a language" (Cakir, 2006, p.154). Due to the intricate interwovenness, many types of research in applied linguistics reiterated that culture and language develop reciprocally (e.g., Hymes, 1996; Lantolf, 2011; Kramsch, 2009; Hinkel, 2014; cited in Brown and Lee, 2015). It is often noticed that students to a great extent know the rules of language but are not always able to use the language appropriately (Cakir, 2006).

Integrating target culture in language classes to develop cross-cultural awareness is necessary to prevent communication problems that may arise among speakers who do not know or share the norms of other culture. Interculturally competent persons have "a critical or analytical understanding of (part of) their own and other cultures, and they are conscious of their own perspective, of the way in which their thinking is culturally determined, rather than believing that their understanding and perspective is natural" (Byram, 2000, p.10). Cultural competence helps students of another language to use words and expressions more skillfully and authentically; to understand levels of language and situationally appropriate; to act naturally with persons of the other culture, while noticing and accepting their different reactions (Cakir, 2006).

Pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence or pragmatic ability has been the main concern of SLA studies along the CLT, which incorporates sociolinguistic competence into the primary components of communicative competence. Pragmatics as language use is often

described as the study of language use and contrasted with the study of language structure. "Pragmatics contrasts with semantics, the study of linguistic meaning, and is the study of how contextual factors interact with linguistic meaning in the interpretation of utterances" (Sperber and Wilson, 2005, cited in Ifantiduou, 2013, p. 96).

According to the Crystal (1987), pragmatics concerns the factors that manage the language for what we want to select within the inventory of language that could be adequate whenever it is used within social interaction and its effects on others. Therefore, the study of pragmatics tends to relate it with the meaning of words that people used within their social situations and the choice of the words in a context. Pragmatic competence, according to Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), is comprised of socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic competence. Socio-pragmatic competence or knowledge refers to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action; it is related to cultural and social norms, values, and beliefs of the target language as well as variables of social power and social distance. On the other hand, pragma-linguistics refers to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings; it is associated with linguistic knowledge about the conventions of language use that convey a particular illocution in contextually appropriate situations.

Pragmatics instruction. Pragmatics instruction aims to facilitate the learners' ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations they come; the goal is to help learners become familiar with the range of pragmatic devices and practices in the target language rather than to insist on conformity to a particular target-language norm (Bardovi-Harlig and Rebecca, 2003). Kasper (1997) defined awareness-raising activities as activities designed to develop recognition of how language forms are used appropriately in context and classified them into two

main types: activities aimed at raising students' pragmatic awareness that is introduced in more details in Table 9, and activities offering opportunities for communicative practice such as role-playing.

Table 9

Cognitive awareness raising activities

Researcher	**Pedagogical application**	**Procedures**
Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991)	Teacher presentation and discussion	Teachers provide detailed information on the participants, their status, the situations, and the speech events that are occurring.
Bardovi-Harlig (1992)	Student discovery	Students observe and record naturally occurring speech acts.
Rose (1999)	Translation activities	Students literally translate speech acts from their first language into English.
Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989)	Discourse completion task (DCT)	Students complete discourse according to a prompt provided, and the collected data are used for learning cross-cultural pragmatics.
Rose (1999)	Potentially problematic interactions	Teachers present and share examples from cross-cultural (mis)communications and use examples of potentially problematic interactions that evidence some pragmatic peculiarity and then present these examples to students for discussion

Pragmatics addresses a wide range of elements such as form, function contexts, social relationships, cultural conventions, and norms. This complexity has made teaching pragmatics a demanding task for language teachers. However, research into the pragmatic competence of adult foreign and second language learners has demonstrated convincingly that even advanced language learners' communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic errors, or deficiencies, in that they cannot express or comprehend the intended illocutionary force of politeness value (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper,1989). Therefore, there is a strong need for L2 instruction to focus on the pragmatics of the language, and researchers in this area generally agree to the positive impact of instruction aimed at raising learners' pragmatic awareness (Kasper 1997).

Factors that contribute to Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learning

To induce successful language learning, instructors must learn why their students are enrolled and what motivates them and also discover what prevents them from learning (Lieb, 1991). The primary purpose of this present study is to examine whether there are relationships between L2 motivation and pedagogical preferences. Particularly, this paper focuses on the relationship between the motivation of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners and their pedagogical preferences. The multi-faceted nature of L2 motivation and pedagogical preferences requires multiple approaches in relation to various factors that may influence both motivation and pedagogical preferences. However, it is not possible to cover all potential causative variables in this one study. Thus, this literature review limits its scope to the impact of three levels of second language motivation (Dörnyei, 1994a): the language level (the language, culture and community), the learner level (learners' characteristics, tasks, achievement and confidence), and the situation level (the course, the teacher and the group dynamics) on pedagogical preferences as well as inter-relationships among those variables.

Language Level Factors

Prior experience of learning. Matsumoto and Obana (2001) investigated the relationship between motivational factors and persistence in learning Japanese as a foreign language with Japanese learners in three tertiary schools in New Zealand through survey research. The finding of the study indicates that the less experience students had with language learning, the more likely they were to stop studying. The study also found that the lesser the Japanese learners were exposed to Japanese previously, the more enormous gap they might find between their expectations and the reality of learning the language. This, also, resulted in discontinuing learning. The researchers inferred from the findings that previous experience of learning

Japanese may help them to have more realistic expectations such as a better understanding of the degree of difficulty in learning Japanese, the possible outcome of their study for one semester, and necessary learning strategies.

Prior exposure to the culture (Background factor). The results of Matsumoto and Obana's (2001) study also indicates that students from non-East Asian cultures, such as native speakers of English or European language as their first language at the elementary level have higher possibility to discontinue learning Japanese after a semester than those from Chinese or Korean native speakers and/or East Asian culture (students from *kanji*-background). In the case of English speakers, it takes a considerable length of time to memorize words and phrases which have no association with their first language. The researchers reported that "the students of non-*kanji* background suffered more than students from *kanji* background because they had more difficulty in learning *kanji,* memorizing vocabulary which has no association with their L1 and relating themselves to a diverse culture" (p.77). Moreover, despite their tremendous effort during the first semester, they could only produce some fragments of sentences and greetings, not a complete sentence (Matsumoto & Obana, 2001). However, the study also found that a different language from the mother tongue does not necessarily hinder students' motivation. It may be even more compelling for learners to continue to study.

Language proficiency. Because of the lack of resources, at the elementary level of Japanese, genuine interest in learning doesn't arise. Rather, they were affected negatively due to their workload and mechanical memorization. On the other hand, the language level factor at the intermediate level arouses the learning persistence (Matsumoto & Obana, 2001).

Target language factor. In recent years, nationwide high interest in the Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs) – Japanese, Chinese, and Korean has emerged in the United States.

Despite this surge in interest in Japanese language and culture, LCTLs, such as Chinese, Japanese, and Koran at universities in the United States show a low retention rate of students. For example, it is reported that the attrition rate among students who take Japanese is sometimes estimated as high as 80 percent (Mills, Samuels, and Sherwood, 1987). The 2018 MLA report (Looney, & Lusin, 2018) presented a ratio of fall 2016 introductory to advanced enrollments. Japanese and Korean recorded the 5:1 ratio, which indicates that for every five introductory enrollments, there is one enrollment in an advanced course at the undergraduate level. Chinese had a 3:1 ratio, which is a little better than Japanese and Korean, but many Chinese learners discontinue the study as they advance to an upper level.

With regard to the causes of this low retention rate, Samimy and Tabuse (1992) reported that learning LCTLs can produce strong negative affective reactions from the students, which hinders their learning motivation. Jorden and Lambert (1991) also claimed that it requires approximately 1320 hours of instruction in an intensive program in a language like Japanese, Chinese, and Korean to bring students to the same level of proficiency reached after only about 480 hours of instruction in a language like French or Spanish. The experiences that students of English speakers have in the classroom with such difficult languages may be different from the experiences of students in languages that are more similar to English (Aida, 1994). More detailed speculation on each language difficulty is discussed below.

Chinese. According to the statistics of the Modem Language Association (Brod, 1988; MLA 1991), Asian languages recorded high enrollment growth rates in the United States at the college level. Particularly, Chinese language enrollment expanded 72 percent between 1980 and 1990. This increase in Chinese enrollment comes largely from students with an Asian background. Students whose ethnic backgrounds are Asian and Asian-American usually

comprise an overwhelming number of the student body in Chinese language classes at universities in the United States (Wen, 2009).

On the other hand, according to a report in Guardian Education (Henley, 2008; cited in Hu, 2010), between 2003 to 2006, the number of students sitting the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examinations in Chinese increased by 45%, while candidates at Advanced Level (A-level) increased by 32%. Data from the UK's Higher Education Statistics Agency suggest that the number of Chinese learners in higher education institutions in the UK increased by 125% between 1996 and 2007. In 2007, there were 1495 students learning Chinese in UK higher education.

However, like other LCTS like Korean and Japanese at universities in the United States, those initial tremendous interests in the Chinese language are not kept steadily but rather, drop sharply after a semester of learning Chinese. Despite the increasing popularity of Chinese language study in the UK, Chinese courses show a very low retention rate of students (Hu, 2010). The high difficulty level of the learning task may be one factor that decreases the motivation for learning the Chinese language (Wen, 1997). Chinese is generally regarded as being difficult to acquire. Hu (2010) cited that what Stevens (2006) reported as follows: "Chinese topped the US Foreign Service Institute's list of the languages most difficult for anglophones to master" (p. 99). Actually, the data of the U.S. Foreign Service Institute also indicated that it takes English speaking Americans at least three times longer to learn Chinese than to learn French or Spanish.

The primary cause of this difficulty in learning Chinese is the Chinese orthographic system which may create a major affective and motivational barrier to the learners (Wen, 2009). To get a better understanding of the difficulties experienced by the Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL)

learners, Hu (2010) conducted a study with 164 CFL in British higher education. The study reported six major factors as the causes of difficulty: grammar; aural reception; words; oral production; pronunciation; and recall. Among those six, grammar is the most heavily loaded factor and represents an area of the perceived difficulty for CFL learners, regardless of their levels. Chang (1987) dissected the language differences from pronunciation to sentence structure between Chinese and English. Even though the study focused on the difficulty that native speakers of Chinese may encounter in learning English. The study, however, is beneficial to get some insight into CFL learners' difficulty as well. As the study depicted the differences in detailed manners, it is very conclusive that Chinese is a very different and challenging language to English speakers.

Japanese. As one of the LCTSs, interest in learning Japanese grew dramatically — Japanese enrollments increased by 3.1%, from 66,771 in 2013 to 68,810 in 2016, on undergraduate and graduate course enrollments in United States colleges and universities, according to the 2018 MLA report (Looney & Lusin, 2018). Despite this surge in interest in Japanese language and culture, a number of studies have explored students' difficulty learning Japanese. Matsumoto and Obana (2001) reported that "the students put tremendous effort during the first semester in learning kanji, memorizing vocabulary which may have no association with their L1 and relating themselves to a diverse culture. Moreover, despite their enormous effort during the first semester, they could only produce some fragments of sentences and greetings, not a complete sentence.

The complicated nature of the Japanese writing system, *kanji* compounded by the lack of prior exposure to the *kanji* culture challenges the learners more seriously. For example, Rose and Harbon (2013) have found that university students of Japanese reach benchmark levels of

proficiency more slowly than students of other more commonly taught languages. Walton (1993) also noted that "native English–speaking students of Japanese require three times as long to acquire the same level of proficiency as students of French, German, or Spanish" (cited in Rose & Harbon, 2013, p. 97). It is widely documented that Japanese foreign language learners struggle with the mastery of *kanji* (Bourke, 1996; Dwyer, 1997; Everson, 2011).

Concerning the difficulty of *kanji* learning, Shimizu and Green (2002) also reported that Japanese language instructors widely agree that *kanji* learning is an extremely challenging task for students. Beginning learners of Japanese are often uninformed about this difficulty. The study suggests that instructors take a good balance of being honest with students over the difficulty of *kanji* learning while not discouraging them from pursuing a Japanese language study.

Korean. Tremendous growth of Korean language learning interest was also reported in Cho's (2005) data; since 1975 the number of US universities that offer KFL (Korean as a foreign language) courses has grown from 10 to over 130 in the early 2000s, while the number of Korean community schools (for K-12 Korean and culture education) grew from seven in 1975 to 832 in 1996, and to over 900 in the early 2000s (cited in Byon, 2008, p. 244). According to the MLA report (Looney & Lusin, 2018), Korean has the highest percentage change with a 53,500% increase of enrollment change between 1958 and 2016 in undergraduate and graduate colleges and universities in the United States.

But like Chinese and Japanese, Korean also recorded a sharp drop in enrollment for advanced level courses; 5:1 was the ratio in fall 2016 introductory to advanced enrollments (2018 MLA report). It indicates that for every five introductory enrollments, there is only one enrollment in an advanced course at the undergraduate level. The difficulty of the Korean language may be a more significant factor than any others. Kim and Davis (2004) elaborated salient differences

between the properties of the Korean writing system *hangul* and English, concerning learning difficulty for Korean learners as follows:

The Korean alphabetic writing system *hangul* consists of 24 basic letters (14 basic consonants and ten basic vowels) with each letter formed very simply and distinctly.

1. **Learning how letters map to sounds.** The *hangul* alphabet is largely unique and easy to learn how letters map to sounds; the consonant letters mainly were designed to partially indicate the shapes of the articulators (Kim-Renaud, 1997). For example, because the sounds have a similar place of articulation, the letters for the sounds /n/ and /t/ look similar. They differ in that the letter for /t/ has an extra top stroke to indicate the blocking of the nasal passage. The consonant letters are represented by stylized depictions of the articulations involved. For instance, the symbols for /n/ or /t/ show the tongue-tip raised to touch the front of the palate, whereas the symbol for /k/ indicates that the back of the tongue touches the rear of the palate. Each letter is visually distinctive and is composed of one to four strokes (i.e., mostly straight lines, vertical or horizontal and one circle character) with vowels and consonants having distinct shapes (Kim-Renaud, 1997).
2. **Consistency of letters and sound mapping**. In general, *hangul* has more straightforward grapheme and phoneme correspondences (GPC) than English. Although, there is context-dependency in the pronunciation of some graphemes since a limited number of consonant sounds may occur in syllable-final position (Sohn, 1994). Furthermore, the relation between graphemes and phonemes is also conditioned by contemporary spelling conventions that are based upon the

morphophonemic representations and assimilation phenomena (Kim-Renaud, 1997; Sohn, 1994).

3. **A number of sounds and their ordering.** In comparison to English, Korean has a more restricted phonological inventory. In Korean, there are no clusters at the beginning of the syllable and limited instances of groups used as the last consonants. Generally, syllables consist of initial, medial and final letters (written in that order) and initial letters are consonants or a null character; medial letters are vowels or diphthongs and final letters are one or two consonants or left empty.
4. **Syllabic structure and representation**. Unlike English, syllable boundaries are clearer in Korean (Pak, 1998, on a comparison of Korean and English). What is more, the syllable is distinctive in the written form as alphabetic characters are grouped into square blocks that represent syllables, with each block separated and a larger space between words. (p. 158)

Compared with English, Korean *hangul* is more straightforward in mapping letters to sounds. Moreover, each letter is visually distinctive and consists of one to four strokes; each letter is composed of mostly straight lines, vertical or horizontal, and one circle character. The features of the Korean writing system *hangul* enable beginners to feel less overwhelmed in learning the language than Japanese or Chinese.

However, there is a different type of challenge the learners encounter in their early stage of learning Korean. Due to the Confucian cultural background underpinning the Korean language and culture, pragma-linguistic features play a major and critical role in communication. Each time they communicate, Korean language speakers have to index an appropriate stance through word choice regarding the relationship among the interlocutors, which is determined by age,

socioeconomic status, contexts, intended message, and so on. Researchers have reported that native speakers of Korean select speech styles from a wide range of choices, based on multiple factors, including the elements listed above, and speech style changes can be commonly observed in daily occurring dialogues (Byon, 2007; Chang, 2014; Jung, 2015; Park, 2012; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010; cited in Ryu, 2018). In addition, native speakers choose speech styles in relation to dynamic features such as attitude or social distance between interlocutors as well (Agha, 1998; Byon, 2007; Choo, 1999; Cook, 2011, Yoon, 2010; cited in Ryu, 2018).

In order to appropriately establish the intended stance, one should be able to manipulate speech styles correctly. It is also impossible to avoid using speech styles in Korean because they are morpho-syntactically required elements at the end of every utterance. Because of the centrality and importance of such pragmatics competence, students learn speech styles from the very beginning, which poses heavy load of work on beginning KFL learners (Yoon, 2010); the difficulty and complexity of conjugation rules and the dynamic nature of its function in discourse discourage the learners very easily.

To provide a full understanding of the pragmatics of the Korean language and enable students to develop native-like pragmatic behavior, the teaching of speech styles should be placed as a part of the instruction through the use of authentic and genuine language samples regardless of their overall proficiency level (Ryu, 2018). Speech styles should not be "presented in relation to static contextual features such as one's social status and/or age in regard to the addresses in a textbook. It might reinforce beginning KFL learners' perceptions of speech style as a verb or an adjective ending rather than choices that speakers make intentionally to mark their stance and to convey intended meanings" (Ryu, 2018, p. 22).

Therefore, the writing system *hangul* may not be overwhelmingly challenging to the KFL learners, but the dynamics of pragmatics in communication with the complicated conjugation rules for verbs and adjectives in every utterance is one of the potential challenges to all KFL learners.

Learner Level Factors

Commitment. According to Matsumoto and Obana's (2001) study, continuing students who keep learning Japanese after the first semester have more commitment to their study than discontinuing students. The study also observed a greater drop in the strength of commitment over a semester at the elementary level than at the intermediate level. The intermediate level students in the study start to communicate more with native speakers of the target language. They are also directed to learning cultural things that require more self-study and self-directedness than mere academic achievement.

Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) conducted a survey research on motivation, reported use of language learning strategies and learner preferences for various kinds of pedagogical activities carried out with 2,089 learners of five different foreign languages (Mandarin Chinese, Filipino [Tagalog], French, Japanese, and Spanish) at the University of Hawaii. According to them, learners of Chinese, Japanese, or Filipino are, on the whole, more motivated than the learners of Spanish in the sample. Specifically, learners of Japanese are characterized by having high motivational strength — significantly higher than learners of French and Spanish.

Rose and Harbon (2013) reiterate the importance of commitment as students advance to the upper level. They suggested that instructors could make use of assessment techniques that shift the focus from testing knowledge of new *kanji* through *kanji* quizzes to learning *kanji* for communicative purposes. Instructors should remind the students of the importance of the

learning process and ultimate usefulness of *kanji* learning, rather than vomiting knowledge that is often crammed into short-term memory before a student takes a test and then is soon forgotten.

Wen (2009) investigates the motivational factors that are associated with the learning of Chinese by students from Asian and Asian-American backgrounds. The findings of the study were that 1) intrinsic interest in Chinese culture was the initial motivation for students to start learning the Chinese language; 2) realizing the significant commitment the course demands, students who accordingly alter their expectations on learning task and effort keep continuing their Chinese at the intermediate level. The study revealed that passivity to the foreign language itself and to the course requirements correlates negatively with Chinese language attainment. Those students who had passivity to the learning are not actively engaged in learning and do not exert efforts to achieve language proficiency.

Self-efficacy. There was a greater gap between self-efficacy and the outcome of the learning at the elementary level than at the intermediate level. Self-efficacy is personal beliefs about one's competence to learn or perform skills at designated levels. The level of self-efficacy is determined by comparing oneself with others, pre-knowledge of language learning, and one's already obtained skills before learning (Schunk, 1994). In the Matsumoto and Obana's (2001) study, the learners of no or little knowledge of the target language are not likely to succeed in estimating their self-efficacy. They are more likely to have unrealistic outcome expectations. The failure brings them disappointment and/or loss of confidence to continue.

According to Zimmerman (2000), self-efficacy beliefs and goal setting are strongly connected. Achieving goals improves self-efficacy, and a higher self-efficacy influences a good future goal setting. A student at times may set a goal that is only achievable in the long term. However, without short-term goals to measure progress toward this long-term goal, this long-

term goal will no longer seem achievable to a learner. As Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) reported, learners of Japanese show relatively low expectations of success. More realistic, achievable, and believable goal setting would benefit Japanese language students, which would reduce the negative affect associated with the failure to reach a goal (Rose & Harbon, 2013). Thus, the act of having students measure and reflect on previous accomplishments and achievements rather than focusing on goals yet to be achieved can help *kanji* learners' emotional state (Rose & Harbon, 2013).

Interest. Continuing students in Matsumoto and Obana's (2001) study show a stronger interest in the language and the related matters than discontinuing students. As the level goes up, culture-oriented interest grows stronger, whereas business-oriented interest grows weaker. They inferred that learning experience might change a learner's interest, particularly from external (instrumental motivation such as future careers) to internal (integrative motivation such as learning the culture and communicating with the target language speakers) factors triggered by the experience of learning the language. The intermediate level learners showed interest in studying in-depth the system and background of the language, which is not the case to the elementary level learners.

The participants in the study expand the scope of their interest; initially, they may be drawn to readily available cultural resources such as TV programs, comic books, fashion, and lifestyles but they later develop their interest in what is obtained by reading other books or joining cultural and extra-curricular activities outside class with their voluntary willingness to pursue rather than for academic fulfillment. The increased intention and commitment lead to pursuing their understanding of culture underlying the language, such as the system of language and its background as well as their successful academic record.

On the other hand, at the elementary level, students tend to treat learning the language as a mere academic subject, and their primary concern is their academic achievement such as getting a good grade; they don't have various factors to arouse their persistence along the way. They don't have much intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan 1985; Lepper 1983; Lepper & Greene 1975 & 1978) but have short-term extrinsic motivation (Slavin, 1988).

They concluded that the nature of motivation for learning persistence changes as language proficiency changes; more experienced and committed learners go beyond a superficial accumulation of language knowledge and develop their insight and analytic thinking into the abstract system of the language and its background; learners may experience the shift from mechanical learning and memorization to acquiring deeper and wider scopes of language learning.

Language anxiety. Many previous studies reported consistent negative correlations between foreign language anxiety and various measures of foreign language achievement (Aida, 1994; Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; Sanchez-Herrero & Sanchez, 1992; Trylong, 1987). Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley (1999), for example, conducted a study to investigate the correlates of foreign language anxiety with demographic variables and self-perceptions with Japanese and other European languages introductory, intermediate, and advanced courses at a university. They revealed two major findings. First, self-perceptions were predictors of foreign language anxiety; the self-perceptions were represented by 1) students' expectation of their overall achievement in foreign language courses, 2) perceived self-worth, and 3) perceived scholastic competence. High levels of foreign language anxiety lowered the three sub-scales of self-perceptions. There is a negative recursive relationship between foreign language anxiety and self-perception, which is consistent with what MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement (1997) found.

The vicious cycle was also reported by Matsumoto & Obana (2001); anxiety induced from the heavy workload and the pressure to pass exams reduced motivation to continue learning to the Japanese learners. However, they also noted that students who overcome such anxiety were more likely to continue their studies. It is consistent with the "generalized tendency to strive for success and to choose goal-oriented, success/failure activities" (Slavin, 1988; cited in Matsumoto & Obana, 2001, p. 75). It means that success increases the desire for more success, which in turn, induces success. In the opposition, failure increases the anxiety for more failure, which in turn, induces failure.

Secondly, regarding the demographic variable, Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999) also found that freshmen and sophomores reported the lowest levels of foreign language anxiety, and that anxiety levels increased as the year of study increased. The juniors and seniors had formed negative attitudes in their previous foreign language courses in high school or college, which lower their expectations and raise their foreign language anxiety. In summary, the level of students' foreign language anxiety is correlated with the age of the students, prior high school experience, and expected final course average coupled with students' year of study.

Many researchers agree that older students reported higher levels of foreign language anxiety (Liberman 1984; Newport, 1986; Salthouse, 1984; Crook, 1979). Schaie & Gribbin (1975) also reported that there is a positive relationship between age past adulthood and cautiousness—the reluctance to pronounce, to translate, or to write words in the foreign language about which they are uncertain. Older adults tend to emphasize more on accuracy than do young adults (Salthouse & Somberg, 1982). A greater proportion of older students may hold the myths that pronunciation is the most important aspect of language learning (Gynan, 1989), that accuracy should be the

pre-requisite for any attempt of speaking the target language, and that guessing an unknown foreign language word is not allowed (Horwitz, 1984, 1988).

Much of the anxiety is associated with understanding and speaking a foreign language. Speaking publicly in the target language has been found to be particularly anxiety-provoking for many students, even those who feel little stress in other aspects of language learning (Horwitz, 1995). With respect to understanding the foreign language, some language learners report an indecipherable buzz whenever they are asked to listen to the foreign language (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) while others freeze up because they believe they are supposed to understand every word their teacher utters (Horwitz, 1989). More recently, researchers have begun to investigate the anxiety-provoking potential of other aspects of language learning, such as reading (Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999).

As discussed in the earlier section of this chapter, the primary concern as foreign language curricula move increasingly toward communicative teaching approaches. Much efforts to understand the components and causes of foreign language anxiety have been taken so that the anxiety can be appropriately addressed in the foreign language courses (Horwitz & Young, 1991). Related to the concern, some teaching and testing approaches have been found to be less anxiety-producing for many students. For example, Young (1991; cited in Horwitz, 1995) found that "secondary language students preferred and felt more comfortable participating in oral activities in small groups rather than in front of the whole class" (p. 575), and Koch and Terrell (1991; cited in Horwitz, 1995) found that even within Natural Approach classes (a language teaching method designed to reduce learners' anxiety) learners were more comfortable participating in some activities, such as pair work and personalized discussions, than others (p. 575). Robison (1992) also supports the use of small-group approaches, finding them effective for

both daily instruction and testing. Small-group activities have the added advantage of more closely paralleling natural second language conversational patterns. Gunderson and Johnson (1980) also advocate the use of small-group and cooperative conversational activities finding that teachers were able to increase students' participation and the amount of target language talk while at the same time decreasing learners' anxiety by using games and group activities.

The results of the previous studies suggest that certain students are at risk of having debilitative levels of foreign language anxiety. Regarding foreign language anxiety, Hortwitz (1995) made the following suggestions;

1. Foreign language instructors should acknowledge foreign language anxiety as legitimate and then attempt to lessen students' feelings of inadequacy, confusion, and failure by providing positive experiences to counteract anxiety.
2. Since high-anxious students tend to have the lowest expectations of their ability to learn a foreign language, instructors should continually attempt to reduce their affective filter. As advocated by Horwitz (1988), "instructors could confront students' erroneous beliefs by providing them with complete and accurate information regarding the course goals and objectives as well as reasonable commitments for successful language learning" (p. 286).
3. Instructors can build students' confidence and self-esteem in their foreign language ability via encouragement, reassurance, positive reinforcement, and empathy. When they are correcting student' errors made in the target language and should remind students that it is through making errors that one acquires language proficiency.
4. Instilling realistic expectations regarding errors and the speed with which fluency in the target language can be attained will alleviate a great deal of students' anxiety.

5. Instructors should openly discuss foreign language anxiety with students and encourage them to seek help when needed.
6. Instructors should remember to avoid assuming that students who have high levels of achievement in other courses are not experiencing difficulties learning a foreign language.

Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999) made the following suggestions, specifically related to assessments;

1. Instructors could consider administering examinations and quizzes with less stringent time constraints because older adults appear to have higher levels of foreign language anxiety.
2. Since types of language test items can increase anxiety levels (Madsen, Brown, & Jones, 1991), instructors should construct examinations carefully and consider giving pretest exposure to similar test items; this has been found to reduce levels of anxiety (Onwuegbuzie et al., in press; Young, 1991).
3. Instructors should consider testing oral and listening skills separately from writing and reading skills, since oral and listening comprehension sections of exams are often likely to be especially anxiety-provoking for some students. Testing written material in isolation also provides students with examinations of more manageable length.

Learning Situation Level Factors

Teacher and group dynamics. Participants in Matsumoto and Obana's (2001) study are concerned with how they learn in class rather than how much they have achieved, regardless of their proficiency level. They preferred enjoyable environments created by teachers and classmates to having challenges for achieving much in their learning. "The impact of the features

of teacher and class is strong at the elementary level. Learners at this level cannot resort to communication for their learning persistence. Nonetheless, they may find it enjoyable to attend the class because of the appealing atmosphere created by their teachers and classmates" (p.77). The influence of teacher and class is much powerful in language class than other subjects in collegiate level schools, especially at the elementary level of a foreign language course (Matsumoto & Obana, 2001). At the elementary level students are motivated by interaction in class (between teacher and student, and between students) while, at the intermediate level, they are motivated by interaction with the community of the target language and begin to experience the creation of another social self.

Everson (2011) claimed that getting to know our students and how they feel about learning these languages and what they believe the difficulties are helpful to alleviate their struggling and frustration in learning the languages. It is necessary for language educators to understand students' feelings, struggles, and triumphs when students learn the language. Dealing with the difficulty of learning a language, teachers' belief affects their student's belief very significantly. For example, Shimizu & Green (2002) reported that the teachers who believe that teaching *kanji* is difficult, tend to believe that students do not enjoy learning *kanji*, and these teachers are not likely to enjoy teaching *kanji* either. Therefore, it could be inferred that students are willing to learn *kanji* and that they will find learning *kanji* fun if their teachers believe that *kanji* is not difficult to learn and if they want to interest students in *kanji*.

The Sociocultural environment. There is a general agreement that cultural influences have some or large effect on motivation (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; cited in Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996). "The answers that informants give on questionnaires will be affected not only by their true attitudes, attributions, and expressions of interests, but also by their conceptions of

an ideal self, which are partly individualistic but also heavily influenced by cultural values" (Todd, 1995; cited in Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996, p. 16). Gardner and Lambert (1972), Schumann (1978), and Gardner (1985a) also pointed out the crucial role the sociocultural environment plays in the development of motivation for language learning, "in the United States, where language learning is neither valued nor particularly encouraged, and few students have even encountered a functioning bilingual, it is the unusual student who sets foot in a language class with an already established positive motivation for language learning" (Horwitz, 1995, p. 575).

Pedagogical preference. According to Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001), there is a strong correlation between motivation and pedagogical preferences (r = .50). For example, learners of Japanese in the sample, who have a higher level of motivational strength with relatively low expectations of success appear that "they know that Japanese is a difficult language, and they are prepared to put in a great deal of effort for what they expect will be modest rewards. Appreciation of the importance and difficulty of learning *kanji* is perhaps why the learners of Japanese in our sample showed the highest agreement with a traditional pedagogical focus on grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing" (p. 348). In the study, students who study a language mainly to fulfill the language requirement are less likely to score high on overall measures of motivation, and consistently exhibit a dislike for challenging activities in the foreign language classroom.

The study also provides a detailed illustration of Chinese and Japanese learner preferences for various kinds of pedagogical activities comparing with other language learners as follows:

> Students studying all five languages – Mandarin Chinese, Filipino [Tagalog], French, Japanese, and Spanish, indicate their highest agreement for aspects of foreign language

> pedagogy related to a practical proficiency approach, approve next most highly of a traditional approach, and are least likely to agree with statements concerning active participation and a desire to be challenged. There are also significant differences by target language group for all of the scales except Practical Proficiency. Learners of Japanese have a significantly higher appreciation for the traditional approach (emphasis on grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing) than do learners of Spanish (p. 336).

Learners of Chinese and Japanese agree that practical proficiency should be the goal of pedagogy and agree strongly with the statements in their Challenge scale, which is significantly different from learners of Spanish. But learners of Chinese and Japanese score less on the Cooperative Learning scale than learners of other languages.

Summary

This study is primarily intended to investigate the relationship between adult Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners' motivation and their pedagogical preferences. The related keywords for this study are adult learning, adult language learning, L2 motivation, second/foreign language teaching approaches and best practices in the classroom, and predictors for successful Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learning. With those keywords, this chapter firstly, presented characteristics of adult learning, adult second/foreign language learning, and two recent well-known hypotheses in SLA in relation to adult L2 learning—Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis and Krashen's (1981) five hypotheses.

After that, this chapter reviewed previous studies on L2 motivation in second language learning, then outlined Gardner's (1985a) Socio-educational Model as the framework for this present study as well as empirical studies that adopted the socio-educational model as a theoretical frame and incorporated Gardner's (1985b) Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

and mini-AMTB.

In the later section of this chapter, it reviewed a wide range of teaching approaches and methods that have developed over time in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) from classical Grammar Translational Method (GTM) through very recent Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) with recently developed supplementary methods to understand how adult second/foreign language instructions have addressed adult language learners' characteristics and their L2 motivation.

Lastly, this literature review moved on to factors that contribute to success/failure of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learning from three levels of second language motivation (Dörnyei, 1994): the language level (prior experience of learning, prior exposure to the culture, language proficiency, challenging features of target language), the learner level (learner's commitment, self-efficacy, interest, and language anxiety), and the situation level (teacher and group dynamics, socio-cultural environment, and pedagogical preference) in relation to pedagogical implication as well as inter-relationships among those variables.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

This chapter presents the methods used in this study. A review of research methods for investigating Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners' motivations and their pedagogical preferences were described. The research design, detailed description of setting, and data collection procedures were provided to address the research questions proposed in this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify motivation of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners in U.S. higher education and its relationship with demographic variables such as age, gender, self-rated target language proficiency, first language, heritage, prior second language experience, and the students' academic major. A secondary purpose was to examine their pedagogical preferences in terms of classroom structures and activities and its relationship with demographic variables such as age, gender, self-rated target language proficiency, first language, heritage/nonheritage, prior second language experience, and the students' academic major. It was also intended to examine the relationship between Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learner's motivation and preferred learning activities. This study employed a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) originated from Gardner's (1985b) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to investigate Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners' learning motivation at a four-year institution. Pedagogical preference questionnaire adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) Questionnaire Part B (Preferences for instructional activities) is to examine the Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners'

preferences as to their language learning class activities. The Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) was also used to understand better the relationship that exists between the students' background variables, their motivation, and their pedagogical preferences in Chinese/Japanese/Korean language classes.

Research Questions

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the L2 motivations of the learners Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
2. Do demographic variables —age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their L2 motivations?
3. What are pedagogical preferences in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
4. Do demographic variables — age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences?
5. Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences?

Research Design

This study employed a quantitative method using a survey questionnaire. It identified Chinese/Japanese/Korean learners' motivation in learning the target language as a foreign

language, and their pedagogical preferences in terms of classroom activities. It also examined the motivations, and pedagogical preferences that are affected by demographic variables such as age, gender, major, first language, prior second language experience, and self-rated target language proficiency, and finally the relationship between motivations and pedagogical preferences.

To obtain information related to the research questions mentioned previously, an online survey was distributed to Chinese/Japanese/Korean language course students in an undergraduate program at a southeastern university in the United States. Several statistical procedures such as ANOVAs, T-test, descriptive statistics, Pearson's *r* correlation, Cronbach's alpha test, and multiple regressions were employed to analyze the online survey data.

Population and Participants

The population and participants in this study were the students who are or were enrolled in Chinese/Japanese/Korean language courses for course credit at a southeastern four-year university in the United States. There are about 400 students on average who take Chinese/Japanese/Korean language courses every semester in the institution. But only students who were eighteen years old or older were allowed to participate in this study. The participants who were under the age of eighteen were prohibited from participating in the online survey. The researcher obtained permission letters from the instructors of all the language courses in Asian Studies. The invitation letter with the online survey link was emailed to the students through their class instructors. Students who were eighteen years old or older and willing to participate clicked the link and completed the questionnaire at their convenient time and place. To compensate for the relatively small population of Korean language learners, the researcher also e-mailed the invitation letter with the survey link to students who took a Korean course in Fall 2018 or Spring 2019.

Instrumentation

Three instruments were utilized in this study: (1) a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) originated from Gardner's (1985b) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), (2) Pedagogical preference questionnaire adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) Questionnaire Part B (Preferences for instructional activities), (3) the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) developed by the researcher to obtain more information about the participants' demographic features and general information.

Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) was developed by Gardner (1985b) to assess various individual difference variables of motivation. The AMTB was based on the socio-educational model, which is concerned with the role of distinct individual differences in the learning of an L2. In the model, two classes of variables, integrative-ness, and attitudes toward the learning situation are said to contribute to the learner's level of motivation, and these three classes of variables— integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation, are said to form integrative motive. The AMTB has been adapted in many studies of L2 motivation (e.g., Baker & Macintyre, 2000; Gardner, Day, & Macintyre, 1992; Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987; Gardner & Macintyre, 1991; Gardner & Macintyre 1993; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Gliksman, Gardner, & Smythe, 1982; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). The AMTB is made up of over 130 items, and its reliability — the median reliability for the total is .85 (α = .85), and validity have been supported (Gardner & Gliksman, 1982; Gardner & Macintyre, 1993), which was discussed in Chapter 2 (p. 60~p.62).

The AMTB consists of 11 subtests that can be grouped into five categories (Gardner, 2001, p. 7). Three of the categories, integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation have been mentioned above and included in Gardner's model. One of the remaining two is instrumental orientation, which refers to "an interest in learning the language for pragmatic reasons that do not involve identification with the other language community. The other is language anxiety, which involves anxiety reactions when called upon to use the second language" (Gardner, 2001, p. 8). Table 7 (p. 59) presents a listing of the constructs assessed in the AMTB, the subtests that define each construct, and the number of items typically used in each subtest.

For this study, a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini- AMTB) used in Hashimoto's (2002) study, also known as the Guilford style instrument, was employed. The mini-AMTB maintains the basic conceptual structure of the original version, using a single-item indicator each on a 7-point rating scale to measure eleven variables of the original version (see Table 7). Several studies have successfully employed the mini-AMTB (e.g., Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre & Noels, 1996; Masgoret et al., 2001; Hashimoto, 2002; Peng, 2006). In spite of the potential problems with single-item measures, it has been justified to have acceptable concurrent and predictive validity (Gardner and MacIntyre,1993, p. 160) as follows:

> One other study (Gardner, Lalonile, & Moorcroft, 1985) used the Campbell and Fiske (1959) multitrait / multimethod approach to investigate the relationship between two different measures of each of the various affective variables. In each case, one measure was based on a Likert (1932) format and the other on a Guilford (1954) single-item format. In general, the correlations of the two

measures of the same variable were high, indicating that by and large, they measured comparable constructs.

The Cronbach alpha estimates or reliability of mini-AMTB in Hashimoto's (2002) study were reasonably high (α = .83), which indicates that the scores obtained from this scale is reliable.

Since the mini-AMTB used in Gardner and Macintyre's (1993) study measured attitudes toward learning French and French speakers, it was modified in this study to refer to attitudes toward learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean and the target language speakers (see the Appendix A). The five subscales on this measure are as follows:

1. Integrativeness (α = .86 in Macintyre & Charos, 1996). Three single items measuring integrative orientation, attitude toward the target language group, and interest in foreign languages were adapted from Gardner and Macintyre (1993). They measure the extent to which respondents were learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean to interact and communicate with members of the other language community on a 7-point scale, with the anchors "weak" and "strong." The more integrative the students were, the higher the scores they would get.
2. Attitudes toward learning situation (α = .89 in Macintyre & Charos, 1996). Two items measuring attitude toward the language teacher and attitude toward the course were adapted from Gardner and Macintyre (1993). Each item was rated on a 7-point scale, with the anchors 'unfavorable' and 'favorable.' The more positive attitudes the students have, the higher the scores they would achieve on these items.
3. Motivation (α = .65 in Macintyre & Charos, 1996). Three single-item adapted from Gardner and Macintyre (1993) assessing the desire to learn Chinese/Japanese/Korean, motivational intensity, and attitude toward learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean were rated

on a 7-point scale, with the anchors ‘very little’ and ‘very much.’ High scores on these items would indicate a highly motivated profile.

4. Instrumental orientation. One item adapted from Gardner and Macintyre (1993) assessing instrumental orientation was rated on a 7-point scale with the anchors ‘unfavorable’ and ‘favorable.’ The more positive attitudes the students have, the higher the scores they would achieve on these items.
5. Language anxiety ($\alpha = .48$ in Macintyre & Charos, 1996). Two items adapted from Gardner and Macintyre (1993) assessing Chinese/Japanese/Korean classroom anxiety and the other measuring Chinese/Japanese/Korean use anxiety were rated on a 7-point scale, with the anchors low and high. The scores for anxiety items were reversed to indicate a lack of anxiety. Reverse coding was conducted in the data analysis process so that the calmer the students were, the lower the scores they would record, and the more anxious the students were, the higher the scores they would achieve.

Also, a single item concerning the subjective importance of the language requirement was used since it could also contribute to the learner’s motivation as a critical factor.

Pedagogical Preference Questionnaire (PPQ)

The pedagogical preference was measured with the educational preference questionnaire adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) Questionnaire Part B. It contains 20 items related to the educational preference of language learners. The questions are rated using a seven-point Likert scale from disagree to agree and grouped into five categories: 1) traditional approach with three questions 2) practical proficiency orientation with seven questions 3) challenging

approaches with four questions 4) cooperative learning with three questions 5) innovative approaches with three items.

According to Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), Cronbach's Coefficient alpha reliability estimates of Part B measuring preferences for instructional activities ranged from .84 to .81 for 20 items in the study. The results of the factor analyses for the questionnaire also showed an excellent validity since the factor solutions were almost identical across the data sets in the study, as presented in Table 10. According to Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), "Factor analyses and internal consistency estimates indicate that the questionnaire meets the divergent and convergent validity criteria" (p. 327).

Table 10

Factor solution for Part B—All language groups (N=2023) (Schmidt and Watanabe, 2001, p. 322)

	f1 Practical	f2 Cooperative	f3 Challenge	f4 Innovative	f5 Traditional
grammar	23	6	16	9	69 *
read/write	26	6	7	16	52*
vocabulary	43*	4	7	12	38
relevant	39	7	-2	30	22
ask Q's	58*	15	10	5	13
pronunciation	37	2	22	25	21
listen/speak	53*	6	38	21	16
communicate	59*	12	22	21	14
feedback	64*	12	1	5	16
everyday lg	51*	9	-2	22	9
no English	-7	-14	41*	19	12
challenge	23	6	46*	32	26
active partic	21	39	48*	27	1
must speak	12	14	67*	-8	2
pairs/group	13	72*	-3	15	10
not alone	6	73*	12	-7	-1
cohesiveness	26	44*	1	32	8
culture	11	11	7	49*	13
goal setting	22	2	3	35	3

authentic	10	3	17	53*	8

Note: Lines denote divisions between major categories. Values are multiplied by 100 and rounded to the nearest integer. Values greater than 0.4 have been flagged by an "*".

Variance explained by each factor:

factor1	factor 2	factor 3	factor 4	factor 5
2.489048	1.532095	1.392704	1.326841	1.194866

In this study, the innovative approach was changed slightly. In the original questionnaire, the innovative approach has three key elements — culture, authentic material, and goal setting. However, the goal setting item, "I like to set my own goals for language learning" did not seem to be appropriate for the purpose of the study. The goal setting item was replaced in this study by the pragmatics instruction item, "Activities in this class should be designed to help the students improve their abilities to use and understand the language appropriately in the given context or situations." It is because the central focus of this study is to explore the preferred types of classroom activities in a foreign language class rather than an overall design of the curriculum. The added item provided us with more insight into the learners' pedagogical preferences over diverse approaches in SLA that have been introduced so far.

Pragmatics instruction as a relatively new approach in SLA, is advocated by many researches recently. Kasper (1997) noted that there is a strong need for L2 instruction focusing on the pragmatics of the language. Research into the pragmatic competence of adult foreign and second language learners has demonstrated convincingly that even advanced language learners' communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic errors, or deficiencies, in that they cannot express or comprehend the intended illocutionary force of politeness value (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper,1989). Researchers in this area generally agree to the positive impact of instruction aimed at raising learners' pragmatic awareness; pragmatics instruction is to help learners become

familiar with the range of pragmatic devices and practices in the target language rather than to insist on conformity to a particular target-language norm (Bardovi-Harlig and Rebecca, 2003). The item change of the innovative approach also increased the overall consistency within the approach, commonly focusing on cultural aspects of language.

Question 14, and 16 were reverse coded in the data analysis process; for question 14 concerning willingness of speaking in class, students who prefer to sit and listen would achieve the lower scores; for question 16 measuring the degree of cooperative learning preference, the more cooperative learning preference student have, the higher scores they would get. All the 20 items were scored on a seven-point Likert scale from disagree to agree (see Appendix A).

Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ)

The researcher also created eight individual background questions to find out more about the characteristics of the participants of the study. It included demographic questions such as gender, age, first language, major, current foreign language course, the requirement of the current course, and prior foreign language learning experiences. These items are related to the research questions of this study.

Data Collection

Data collection for this study was administered in online surveys with a set of questionnaires, comprising part 1 for demographics, part 2 for motivation, and part 3 for pedagogical preferences.

Online Surveys

The population and participants in this study were the students who are or were enrolled in Chinese/Japanese/Korean language courses for course credit at a southeastern four-year university in the United States. To compensate for the relatively small population of Korean

language learners, the students who enrolled in the Korean language course in past semesters were also invited to the online survey. The IBQ (part 1), the mini-AMTB (part 2), and the pedagogical preferences (part 3) were used in this study to examine adult Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners' learning motivation and their pedagogical preferences about Chinese/Japanese/Korean learning. Permissions from Dr. Gardner, developer of the mini-AMTB and Dr. Schmidt and Dr. Watanabe, the developer of the pedagogical preferences, were obtained to administer the questionnaires (see Appendix B and Appendix C).

The online surveys were offered and accessed through a website, Quatrics.com, and the participants were undergraduate students who were enrolled in Chinese/Japanese/Korean language courses. Since Asian Studies offered the courses under the department of foreign languages and literature, the researcher obtained permission and assistance from the instructors of all the courses in Asian Studies (see Appendix D) to send e-mails to all of the Chinese/Japanese/Korean language students on campus (1) to initially invite participants to participate in online survey, (2) to remind and thank participants for participating in the study on the 7th day, and (3) to finally remind, thank for participating and notify participants the due date on the 14th day (see Appendix E and F). The online survey was open for 21 days. The participants received three e-mails from their instructors with the information letter. In the information letter, the researcher assured the participants that the study was conducted anonymously, and their personal information and the responses were kept confidential.

Once the participants decided to take the survey voluntarily, they started the survey by clicking the link of the survey in their invitation e-mail. On the first page of the survey, there was an information letter. The participants were asked to click whether or not they were over

eighteen years of age to be eligible to participate in the study. Approximately 10 minutes were expected to finish all three parts of the survey.

Data Analysis

Data collected from the online survey were processed using a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 24.0 to analyze descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, correlational, and regression analyses (see Table 12). Descriptive statistics were employed to evaluate and provide descriptive data concerning the different variables such as means, standard deviations, and frequencies. They were calculated to represent demographic information and to summarize the learners' Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learning motivations and their pedagogical preferences about language learning. The scores were computed for use in T-test analysis, ANOVAs, correlational, and regression analyses to answer the research questions.

Descriptive statistics and analysis of frequency were used to provide answers for research question 1 "What are the motivations of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners in a university setting?" and research question 3 "What are pedagogical preferences in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language?" Descriptive and analysis of frequency results were then summarized and presented in a table. The variable labels represent each of the measures as follows: AMTB represents a brief version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, PPQ is the pedagogical preference questionnaire, L1 is first language, PSLLE is prior second language learning experience, ANXIET refers to communication anxiety. The statistics include the number of participants (*N*), number of items (*k*), mean (*M*), standard deviation (*SD*), minimum (*MIN*), and maximum (*MAX*), Median (*MD*), mode (*MODE*), and skewness (*SKEW*). It should be noted that AMTB is based on a 7-point scale, whereas PPQ is based on a 7-point Likert scale.

To answer research question 2 and 4 "Do demographic variables —age, gender, major, first language, prior second language learning experience, and self-rated Chinese/Japanese/Korean language proficiency — affect their motivation and pedagogical preferences?", One-way ANOVAs, T-tests, and correlational analyses were conducted. Pearson *r* correlation analyses with the factor scores from the mini AMTB and PPQ were carried out to examine if there is a statistically significant correlation among the six independent variables (age, gender, major, first language, prior second language experience, and self-rated Chinese/Japanese/Korean language proficiency) and the language learners' motivations and their pedagogical preference about the language learning. The six-factor scores from factor analysis of the mini-AMTB and pedagogical preference responses were used as the dependent variables. A separate ANOVA with Scheffé post-hoc procedure was also conducted for each of the background variables for the mini-AMTB and the pedagogical preferences responses to determine within-group variation and to identify where any statistically significant differences in motivation and preferences may lie.

A Cronbach's alpha test was conducted to get the internal reliability of the two questionnaires – the mini-AMTB and the PPQ. The result of the reliability results was compared to the previous studies (e.g., Hashimoto, 2002; Baker & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre & Noels, 1996; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001).

For the answer to research question 5 "Is there a relationship between the learners' motivations and their pedagogical preferences?", Pearson *r* correlation analyses with the scores from the mini AMTB and PPQ were carried out to examine if there is a statistically significant correlation between the Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners' motivations and their pedagogical preference about language learning. Following bivariate (correlational) relationship

analysis, multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the joint effects of all the six factors from mini-AMTB as predictors on the outcomes or scores of PPQ.

Table 11

Method of Data Analysis for Research Questions

Research Question	**Survey Instrument Used to Address Question**	**Analysis of the Data**
1. What are the L2 motivations of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners in a university setting?	Part 1. Questions #1- 8 Part 2. Questions #1-12	Descriptive Statistics (Frequency, Mean, SD)
2. Do demographic variables —age, gender, major, first language, prior second language experience, and self-rated Chinese/Japanese/Korean language proficiency level — affect their L2 motivation?	Part 1. Questions #1- 8 Part 2. Questions #1-12	One-way ANOVAs, Scheffé post-hoc test
3. What are their pedagogical preferences including pragmatics instruction in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language?	Part 3. Questions #1- 20	Descriptive Statistics (Frequency, Mean, SD),
4. Do demographic variables —age, gender, major, first language, prior second language experience, and self-rated Chinese/Japanese/Korean language proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences?	Part 1. Questions #1- 8 Part 3. Questions #1- 20	One-way ANOVAs, Scheffé post-hoc test
5. Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences?	Part 1. Questions #1- 8 Part 2. Questions #1-12 Part 3. Questions #1- 20	Multiple Regressions (Correlational Analysis)

Validity and Reliability

Reliability is "…The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability, and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable" (Joppe, 2000, p. 1). The reliability coefficients indicate "the degree to which the results on a scale can be considered internally consistent, or reliable" (Brown, 1996, p.192). On the other hand, Joppe (2000) explained validity in quantitative research as follows:

> Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how accurate the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object? Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions and will often look for the answers in the research of others. (p. 1)

To better validity and reliability of this study, data were collected from a group of participants, and the two surveys (the mini-AMTB and the PPQ) used in this study had established reliability and validity (Hashimoto, 2002; Baker & Macintyre, 1993; Macintyre & Charos, 1996; Macintyre & Noels, 1996; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001; Jacques, 2001; Ockert, 2011; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001; Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996).

Ethics

All ethical concerns were addressed in compliance with the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Auburn University, (see Appendix E). The IRB Research Protocol Review Form was filed to address the ethical concerns and to provide the detailed information and regarding this study such as contact information of both the investigator and advisor, proof of mandatory CITI training, research purpose and title, research methodology, research location, recruiting process

of participants, participant information, risks to participant, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, and confidentiality of the data.

The researcher also provided the information letter, email invitations for participants, mini-AMTB and PPQ survey, and the authorization letter from course instructors of Asian Studies at Auburn University. The submitted IRB Research Protocol was approved by the Office of Research Compliance (see Appendix E).

The participants of the online survey were provided with a copy of the information letter in the email invitation and on the first page of the online survey. Participation in this study was voluntary, and participants of an online survey as well as the classroom survey were allowed to stop the process at any time of the study. According to Schwartz (2013), the anonymity of the survey was assured by the following security options for storing participant's information that Qualtrics.com provides:

1. Participants accessed the survey through a custom link developed by the investigator.
2. IP address collection was turned off on the survey collection site.
3. Qualtrics.com used SSL for secure collection and transmission of data.
4. The responses of participants were transmitted over a secure, encrypted connection.
5. All data were stored on servers located in the United States.
6. Backups occurred hourly internally and daily to centralize backup system for offsite storage.
7. Backups were encrypted. (p. 111)

Summary

This chapter presented the research design for this study including the three different instruments (the mini-AMTB, the PPQ, and the IBQ), the participant's descriptive data points,

the data collection procedures, and the data analysis along with the validity and reliability of this study. The instrument used for data collection of this study was the mini-AMTB developed by Gardner (1993) and the PPQ developed by Schmidt (2001). The descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA, T-test, Pearson *r* correlation and multiple regression were carried out using the SPSS software version 24.0 to analyze the data. Ethical and credential issues were also mentioned in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This chapter presents the response rate, demographic data, results, and findings from quantitative data analysis. The results and findings for each research question are described along with tables and figures from the data analysis.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study was to identify motivation of the learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in U.S. higher education and its relationship with demographic variables such age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level. A secondary purpose was to examine their pedagogical preferences in terms of classroom structures and activities and its relationship with demographic variables such as age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level. It was also intended to examine the relationship between the motivations of the learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language and preferred learning activities.

This study employed a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) originated from Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to investigate the motivations of learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language at a four-year institution. Pedagogical preference questionnaire adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001)

Questionnaire Part B (Preferences for instructional activities) is to examine the Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners' preferences as to their language learning class activities. The Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) was also used to understand the relationship that exists between the students' background variables, their motivation, and their pedagogical preferences in Chinese/Japanese/Korean language classes.

Research Questions

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the L2 motivations of the learners Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
2. Do demographic variables —age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and self-rated proficiency level— affect their L2 motivations?
3. What are pedagogical preferences in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
4. Do demographic variables — age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences?
5. Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences?

Demographic Results

Response rate. An invitation letter (see Appendix D) with the online survey link was emailed through their class instructors to the students who are taking the credit Chinese/Japanese/Korean language classes at a four-year southeastern public university during the Fall 2019 semester. The Korean language learners in the researcher's classes in the current semester were excluded from the survey. To compensate for the relatively small population of Korean language learners, the researcher also e-mailed the invitation letter with the survey link to students who took a Korean course between Spring, 2018 and Spring, 2019. There were approximately 180 Chinese language, 180 Japanese language, and 150 Korean language learners in the above-mentioned courses. Of those 510 students, 167 students responded. This represented a response rate of 32.7%. Among 167 responses, 27 responses were eliminated because they were incomplete. 140 responses were usable (usable rate equals to 83.8%) and included in the analysis.

Demographics of the participants. Table 12 shows the frequency distribution of 140 survey participants by each demographic group. Among the valid 140 respondents, 74 were male participants (52.9%), and 66 were female participants (47.1%). There were more male participants than female participants. The participants between the ages of 18-19 consisted of 30 (21.4%); 20-21(46.4%);22-23 (24.5%); and above 23 (7.7%). The majority of the participants in the study were from 18 to 21, which consisted of 67.8% of the total respondents. The number of the freshman was only 8 (5.7%), sophomore 32 (22.9%), junior 46 (32.9%), and senior 54 (38.6%). The number of freshmen is way smaller than the other school years, and most (71.5%) of them are junior or senior. Additionally, 40.0% of the participants reported that they majored in

STEM fields (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math), while 60.0% of them majored in non-STEM fields.

Out of 140 participants, 53(37.9%) speak Chinese as their L1(first language), 73 (52.1%) English, 7 (5.0%) Korean, and 7 (5.0%) other languages such as German, Hindi, and Vietnamese. The number of participants who were taking Chinese classes was 51 (36.4%), Japanese 47 (33.6%), and Korean 42 (30.0 %). The number of participants in each language class was equally distributed. In terms of the level of the target language, 77 (55.0%) were from beginning classes, 40 (28.6%) from intermediate classes, and 23 (16.4%) from advanced classes. More than half of the participants were taking beginning level classes.

A salient issue at this institute during the time of this study, not uncommon at U.S. universities, was the existence of a graduation requirement of two semesters of study of a foreign language for certain major undergraduates. 49 (35%) students reported that they learn the Asian language course to meet the requirement of their graduation, while 91 (65.0%) are not under any requirement. Regarding their prior L2 learning experience, 90 (64.3%) had prior L2 learning experiences, and 50 (35.7%) didn't. Among the 90 students, 32 (35.6%) reported their the other L2 proficiency level as beginning level, 33 (36.7%) intermediate level, and 25 (27.8%) advanced level.

Table 12

Frequency Distribution of Survey Participants for Each Demographic Category

Category	Description	*n*	%
Gender	Male	74	52.9
	Female	66	47.1
Age	18-19	30	21.4
	20-21	65	46.4
	22-23	34	24.5
	Above 23	11	7.7
School year	Freshman	8	5.7

	Sophomore	32	22.9
	Junior	46	32.9
	Senior	54	38.6
Major	Stem	56	40.0
	Non-stem	84	60.0
L1(First Language)	Chinese	53	37.9
	English	73	52.1
	Korean	7	5.0
	Other	7	5.0
TL (Target Language)	Chinese	51	36.4
	Japanese	47	33.6
	Korean	42	30.0
TL course level	Beginning	77	55.0
	Intermediate	40	28.6
	Advanced	23	16.4
Graduation requirement	Yes	49	35.0
	No	91	65.0
Other L2 (Second Language) learning experience	Yes	90	64.3
	No	50	35.7
Self-rated other L2 proficiency*	Beginning	32	35.6
	Intermediate	33	36.7
	Advanced	25	27.8

n=140, n*=90

Reliability

The reliability coefficients indicate "the degree to which the results on a scale can be considered internally consistent, or reliable" (Brown, 1996, p. 192). They can be interpreted as the percent of the consistent variance in the students' answers. For example, the reliability of .83 for the AMTB can be said to indicate that the scale is 83% consistent or reliable (Brown et al., 2001). As a measure of scale reliability, Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group. The Cronbach alpha can range from .00 to 1.00. A value of .70 or higher is considered highly reliable; a value between 0.6 and 0.7 is acceptable; a value between 0.5 and 0.6 is considered as poor reliability, while a value below 0.5 is unacceptable (Becker, 2000).

The results of the reliability tests for the L2 Motivations and the pedagogical preferences for their L2 learning are presented in Table 13. The mini-AMTB consists of 11 items and divided by five subscales: integrative-ness (subscale 1), attitudes toward the learning situation (subscale 2), motivation (subscale 3), instrumental orientation (subscale 4), and language anxiety (subscale 5). All the other subscales consist of at least two items, and the Cronbach's alpha values are presented in Table 13 except the subscale 4, instrumental orientation – the value of Cronbach's Alpha for integrative-ness (subscale 1) .76; attitudes toward the Learning Situation (subscale 2) .72, motivation (subscale 3) .62, and language anxiety (subscale 5) .84. Overall, the Cronbach alpha estimates (. 68) of all the 11 items are acceptable.

The instrument for measuring pedagogical preferences consists of 20 items divided by five subscales. The Cronbach's alpha values for each subscale are as follows: Traditional Approach (subscale 1) .72, Practical Proficiency (subscale 2) .83, Challenging Approach (subscale 3) .50, Cooperative Learning (subscale 4) .54, Innovative Approach (subscale 5) .76. Overall, the Cronbach alpha estimate (. 82) of all the 20 items shows high reliability.

Table 13

Summary of the Reported Reliability of Each Category of Motivation and Pedagogical Preferences in this Study

Instrument	Subscale	Categories	Items	Cronbach's alpha
Part A (L2 Motivation)	1	integrative-ness	3	.76
	2	attitudes toward the situation	2	.72
	3	motivation	3	.62
	4	instrumental orientations	1	N/A
	5	language anxiety	2	.84
Overall mini-AMTB			11	.68
Part B	1	Traditional Approach	3	.72

(Pedagogical Preferences)	2	Practical Proficiency	7	.83
	3	Challenging Approach	4	.50
	4	Cooperative Learning	3	.54
	5	Innovative Approach	3	.76
Overall Pedagogical Preferences			20	.82

Discussion of Findings

Descriptive statistics were used to examine Research Questions 1 and 3. A one-way ANOVA and independent sample T-test were applied to investigate Research Questions 2 and 4. Lastly, a Correlational Analysis and Multiple Regressions were used to answer the Research Question 5. Alpha level was set at *p* equals to .05 (see Table 11).

Research Question 1: What are the L2 Motivations of the learners Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?

The descriptive statistics on part A presented in Table 14 show how participants performed on the mini-AMTB, an instrument for measuring their L2 Motivations. The statistics include the number of participants (*n*), the number of items (k), mean (M), standard deviation (SD), minimum (MIN), and maximum (MAX), mode (MODE), and skewness (SKEW). It should be noted that mini-AMTB is based on a 7-point scale.

The participants in this study recorded high scores across the subscales: integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, and instrumental orientation. The mean score on part A of all the participants was 5.52 (SD = .63). As shown in Table 17, there were no group differences on each of the measures among the three Asian language groups. It indicates that all three target language learners have high L2 Motivations for all of these reasons.

However, the language anxiety of the three languages was different depending on the target language. The Korean language learners had the lowest anxiety, whose mean was 2.95 (SD =

1.55). The Chinese learners recorded the highest anxiety, whose mean was 3.91(SD = 1.83). The Japanese learners had a mean of 3.73 (SD = 1.58) in language anxiety — the difference between learners of Korean language and learners of Chinese language statistically significant. Despite the difference among the three target language groups, the mean of anxiety (M = 3.56, SD = 1.70) of participants stood in the middle of the scale from 1 to 7. It indicates that the three Asian language learners, in general, had a moderate level of anxiety.

Table 17-18 shows how language requirement influences their reasons for learning a foreign language in the sample group of the study. The language requirement factor played a more important role among Chinese speaking students as a reason for learning a foreign language than English or Korean speaking students. As presented in Table 17, the students in this sample who were studying Korean were more likely than learners of any other language, to agree with the statement, “Studying this language is important to satisfy the university language requirement.”

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics on Part A (L2 Motivations)

Subscales	*n*	*k*	M	SD	Min	Max	Mode	*Skew*
integrative-ness	140	3	6.06	0.97	3.00	7.00	7.00	-1.03
attitudes	140	2	6.47	0.75	3.50	7.00	7.00	-1.63
motivation	140	3	5.90	0.82	3.67	7.00	6.33	-0.79
instrumental	140	1	5.60	1.51	1.00	7.00	7.00	-0.90
anxiety	140	2	3.56	1.70	1.00	7.00	1.00	0.13
Total	140	11	5.52	0.63	3.63	6.8	5.4	-0.51

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics on Part A (L2 Motivations) by Target Language (TL)

Part A	Chinese (*n*=51)			Japanese (*n* =47)			Korean (*n* =42)		
	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*
integrative-ness	6.24	0.90	-1.55	6.01	0.96	-0.78	5.90	1.07	-0.83
attitudes	6.62	0.77	-2.54	6.38	0.78	-1.50	6.38	0.71	-0.81

motivation	5.98	0.78	-0.79	5.82	0.78	-0.85	5.92	0.91	-0.79
instrumental	5.67	1.49	-0.94	5.38	1.58	-0.74	5.76	1.48	-1.14
anxiety	3.91	1.83	-0.17	3.73	1.58	-0.08	2.95	1.55	-0.52
Total	5.68	0.62	-0.81	5.46	0.59	-0.91	5.38	0.65	-0.14

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics on Part A (L2 Motivations) by L1

Part B	Chinese (*n*=53)			English (*n*=73)			Korean (*n*=7)			Other (*n*=7)		
	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*
integrative-ness	5.60	1.08	-0.37	6.40	0.77	-1.83	6.57	0.37	-0.25	5.52	0.94	-0.07
attitudes	6.28	0.90	-1.18	6.53	0.66	-1.90	6.79	0.57	-2.65	6.86	0.38	-2.65
motivation	5.75	0.91	-0.44	5.95	0.79	-0.87	6.43	0.32	0.86	6.14	0.33	0.28
instrumental	5.66	1.66	-1.26	5.48	1.45	-0.56	5.57	1.51	-0.19	6.43	0.79	-1.12
anxiety	3.20	1.71	0.60	3.77	1.58	-.020	4.14	2.21	-0.51	3.64	2.25	0.03
Total	5.30	0.69	-0.50	5.63	0.55	-1.09	5.90	0.60	0.17	5.72	0.56	-0.33

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics on Importance of Language Requirement by Target Language

TL	*n*	M	SD	*Skew*
Chinese	51	3.80	2.26	0.14
Japanese	47	3.72	2.08	0.15
Korean	42	4.61	2.08	-0.59
Total	140	4.02	2.17	-0.06

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics on Importance of Language Requirement by L1

L1	*n*	M	SD	*Skew*
Chinese	53	5.04	1.86	-0.77
English	73	3.29	2.08	0.44
Korean	7	3.71	2.42	0.07

Other	7	4.28	2.29	-0.14
Total	140	4.02	2.17	-0.06

Research Question 2: Do demographic variables — gender, age, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience, and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their motivation?

Table 19-28 display the results of each of the demographic group on each of the subscales. In each case, an ANOVA procedure was used to determine whether there are statistically significant differences among the groups, followed by a post-hoc comparison of means (using the Scheffe test) to identify precisely where the differences lie. Alpha was set at .05. As can be seen in the Tables, there were group differences in each of these measures, but Scheffe's test indicates that only a few of the pair-wise differences in means were significant.

Female students (M = 5.65, SD = 0.57), on the whole, were more motivated than male students (M = 5.41, SD = 0.66). Specifically, females reported higher scores in integrative-ness (M = 6.25, SD = 0.84), and gender had a small to medium effect size on integrative-ness (F = 6.94, p = .03, Partial η^2 = .033). Females (M = 3.731, SD = 1.58) also reported lower language anxiety than males (M = 3.91, SD = 1.83) but gender did not have a big impact on language anxiety among the participants (F = 4.18, p = .002, Partial η^2 = .012).

On the contrary, male students showed higher scores than female students in the other subscales—attitude, motivation, and instrumental orientation. Male students (M = 6.00, SD = 0.78) had higher scores in motivation than female students (M = 5.81, SD = 0.78), and gender produces a small to moderate effect size on motivation (F = 3.49, p = .009, Partial η^2 = .048). Male students (M = 5.67, SD = 1.50) also showed higher instrumental orientation than females (M = 5.38, SD = 1.58). Gender appears to affect instrumental orientation (F = 1.01, p = .006,

Partial η^2 = .053) to some extent. Male students (M = 6.61, SD = 0.77) had more positive attitude than female students (M = 6.38, SD = 0.79) as well, but the differences were not statistically significant.

In summary, there was a small to medium effect size (F = .71, p = .02, Partial η^2 = .038) for gender on overall L2 Motivations. In other words, gender accounted for the variation of L2 Motivations to some extent.

Non-STEM major students (M = 5.85, SD = 1.46) had higher level of instrumental orientation than STEM major students (M = 5.23, SD = 1.53). The students' major produced a small to moderate effect size (F = .14, p = .02, Partial η^2 = .040) on instrumental orientation. Major does not have a statistically significant impact on the other subscales of L2 Motivations. Based on the analysis of the data, non-STEM major students are more likely to study the foreign language courses for practical reasons than STEM major students.

Concerning students' L1, there was a statistically significant difference among the three L1 groups; students who reported Chinese as their L1 (M = 5.60, SD = 1.08) recorded lower scores in integrative-ness than English (M = 6.40, SD = 0.77) or Korean (M = 6.57, SD = 0.37) speaking students. Students' L1 (F = 9.52, p<.001, Partial η^2 = .174) has a large impact on L2 Motivations, specifically, on integrative-ness in this study. The learner's L1 accounted for 17 % of the variation in integrative-ness. English speaking students are likely to have higher interest in the target language, the target language group, and communication with the TL speaking people.

About the learner's target language (TL), learners of Chinese (M = 3.91, SD = 1.83) in the sample had, on the whole, more language anxiety than the learners of Korean (M = 2.95, SD = 1.55), or Japanese (M = 3.37, SD = 1.58). The students of the Korean language had the lowest

anxiety among the three target language groups. TL (F = 4.18, p=.02, Partial η^2 = .119) accounted for 12 % of the variation in language anxiety among the participants.

Lastly, students fulfilling the language requirement with their current foreign language classes (M = 5. 82, SD = 1.15) showed lower integrative-ness than students who are not under the requirement (M = 6.19, SD = 0.85). However, the mean difference between the two groups is not statistically significant.

Table 19

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Gender

Part A	Male (n = 74)		Female (n = 66)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	5.90	1.07	6.25	0.84	6.94	.03*
attitudes	6.61	0.77	6.38	0.79	2.54	.14
motivation	6.00	0.78	5.81	.078	3.49	.009*
instrumental	5.67	1.50	5.38	1.58	1.01	.006*
anxiety	3.91	1.83	3.73	1.58	4.18	.02*
Total	5.41	0.66	5.65	0.57	0.71	.02*

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 20

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Age

Part A	18-19 (n = 30)		20-21 (n = 65)		22-23 (n= 34)		Above 23 (n = 11)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	6.21	0.85	6.04	1.05	5.98	0.89	6.00	1.18	0.31	.82
attitudes	6.61	0.74	6.40	0.79	6.47	0.75	6.45	0.72	0.55	.65
motivation	6.00	0.79	5.81	0.84	6.08	0.77	5.70	0.91	1.12	.35
instrumental	5.13	1.63	5.63	1.46	5.94	1.43	5.64	1.63	1.55	.20
anxiety	4.25	1.51	3.45	1.73	3.32	1.80	3.14	1.45	2.24	.09
Total	5.64	0.63	5.47	0.63	5.56	0.60	5.38	0.76	0.72	.54

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 21

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by School year

Part A	Freshman (*n* = 8)		Sophomore (*n* = 32)		Junior (*n* = 46)		Senior (*n* = 54)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	6.18	0.65	5.93	1.05	6.21	0.96	6.00	0.98	0.68	.57
attitudes	6.81	0.37	6.42	0.87	6.52	0.75	6.40	0.74	0.82	.49
motivation	5.80	0.83	5.85	0.81	6.06	0.81	5.82	0.83	0.87	.46
instrumental	5.37	1.68	5.40	1.52	5.48	1.68	5.85	1.33	0.83	.48
anxiety	3.25	1.51	3.80	1.77	3.51	2.02	3.52	1.41	0.31	.82
Total	5.48	0.44	5.48	0.67	5.56	0.65	5.52	0.62	0.10	.96

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 22

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Major

Part A	Stem (*n* = 56)		Non-stem (*n* = 84)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	6.08	.92	6.05	1.02	0.86	.85
attitudes	6.54	.66	6.42	0.82	1.99	.33
motivation	5.83	.80	5.96	0.83	0.03	.39
instrumental	5.23	1.53	5.85	1.46	0.14	.02*
anxiety	3.76	1.55	3.43	1.80	2.96	.27
Total	5.49	0.53	5.54	0.68	5.58	.64

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 23

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by L1

Part A	Chinese (*n* = 53)		English (*n* = 73)		Korean (*n* = 7)		Other (*n* = 7)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	5.60	1.08	6.40	0.77	6.57	0.37	5.52	0.94	9.52	<.001*
attitudes	6.28	0.90	6.53	0.66	6.79	0.56	6.86	0.38	2.32	.08
motivation	5.74	0.91	5.94	0.78	6.42	0.32	6.14	0.33	1.91	.13
instrumental	5.66	1.66	5.40	1.45	5.57	1.51	6.42	0.79	0.87	.46
anxiety	3.20	1.71	3.77	1.58	4.14	2.21	3.64	2.25	1.45	.23
Total	5.30	0.69	5.62	0.55	5.90	0.59	5.72	0.56	4.25	.007*

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Scheffe for Sub-scales

effect: L1

Sub-scales		Mean difference	*p*
integrative-ness	Chinese, English	0.79	<.001*
	Chinese, Korean	0.97	.07
	Chinese, Other	0.08	.10
	English, Korean	0.18	.97
	English, Other	0.87	.12
	Korean, Other	1.05	.20

* p<.05

Table 24

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Target Language (TL)

Part A	Chinese (*n* = 51)		Japanese (*n* = 47)		Korean (*n* = 42)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	6.23	0.90	6.01	0.96	5.90	1.07	1.50	.23
attitudes	6.61	0.77	6.38	0.79	6.38	0.71	1.58	.21
motivation	6.00	0.78	5.81	0.78	5.92	0.91	0.50	.61
instrumental	5.67	1.50	5.38	1.58	5.76	1.48	0.77	.47
anxiety	3.91	1.83	3.73	1.58	2.95	1.55	4.18	.02*
Total	5.68	0.62	5.46	0.59	5.38	0.65	2.98	.05

* p<.05

Scheffe for Sub-scales

effect: Target Language

Sub-scales		Mean difference	*p*
anxiety	Chinese, Japanese	0.18	.87
	Chinese, Korean	0.96	.02*
	Japanese, Korean	0.18	.09

* p<.05

Table 25

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Target Language (TL) Course Level

Part A	Beginning (*n* = 77)		Intermediate (*n* = 40)		Advanced (*n* = 23)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	5.87	1.02	6.30	0.85	6.26	0.19	3.14	.17
attitudes	6.42	0.82	6.48	0.72	6.59	0.58	0.38	.68

motivation	5.87	0.86	6.01	0.77	5.84	0.75	0.51	.60
instrumental	5.61	1.55	5.50	1.60	5.73	1.25	0.18	.83
anxiety	3.53	1.77	3.38	1.61	3.96	1.66	0.83	.44

* p<.05

Table 26

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Language Requirement

Part A	Yes (*n* =49)		No (*n* =91)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	5.82	1.15	6.19	0.85	8.33	.06
attitudes	6.30	0.95	6.56	0.62	10.52	.08
motivation	5.80	0.95	5.96	0.74	3.04	.27
instrumental	5.81	1.48	5.48	1.53	1.21	.22
anxiety	3.36	1.68	3.68	1.71	0.03	.29
Total	5.42	0.68	5.57	0.59	0.59	.17

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 27

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Other L2 Learning Experience

Part A	Yes (*n* = 90)		No (*n* = 50)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	6.01	1.01	6.14	0.91	0.63	.43
attitudes	6.30	0.82	6.61	0.63	2.68	.11
motivation	5.92	0.85	5.89	0.77	0.23	.63
instrumental	5.58	1.40	5.64	1.72	3.28	.07
anxiety	3.70	1.66	3.31	1.78	0.67	.42
Total	5.52	0.66	5.51	0.57	0.56	.46

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 28

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts A (L2 Motivations) by Self-Rated Other L2 Proficiency Level

Part A	Beginning (*n* = 32)		Intermediate (*n* = 33)		Advanced (*n* = 25)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
integrative-ness	6.06	1.06	5.80	1.05	6.24	0.88	1.34	.27
attitudes	6.32	0.87	6.45	0.88	6.38	0.68	0.19	.83
motivation	5.87	0.86	5.85	0.91	6.08	0.74	0.61	.55

instrumental	5.59	1.27	5.39	1.644	5.80	1.22	0.60	.55
anxiety	3.37	1.67	3.63	1.71	4.22	1.50	1.94	.16
Total	5.44	0.72	5.43	0.69	5.74	0.49	2.00	.14

* p<.05

Research Question 3: What are pedagogical preferences in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?

As shown in Table 30, students across the three language groups reserved their highest agreement for aspects of foreign language pedagogy related to Practical Proficiency Approach (M = 6.35, SD = 0.66), approved next most highly of Innovative Approach (M = 6.17, SD = 0.88) and Traditional Approach (M = 6.15, SD = 0.96), and were least likely to agree with statements concerning Cooperative Learning (M = 4.87, SD = 1.23) and a desire to be challenged (M = 4.87, SD = 1.02). Despite the fact that Challenge, and Cooperative Learning were the least preferred approaches among the participants, learners of Chinese language in the study were relatively less resistant to Challenge (M = 5.13, SD = 0.94), and Cooperative Learning (M = 5.01, SD = 1.32) than learners of Korean or Japanese. Concerning the L1 factor to the two least preferred approaches—Challenge, and Cooperative Learning, Korean speaking students were most likely to be appreciative of Challenge (M = 5.32, SD = 0.69), and Cooperative Learning (M = 5.23 , SD = 1.36) while English speaking students were least likely to approve Challenge (M = 4.86, SD = 1.07), and Cooperative Learning (M =4.84, SD = 1.18).

Table 29

Descriptive Statistics on Part B (Pedagogical Preferences scales)

Subscales	*n*	*k*	M	SD	Min	Max	Mode	*Skew*
Traditional	140	3	6.15	0.96	3.33	7.00	7.00	-1.00
Practical	140	7	6.35	0.66	4.00	7.00	7.00	-1.30
Challenge	140	3	4.87	1.02	2.00	7.00	5.50	-0.58
Cooperative	140	3	4.87	1.23	1.00	6.75	5.00	-.053
Innovative	140	3	6.17	0.88	3.67	7.00	7.00	-1.02

Table 30

Descriptive Statistics on Part B (Pedagogical Preferences scales) by Target Language (TL)

Part B	Chinese (*n*=51)			Japanese (*n*=47)			Korean (*n*=42)		
	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*
Traditional	6.08	1.00	-0.85	6.12	1.00	-0.93	6.28	0.84	-1.41
Practical	6.45	0.69	-1.73	6.23	0.71	-1.19	6.36	0.56	-0.80
Challenge	5.13	0.94	-0.35	4.68	1.03	-0.84	4.78	1.06	-0.49
Cooperative	5.01	1.32	-0.36	4.74	1.19	-0.78	4.85	1.19	-0.71
Innovative	6.24	0.92	-1.33	6.15	0.91	-0.99	6.10	0.81	-0.68

Table 31

Descriptive Statistics on Part B (Pedagogical Preferences scales) by L1

Part B	Chinese (*n*=53)			English (*n*=73)			Korean (*n*=7)			Other (*n*=7)		
	M	SD	*Skew*	M	SD	*Skew*	*M*	*SD*	*Skew*	*M*	*SD*	*Skew*
Traditional	5.91	1.01	-0.81	6.30	0.88	-1.18	6.23	1.31	-1.32	6.24	0.74	-0.66
Practical	6.07	0.80	-0.76	6.50	0.50	-1.48	6.51	0.49	-1.15	6.65	0.44	-1.11
Challenge	4.72	0.95	-1.10	4.86	1.07	-0.38	5.32	0.69	0.26	5.57	1.04	-0.85
Cooperative	4.85	1.22	-0.49	4.84	1.18	-0.31	5.23	1.36	-0.96	5.00	1.93	-1.76
Innovative	5.95	0.99	-0.61	6.36	0.75	-1.50	5.95	0.76	0.72	6.05	1.13	-1.25

Research Question 4: Do demographic variables —gender, age, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and its self-rated proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences?

Table 32-41 present the results of each of the demographic groups on each of the pedagogical approaches. In each case, an ANOVA procedure was used to determine whether there are statistically significant differences among the groups, followed by a post-hoc comparison of means (using the Scheffe's test) to identify precisely where the differences lie. Alpha was set at .05.

As can be seen in the Tables, there were group differences in each of these measures, but Scheffe's test indicates that only a few of the pair-wise differences in means were significant. Among the demographic variables, gender, age, and L1 were the factors that brought significant differences among the groups. First, regarding gender, female students (M = 6.33, SD = 0.93) had significantly higher appreciation for Traditional Approach than males (M = 5.99, SD = 0.95). There was a small to medium effect size for gender on the appreciation of Traditional Approach (F = 0.39, p = .03, Partial η^2 = .032). Next, Practical Proficiency (M = 6.50, SD = 0.62) was also liked more by female students than male students (M = 6.21, SD = 0.67). Gender produced a small to moderate effect size on Practical Proficiency liking (F = 2.62, p = .01, Partial η^2 = .045). Lastly, Innovative Approach was also appreciated more by females (M = 6.34, SD = 0.83) than males (M = 6.01, SD = 0.89). Gender had a small to medium effect size on the appreciation of Innovative Approach (F = 0.35, p = .03, Partial η^2 = .035), which is similar to the afore mentioned approaches (see Table 32).

Students in the age group of above 23 (M = 2.78, SD = 0.63) were least likely to approve of Cooperative Learning among the age groups—the age group of 18-19 (M = 4.95, SD = 0.57), 20-21 (M = 3.79, SD = 0.45), and 22-23 (M = 2.78, SD = 0.63) (see Table 33). Scheffe's test indicates that the differences in means between the age group of above 23 and 18-19 were significant and there were a medium to large effect size (F = 4.08, p = .008, Partial η^2 =.083). As students get older, they are less likely to be appreciative of Cooperative Learning.

While L1 did not affect learner's overall pedagogical preferences, as shown in Table 36, the English-speaking students (M = 6.55, SD = 0.20) reported significantly higher preferences for Practical Proficiency than Chinese-speaking students (M = 6.22, SD = 0.23). Students' L1 produced a medium to large effect size for Practical Proficiency. Students' L1 accounted for

11% variation in liking for Practical Proficiency Approach ($F = 5.57$, $p = .001$, Partial $\eta^2 = .110$).

Table 32

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Gender

Part B	Male (n =74)		Female (n =66)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	5.99	0.95	6.33	0.93	0.39	.03*
Practical	6.21	0.67	6.50	0.62	2.62	.01*
Challenge	4.79	1.03	4.95	1.00	0.02	.35
Cooperative	4.92	1.24	4.81	1.23	0.05	.59
Innovative	6.01	0.89	6.34	0.83	0.35	.03*

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 33

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Age

Part B	18-19 (n=30)		20-21 (n=65)		22-23 (n=34)		Above 23 (n=11)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	5.87	0.43	6.45	0.34	6.43	0.36	5.42	0.47	0.65	.58
Practical	6.24	0.33	6.54	0.26	6.48	0.27	6.53	0.36	0.33	.80
Challenge	5.37	0.49	5.12	0.38	4.73	0.41	5.07	0.54	0.24	.87
Cooperative	4.95	0.57	3.79	0.45	4.29	0.47	2.78	0.63	4.08	.008*
Innovative	4.25	1.51	3.45	1.73	3.32	1.80	3.14	1.45	0.30	.82

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Scheffe for Sub-scales
effect: Age

Sub-scales		Mean difference	*p*
Cooperative	18-19, 20-21	0.52	.27
	18-19, 22-23	0.17	.95
	18-19, above 23	1.35	.018*
	20-21, 22-23	0.34	.61
	20-21, above 23	0.83	.21
	22-23, above 23	1.17	.049*

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 34

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by School year

Part B	Freshman (n = 8)		Sophomore (n = 32)		Junior (n = 46)		Senior (n = 54)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	6.55	0.76	6.20	0.33	5.80	0.28	5.62	0.27	0.10	.96
Practical	6.55	0.57	6.53	0.25	6.36	0.21	6.35	0.21	0.40	.76
Challenge	4.87	0.86	4.85	0.37	5.44	0.32	5.14	0.31	0.62	.60
Cooperative	2.92	1.00	3.97	0.43	4.36	0.36	4.56	0.36	1.17	.32
Innovative	3.25	1.51	3.80	1.77	3.51	2.02	3.52	1.41	0.32	.80

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 35

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Major

Part B	Stem (n = 56)		Non-stem (n = 84)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	6.13	0.33	5.96	0.28	0.97	.33
Practical	6.50	0.25	6.40	0.21	0.99	.32
Challenge	5.18	0.37	4.97	0.31	1.32	.25
Cooperative	3.64	0.43	4.27	0.36	2.07	.15
Innovative	3.76	1.55	3.43	1.80	0.01	.92

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 36

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by L1

Part B	Chinese (n = 53)		English (n = 73)		Korean (n = 7)		Other (n = 7)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	6.02	0.30	6.37	0.26	5.86	0.56	5.92	0.49	1.74	.16
Practical	6.22	0.23	6.55	0.20	6.55	0.42	6.48	0.37	5.57	.001*
Challenge	4.82	0.35	4.89	0.30	4.96	0.64	5.61	0.56	1.94	.13
Cooperative	3.76	0.40	4.09	0.35	4.32	0.74	3.64	0.65	.24	.87
Innovative	3.20	1.71	3.77	1.58	4.14	2.21	3.64	2.25	2.38	.07

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Scheffe for Sub-scales
effect: L1

Sub-scales		Mean difference	*p*
Practical Proficiency	Chinese, English	0.43	.003*
	Chinese, Korean	0.43	.40
	Chinese, Other	0.58	.16
	English, Korean	0.003	1.00
	English, Other	0.14	.95
	Korean, Other	0.14	.98

* p<.05

Table 37

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Target Language (TL)

Part B	Chinese (*n* = 51)		Japanese (*n* = 47)		Korean (*n* = 42)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	5.86	0.32	5.92	0.29	6.33	0.34	0.53	.59
Practical	6.40	0.25	6.38	0.22	6.58	0.26	1.39	.25
Challenge	5.25	0.37	4.88	0.33	5.09	0.39	2.62	.07
Cooperative	4.73	3.34	3.58	0.43	3.55	0.55	0.58	.56
Innovative	3.91	1.83	3.73	1.58	2.95	1.55	0.30	.74

* p<.05

Table 38

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Target Language (TL) Course Level

Part B	Beginning (*n* = 77)		Intermediate (*n* = 40)		Advanced (*n* = 23)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	5.86	0.25	6.09	0.32	6.17	0.41	2.41	.79
Practical	6.33	0.19	6.59	0.25	6.43	0.32	0.34	.71
Challenge	4.94	0.29	4.87	0.37	5.40	0.48	1.47	.23
Cooperative	4.72	0.33	3.58	0.42	3.55	0.55	5.17	.56
Innovative	3.53	1.77	3.38	1.61	3.96	1.66	0.78	.46

* p<.05

Table 39

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Language Requirement

Part B	Yes (*n* =49)		No (*n* =91)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	5.82	1.15	6.19	0.85	8.33	.26
Practical	6.30	0.83	6.40	0.55	10.52	.24
Challenge	4.80	0.96	4.91	1.05	3.04	.54
Cooperative	4.76	1.26	4.93	1.22	1.21	.43
Innovative	6.02	1.00	6.25	0.80	0.03	.14

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 40

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Other L2 Learning Experience

Part B	Yes (*n* =90)		No (*n* =50)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	6.12	0.93	6.20	0.99	0.19	.66
Practical	6.35	0.66	6.34	0.65	0.02	.90
Challenge	4.82	1.00	4.96	1.05	0.56	.45
Cooperative	4.73	1.29	5.12	1.08	3.14	.08
Innovative	6.12	0.86	6.24	0.96	0.53	.48

Note. n= 140, * p<.05

Table 41

Analysis of Variance of Scores on Parts B (Pedagogical Preferences Scales) by Self-Rated Other L2 Proficiency Level

Part B	Beginning (*n* = 32)		Intermediate (*n* = 33)		Advanced (*n* = 25)			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	*F*	*p*
Traditional	3.86	0.46	3.78	0.38	4.20	0.41	0.78	.46
Practical	6.47	0.26	6.45	0.22	6.42	0.24	0.02	.98
Challenge	3.86	0.46	3.79	0.38	4.20	0.41	2.16	.12
Cooperative	5.59	1.27	5.39	1.644	5.80	1.22	2.02	.14
Innovative	3.37	1.67	3.63	1.71	4.22	1.50	0.30	.74

* p<.05

Research Question 5: Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences?

Pearson product-moment correlations with alpha set at .05 were used to determine correlations between Part A (L2 Motivations) and Part B (pedagogical preferences). Table 42-44 present the correlation between six language L2 motivation variables (integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, instrumental orientation, language anxiety, and language requirement), and the five categories of pedagogical preferences (Traditional Approach, Practical Proficiency, Challenge, Cooperative Learning, and Innovative Approach) for each target language group. Table 45 summarizes the correlations for all the participants.

There were statistically significant links between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences across the three target language groups. Specifically, Integrative-ness (r =. 210 ~ .472, p < .05), and attitude (r =. 188 ~ .339, p < .05) had a weak to moderate correlation with all the types of Part B except Cooperative Learning. And motivation subscale of L2 Motivations (r =. 208 ~ .375, p < .05) had a weak to moderate correlation with all the five types of classroom activities, including Cooperative Learning. Instrumental orientation (r = .176, p <.05) and language anxiety (r = .231, p <.01) affected only the liking of Challenge with a weak correlation. Language requirement, however, was not a significant predictor of their pedagogical preferences in the study.

Depending on the types of classroom activities, the correlation with overall L2 Motivations varied; Practical Proficiency (r = .303, p <.01), Challenge (r = .394, p <.01), and Innovative Approach (r = .293 p <.05) had a weak to moderate correlation with overall L2 Motivations. Cooperative Learning (r = .216, p <.05) had a weak correlation, and Traditional Approach (r = .148, p >.05) had a no significant correlation with overall L2 Motivations (see Table 45).

Despite the common features across the language groups, there were unique characteristics of each language group (see Table 42-44). For learners of Chinese, Traditional Approach was more likely to be appreciated by the learners who had positive attitude (r = .364, p <.01), and motivation (r = .324, p <. 05) than any other subscales of L2 Motivations (Part A). Both Practical Proficiency (r = .448, p <. 01), and Innovative Approach (r = .355, p <. 05) were strongly correlated with integrative-ness, attitude, and motivation. Challenge (r = .300, p <. 05), however, was appreciated positively only by students who have high scores in the attitude subscale of Part A. Cooperative Learning, the least liked approach among all the participants, was correlated moderately with the motivation subscale scores (r = .320, p <. 05). Among the five scales of L2 Motivations, attitude, and motivation are the two predictors that were consistently correlated across the five different classroom activity categories to learners of Chinese (see Table 42).

Only the learners of Japanese, not the other two language learners, showed statistically significant correlation (r = .367, p < .05) between L2 Motivations and Traditional Approach. It indicates that the higher L2 motivations the students have, the more likely they are to approve of Traditional Approach for their L2 learning. Practical Proficiency was moderately correlated with the scales of integrative-ness (r = .406, p < .01), attitudes (r = .309, p < .05), and motivation (r = .318, p < .05) of L2 Motivations (Part A). Challenge (r = .405, p <. 01) had a moderate correlation with overall scores of Part A. Cooperative Learning, the least favored approach among the participants, was correlated moderately with instrumental subscale scores (r = .323, p <. 05). Cooperative Learning got less resistance from learners with higher instrumental orientation scores. Innovative Approach was strongly correlated with integrative-ness (r = .495, p <. 01), and motivation (r = .312, p <. 05) (see Table 43).

Lastly, learners of Korean showed no statistically significant correlation between L2 Motivations and the Traditional Approach, and Cooperative Learning. Regardless of their L2 Motivations status, the learners of Korean showed a strong preference for Traditional Approach (M = 6.28, SD = .84) but relatively less preference for Cooperative Learning (M = 4.85, SD = 1.19). Practical Proficiency (r = .322, p <. 05) was moderately correlated only with the scale of integrative-ness of L2 Motivations (Part A), which was different from the other two language learner groups. Learners of Korean liked Practical Proficiency approach mainly because of their genuine desire to communicate with the Korean language speakers. Challenge (r = .420, p <. 01) has a stronger correlation with overall scores of Part A than any other types of Part B (see Table 44). The higher L2 Motivations, in general, language learners have, the more likely they are to approve of challenge in their learning.

Table 42

Correlations between L2 Motivation and Pedagogical Preferences for learners of Chinese

	Traditional	Practical	Challenge	Cooperative	Innovative
Part A	.174	.448**	.300*	.136	.355*
integrative-ness	.191	.432**	.048	.067	.395**
attitudes	.364**	.582**	.278*	.220	.572**
motivation	.324*	.457**	.226	.320*	.484**
instrumental	.120	.251	.143	-.191	.127
language anxiety	-.188	-.099	.253	.125	-.145
language requirement	.068	.029	.194	-.037	.173

Note. n= 51

* p < .05 (2-tailed). ** p < .01 (2-tailed).

Table 43

Correlations between L2 Motivation and Pedagogical Preferences for learners of Japanese

	Traditional	Practical	Challenge	Cooperative	Innovative
Part A	.367*	.255	.405**	.341*	.190
integrative-ness	.544**	.406**	.295*	.297*	.495**

attitudes	.474**	.309*	.130	.029	.182
motivation	.454**	.318*	.344*	.278	.312*
instrumental	.129	.030	.229	.323*	-.010
language anxiety	-.232	-.108	.118	-.016	-.179
language requirement	-.149	-.080	-.110	-.023	.042

Note. n=47

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Table 44

Correlations between L2 Motivation and Pedagogical Preferences for learners of Korean

	Traditional	Practical	Challenge	Cooperative	Innovative
Part A	-.086	.131	.420**	.159	.310*
integrative-ness	.054	.322*	.220	.064	.537**
attitudes	-.018	-.048	.078	-.186	-.099
motivation	.005	.163	.243	-.004	.320*
instrumental	-.168	-.038	.266	.136	.041
language anxiety	-.052	.012	.293	.244	.094
language requirement	-.026	-.231	.212	.257	-.068

Note. n=42

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Table 45

Correlations between L2 Motivation and Pedagogical Preferences across all target language groups

	Traditional	Practical	Challenge	Cooperative	Innovative
Part A	.148	.303**	.394**	.216*	.293*
integrative-ness	.257**	.391**	.210*	.147	.472**
attitudes	.297**	.339**	.188*	.058	.266**
motivation	.268**	.327**	.279**	.208*	.375**
instrumental	.054	.106	.176*	.079	.055
language anxiety	-.184*	-.068	.231**	.117	-.078
language requirement	-.014	-.068	.086	.048	.056

Note. n=140

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

In this study, Standard multiple regression was also used to determine the best predictor of each category in Part B (Pedagogical Preferences). Main effects for the five scales of Part A (L2 Motivations) – integrative-ness, attitudes, motivation, instrumental orientation, and language anxiety, and language requirement factor were included in the model. Table 46-50 present the unstandardized regression coefficients and intercept, the standard error of the unstandardized coefficients, standardized regression coefficients, and the squared multiple coefficients (R^2) of the model for each category of Part B (Pedagogical Preferences).

The Standard multiple regression analysis (Table 46) revealed that the six variables—integrative-ness, attitudes, motivation, instrumental orientation, language anxiety, and language requirement are statistically significant to the prediction of the preference of Traditional Approach. The six variables combined to explain 15 % of the variance in appreciation of Traditional Approach (R^2 = .148, F (6,133) = 3.854, p = .001). With regard to Practical Proficiency (Table 47), the analysis results showed that the six variables combined to explain 19% of the variance in the preference of Practical Proficiency (R^2 = .189, F (6, 133) = 5.157, p <.001). The analysis on Challenge (Table 48) also revealed that the variables combined to account for 18% of the variance in the preference for Challenge (R^2 = .181, F (6, 133) = 4.910, p <.001). However, Cooperative Learning had the smallest correlation with scales of Part A (L2 Motivations) (r = . 216, p < .05), and L2 Motivations did not have a statistically significant impact on the appreciation of Cooperative Learning (F (6, 133) = 1.904, p =.085).

Lastly, Table 50 presents the result of the analysis on Innovative Approach. The results showed that the variables combined to account for 25% of the variance in the preference of the approach (R^2 = .251, F (6, 133) = 7.444, p <.001).

Table 46

Standard Multiple Regression Model Predicting Preference for Traditional Approach

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Variables	*B*	*Std. Error*	*Beta*	t	*p*
(Constant)	3.877	0.745		5.205	<.001*
integrative-ness	0.112	0.102	.114	1.093	.276
attitudes	0.263	0.126	.208	2.082	.039*
motivation	0.097	0.128	.083	0.756	.451
instrumental	-0.060	0.056	-.095	-1.077	.284
language anxiety	-0.109	0.047	-.195	-2.318	.022*
language requirement	0.083	0.166	-.041	0.498	.619

Note. Model R^2 = .148, F (6, 133) = 3.854 p = .001; adjusted R^2 = .110

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

Table 47

Standard Multiple Regression Model Predicting Preference for Practical Proficiency

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Variables	*B*	*Std. Error*	*Beta*	*t*	*p*
(Constant)	4.077	0.503		8.102	<.001**
integrative-ness	0.180	0.069	.266	2.613	.010*
attitudes	0.149	0.085	.171	1.751	.082
motivation	0.063	0.086	.077	0.724	.470
instrumental	-0.017	0.038	-.039	-0.456	.649
language anxiety	-0.021	0.032	-.055	-0.667	.506
language requirement	0.027	0.112	.019	0.239	.812

Note. Model R^2 = .189, F (6, 133) = 5.157, p <.001; adjusted R^2 = .152

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

Table 48

Standard Multiple Regression Model Predicting Preference for Challenge

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Variables	*B*	*Std. Error*	*Beta*	*t*	*p*
(Constant)	1.493	0.779		1.918	.057
integrative-ness	0.026	0.107	.025	0.248	.805
attitudes	-0.008	0.132	-.006	-0.059	.953
motivation	0.321	0.134	.257	2.401	.018*
instrumental	0.122	0.058	.181	2.088	.039
language anxiety	0.189	0.049	.315	3.833	<.001*
language requirement	0.032	0.174	.015	0.182	.856

Note. Model R^2 = .181, F (6, 133) = 4.910, p < .001; adjusted R^2 = .144

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

Table 49

Standard Multiple Regression Model Predicting Preference for Cooperative Learning

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Variables	*B*	*Std. Error*	*Beta*	*t*	*p*
(Constant)	2.781	0.999		2.784	.006*
integrative-ness	0.050	0.137	.039	0.362	.718
attitudes	-0.197	0.169	-.121	-1.165	.246
motivation	0.377	0.171	.249	2.196	.030*
instrumental	0.058	0.075	.072	0.780	.437
language anxiety	0.122	0.063	.168	1.930	.056
language requirement	0.127	0.223	.049	0.569	.570

Note. Model R^2 = .079, F (6, 133) = 1.904, p =.085; adjusted R^2 = .038

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

Table 50

Standard Multiple Regression Model Predicting Preference for Innovative Approach

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Variables	*B*	*Std. Error*	*Beta*	*t*	*p*
(Constant)	3.429	0.643		5.337	<.001**
integrative-ness	0.359	0.088	.399	4.079	<.001**
attitudes	0.003	0.109	.003	0.028	.978
motivation	0.170	0.110	.158	1.545	.125
instrumental	-0.067	0.048	-.115	-1.395	.165
language anxiety	-0.036	0.041	-.069	-0.880	.381
language requirement	0.062	0.143	.034	0.433	.665

Note. Model R^2 = .251 F (6, 133) = 7.444, p <.001; adjusted R^2 = .218

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

Summary

The quantitative data addressed the five research questions of the present study: 1) What are the L2 motivations of the learners Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting? 2) Do demographic variables —age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and self-rated proficiency level — affect their L2 motivation? 3) What are pedagogical preferences in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting? 4) Do demographic variables — age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and self-rated proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences? 5) Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their Pedagogical Preferences?

For Research Question 1, results of descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA and independent sample T-test showed that learners of the Asian languages

(Chinese/Japanese/Korean) recorded high scores across the five subscales on a 7-point scale: integrative-ness (M = 6.06, SD = 0.97), attitudes toward the learning situation(M = 6.47, SD = 0.75), motivation (M = 5.90, SD = 0.82), and instrumental orientation (M = 5.60, SD = 1.51). All of these reasons account for their L2 Motivations across the participants, and they had high L2 Motivations in general. The three Asian language learners had a moderate level of anxiety (M = 3.56, SD = 1.70). However, the Korean language learners (M = 2.95, SD = 1.55) had the lowest anxiety; the Chinese learners (M = 3.91, SD = 1.83) recorded the highest anxiety; the Japanese learners (M = 3.73, SD = 1.58) stood in the middle. The difference between learners of Korean and Chinese language was statistically significant. The language requirement factor affected L2 Motivations more to Chinese speaking students than to English or Korean speaking students. The language requirement factor played a more important role among Chinese speaking students as a reason for learning a foreign language than among English or Korean speaking students.

With regard to Research Question 2, the results of independent sample T-test, and one-way ANOVA with the Scheffe post-hoc comparison demonstrated that the following demographic variables influenced on their L2 Motivation significantly: gender, major, students' L1, target language (TL), and language requirement factor. **Gender.** Female students (M = 5.65, SD = 0.57), on the whole, were more motivated than male students (M = 5.41, SD = 0.66), specifically, in integrative-ness (M = 6.25, SD = 0.84); gender had a small to medium effect size on integrative-ness ($F = 6.94$, $p = .03$, Partial $\eta^2 = .033$). Females also reported (M = 3.731, SD = 1.58) showed lower language anxiety than males (M = 3.91, SD = 1.83). Gender had a small impact on language anxiety among the participants. ($F = 4.18$, $p = .002$, Partial $\eta^2 = .012$).

On the contrary, male students showed higher scores in the other subscales—attitude, motivation, and instrumental orientation. Male students (M = 6.00, SD = 0.78) had higher scores

in motivation than female students (M = 5.81, SD = 0.78); gender produced a small to moderate effect size on motivation ($F = 3.49$, $p = .009$, Partial $\eta^2 = .048$). Male students (M = 5.67, SD = 1.50) also showed higher instrumental orientation than females (M = 5.38, SD = 1.58). Gender appears to affect instrumental orientation ($F = 1.01$, $p = .006$, Partial $\eta^2 = .053$) to some extent. Male students (M = 6.61, SD = 0.77) had more positive attitude than female students (M = 6.38, SD = 0.79) as well, but the differences were not statistically significant. There was a small to medium effect size ($F = .71$, $p = .02$, Partial $\eta^2 = .038$) for gender on overall L2 Motivations. In other words, gender accounted for the variation of L2 Motivations to some extent.

Major. Non-STEM major students (M = 5.85, SD = 1.46) had higher level of instrumental orientation than STEM major students (M = 5.23, SD = 1.53). The students' major produced a small to moderate effect size ($F = .14$, $p = .02$, Partial $\eta^2 = .040$) on instrumental orientation. Non-STEM major students are more likely to study the foreign language courses for practical reasons than STEM major students. Major, however, does not have a statistically significant impact on the other subscales of L2 Motivations.

L1. There was a statistically significant difference among the three L1 groups; students who reported Chinese as their L1 (M = 5.60, SD = 1.08) recorded lower scores in integrative-ness than English (M = 6.40, SD = 0.77) or Korean (M = 6.57, SD = 0.37) speaking students. Students' L1 ($F = 9.52$, $p < .001$, Partial $\eta^2 = .174$) has a large impact on L2 Motivations, specifically, on integrative-ness in this study. The learner's L1 accounted for 17 % of the variation in integrative-ness; English speaking students are likely to have higher interest in the target language, the target language group, and communication with the TL speaking people.

TL. Learners of Chinese language (M = 3.91, SD = 1.83) had, on the whole, more language anxiety than the learners of Korean (M = 2.95, SD = 1.55), or Japanese (M = 3.37, SD = 1.58).

The students of the Korean language had the lowest anxiety among the three target language groups. TL ($F = 4.18$, $p = .02$, Partial $\eta^2 = .119$) accounted for 12 % of the variation in language anxiety in the sample.

Language Requirement. Lastly, students fulfilling the language requirement with their current foreign language classes (M = 5. 42, SD = 0.68) showed lower integrative-ness than students who are not under the requirement (M = 5.57, SD = 0.59). However, the mean difference between the two groups is not statistically significant.

To answer Research Question 3, the results of independent sample T-test, and one-way ANOVA illustrated that Practical Proficiency (M = 6.35, SD = 0.66) was liked the most, Innovative Approach (M = 6.17, SD = 0.88), and Traditional Approach (M = 6.15, SD = 0.96) were next highly preferred. Cooperative Learning (M = 4.87, SD = 1.23) and Challenge (M = 4.87, SD = 1.02) were liked the least by the participants across the three language groups.

Despite the fact that Challenge and Cooperative Learning were the least preferred approaches among the participants, learners of Chinese language in the study were relatively less resistant to the Challenge (M = 5.13, SD = 0.94), and Cooperative Learning (M = 5.01, SD = 1.32) than learners of Korean or Japanese. Concerning the two least preferred approaches—Challenge, and Cooperative Learning, Korean speaking students were most likely to be appreciative of Challenge (M = 5.32, SD = 0.69), and Cooperative Learning (M = 5.23 , SD = 1.36) whereas English speaking students were least likely to approve of Challenge (M = 4.86, SD = 1.07), and Cooperative Learning (M =4.84, SD = 1.18).

With regard to Research Question 4, the results of the T-test and ANOVA test indicated gender, age, and L1 significantly affected student's pedagogical preferences in L2 learning while the other demographic variables did not. **Gender.** The female students have a significantly

higher appreciation for Traditional Approach ($F = .39$, $p = .03$, Partial $\eta^2 = .032$), Practical Proficiency ($F = 2.62$, $p = .01$, Partial $\eta^2 = .045$), Innovative Approach ($F = .35$, $p = .03$, Partial $\eta^2 = .035$). **Age**. The age group of above 23 ($F = 4.08$, $p = .008$, Partial $\eta^2 = .083$) is significantly less likely to approve of Cooperative Learning than students of 18-19 and 20-21 age group. **L1.** The English-speaking students reported significantly higher preferences for Practical Proficiency than Chinese-speaking students ($F = 5.57$, $p = .001$, Partial $\eta^2 = .110$). Challenge (M = 4.96, SD = 0.64), and Cooperative Learning (M = 4.32, SD = 0.74) were approved of the most by the Korean speaking students while Innovative Approach (M = 3.20, SD = 1.71) got the least liking by the Chinese-speaking students among the three L1 groups.

To answer Research Question 5, Correlation Analysis and Multiple Regressions between six predictors of L2 Motivations, including language requirement factor and pedagogical preferences were used with the $p < .05$ level. There were statistically significant links between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences across the three target language groups. Specifically, Integrative-ness ($r =$. 210 ~ .472), and attitude ($r =$. 188 ~ .339, $p < .05$) had a weak to moderate correlation with all the types of Part B except Cooperative Learning. And motivation subscale of L2 Motivations ($r =$. 208 ~ .375, $p < .05$) had a weak to moderate correlation with all the five types of classroom activities, including Cooperative Learning. Instrumental orientation ($r = .176$, $p <.05$) and language anxiety ($r = .231$, $p <.01$) affected only the liking of Challenge with a weak correlation. The language requirement, however, was not a significant predictor of their pedagogical preferences in the study. Depending on the types of classroom activities, the correlation with L2 Motivations varied; Practical Proficiency ($r = .303$, $p <.01$), Challenge ($r = .394$, $p <.01$), and Innovative Approach ($r = .293$ $p <.05$) had a weak to moderate correlation with overall L2 Motivations. Cooperative Learning ($r = .216$, $p <.05$) had a weak correlation, and

Traditional Approach (r = .148, p >.05) had a no significant correlation with overall L2 Motivations.

For the unique characteristics of each target language group, for learners of Chinese, Traditional Approach was more likely to be appreciated by the learners who had positive attitude (r = .364, p <.01), and motivation (r = .324, p <. 05) than any other subscales of L2 Motivations (Part A). Both Practical Proficiency (r = .448, p <. 01), and Innovative Approach (r = .355, p <. 05) were strongly correlated with integrative-ness, attitude, and motivation. Challenge (r = .300, p <. 05) were appreciated positively only by students who have high scores in the attitude subscale of Part A. Cooperative Learning which was the least liked among the participants was correlated moderately with motivation subscale scores (r = .320, p <. 05). Among the five scales of L2 Motivations, attitude, and motivation are the two predictors that were consistently correlated across the five different classroom activity categories to learners of Chinese.

Only the learners of Japanese, not the other two language learners, showed statistically significant correlation (r = .367, p < .05) between L2 Motivations and Traditional Approach. It indicates that Japanese language learners with high L2 motivations are more likely to approve of Traditional Approach for their learning. Practical Proficiency was moderately correlated with the scales of integrative-ness (r = .406, p < .01), attitudes (r= .309, p < .05), and motivation (r = .318, p < .05) of L2 Motivations (Part A). Challenge (r = .405, p <. 01) had a moderate correlation with overall scores of Part A. Cooperative Learning, the least favored approach among the participants, was correlated moderately with instrumental subscale scores (r = .323, p <. 05). Innovative Approach was strongly correlated with integrative-ness (r = .495, p <. 01), and motivation (r = .312, p <. 05).

Lastly, learners of Korean showed no statistically significant correlation between L2 Motivations and the Traditional Approach, and Cooperative Learning. Regardless of their L2 Motivations status, the learners of Korean showed a strong preference for Traditional Approach (M = 6.28, SD = .84) but relatively less preference to Cooperative Learning (M = 4.85, SD = 1.19). Practical Proficiency (r = .322, p <. 05) was moderately correlated only with the scale of integrative-ness of L2 Motivations (Part A), which was different from the other two language learner groups. Learners of Korean liked Practical Proficiency approach mainly because of their genuine desire to communicate with the Korean language speakers. Challenge (r = .420, p <. 01) has a stronger correlation with overall scores of Part A than any other types of Part B (see Table 44). The higher L2 Motivations, in general, language learners have, the more likely they are to approve of challenge in their learning.

From the Multiple Regression analysis, the six combined variables—integrative-ness, attitude, motivation, instrumental orientation, language anxiety, and language requirement explained 15 % of the variance in appreciation of Traditional Approach (R^2 = .148, F (6,133) = 3.854, p = .001), 19% of Practical Proficiency (R^2= .189, F (6, 133) = 5.157, p <.001), 18% of Challenge (R^2 = .181, F (6, 133) = 4.910, p <.001), and 25% of Innovative Approach (R^2 = .251, F (6, 133) = 7.444, p <.001). However, Cooperative Learning had the smallest correlation with the scales of Part A (L2 Motivations) (r =. 216, p < .05); L2 Motivations did not have a statistically significant impact on the appreciation of Cooperative Learning (F (6, 133) = 1.904, p = .085).

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter presents the study summary, conclusions based on the data analysis, implications of the findings, limitations, and results. Recommendations for future research are also described.

Statement of Problem

It is generally assumed in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) that different types of instruction may lead to different outcomes in learning (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Tomita, 2010), with some learners benefiting more from a specific instructional type than other types. However, in selecting instructional methods for learners, their learning motivations should be the starting point. Instructional methods that better match the participants' approach or motivation to learning could promote overall learning effectiveness, including language learning (Dornyei, 2006). Uniquely, as for more self-directed adult learners (Knowles,1975), their learning motivations should be placed in the center of their learning process; their learning motivation is one of the critical factors to their success of learning.

A mismatch between the teaching preferences of the teacher and the learning preferences of learners is a potential source of difficulty in the learning process (Nunan,1993). There have been some studies on the relationship between student motivation and pedagogical preferences (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996; Jacques, 2001; Ockert, 2011; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001).

For example, Schmidt et al. (1996) reported that students with high scores on the affect dimension of motivation welcomed communicative classes, while those with low scores on that dimension tended to reject the communicative classroom. However, the study on the link between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preference has been left mostly unresearched.

Moreover, research has rarely explored the relationships between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences among the learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a collegiate setting. Previous Asian language studies focused primarily on its unique linguistic features and empirical research on best practices (Allen, 2008; Byon, 2004a, 2004b, 2005; Choi, 1999; Lee, 1989, 1993; Lee, 1992; Lee, 1982; Miyazaki, 2010). Those Asian languages are categorized as the most challenging languages, and they require extended learning periods for most native speakers of English (MLA of America, 2018). There is a strong need to investigate the motivation of Asian language learners in a university setting, and the kinds of classroom structures and types of activities to which adult foreign language students react positively.

The purpose of this study was to identify motivations and the pedagogical preferences of learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean languages as a foreign language in U.S. higher education. Also, this research examined their relationships to demographic variables such as age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and its self-rated proficiency level. Lastly, this research explored the relationship between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences in the three Asian language learner groups.

Research Questions

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the L2 motivations of the learners Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
2. Do demographic variables —age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and self-rated proficiency level — affect their L2 motivations?
3. What are pedagogical preferences in learning Chinese/Japanese/Korean language in a university setting?
4. Do demographic variables — age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second languages (L2) learning experience, and self-rated proficiency level — affect their pedagogical preferences?
5. Is there a relationship between the learners' L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences?

Summary

Study Overview

The socio-educational model (Gardener, 1985a) was provided as the framework for this study. A quantitative research design was used to address five research questions using a survey. Three instruments were utilized in the survey: (1) a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) originated from Gardner's (1985a) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB); (2) Pedagogical preference questionnaire adapted from Schmidt and Watanabe's

(2001) Questionnaire Part B (Preferences for instructional activities); (3) the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) developed by the researcher to obtain more information about the participants' demographic features and general information.

The online questionnaire was distributed to the students who were over 18 years old and are /were enrolled in Chinese/Japanese/Korean language courses for course credit at a southeastern four-year university in the United States. There were approximately 180 Chinese language, 180 Japanese language, and 150 Korean language learners in the courses mentioned above. Of those 510 students, 167 students responded with a response rate of 32.7%. Among 167 responses, 27 responses were eliminated because they were incomplete. One hundred forty responses were usable (applicable rate equals to 83.8%) and included in the analysis.

Among the valid 140 respondents, 74 were male participants (52.9%), and 66 were female participants (47.1%). There were more male participants than female participants. The participants between the ages of 18-19 consisted of 30 (21.4%); 20-21(46.4%);22-23 (24.5%); and above 23 (7.7%). The majority of the participants in the study were the age of from 18 to 21, which consisted of 67.8% of the total respondents. The number of the freshman was only 8 (5.7%), sophomore 32 (22.9%), junior 46 (32.9%), and senior 54 (38.6%). The number of first-year students is way smaller than the other school years, and most (71.5%) of them are junior or senior. Additionally, 40.0% of the participants reported that they majored in STEM fields (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math), while 60.0% of them majored in non-STEM fields. Concerning their L1, 53(37.9%) respondents speak Chinese as their L1(first language), 73 (52.1%) English, 7 (5.0%) Korean, and 7 (5.0%) other languages such as German, Hindi, and Vietnamese. Regarding their prior L2 learning experience, 90 (64.3%) had prior L2 learning experiences, and 50 (35.7%) did not. Among the 90 students, 32 (35.6%) reported their

the other L2 proficiency level as beginning level, 33 (36.7%) intermediate level, and 25 (27.8%) advanced level.

As to the number of valid respondents, there were 51 learners of Chinese (36.4%), 47 Japanese (33.6%), and 42 Korean (30.0 %). The number of participants in each language class was equally distributed. In terms of the level of the target language, 77 (55.0%) were from beginning classes, 40 (28.6%) from intermediate classes, and 23 (16.4%) from advanced classes. More than half of the participants were taking beginning level classes. 49 (35%) students reported that they learn the Asian language course to meet the requirement of their graduation, while 91 (65.0%) are not under any requirements.

Data collected from this survey was analyzed through ANOVAs, T-test, descriptive statistics, Pearson's *r* correlation, Cronbach's alpha test, and multiple regressions to examine the L2 Motivations and their pedagogical preferences concerning demographic variables, and the relationship between their Motivations and Pedagogical Preferences.

Findings of the Survey

Research Question 1 examined the L2 Motivations of the Asian languages (Chinese/Japanese/Korean). The learners of the Asian languages (Chinese/Japanese/Korean) recorded high scores across the five subscales: integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, and instrumental orientation. All of these reasons account for their L2 Motivations across the three target language groups, and they had high L2 Motivations in general over the subscales. This finding of the study seems to support the finding of Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) that students studying foreign languages in a U.S. university setting either see value in learning the foreign language they are studying for all of these reasons or none of them. It does not appear to be the case that some of the learners are instrumentally oriented towards

language study, others have a general interest in languages and cultures, and yet others enjoy language learning. All three language learner groups of the study also showed evenly distributed high scores across the subscales of L2 Motivation.

Research Question 2 investigated what demographic variables influence on their L2 Motivations. Among the demographic variables —age, gender, school year, major, first language (L1), target language (TL), TL course level, graduation requirement, other second language (L2) learning experience and its self-rated proficiency level, only a few variables such as gender, major, L1, and, TL had a significant correlation with their L2 Motivations.

Gender. Gender affected L2 Motivations across the most subscales. Even though males showed a higher level of attitude, motivation, and instrumental orientations than female students, the gap was not as big as the gap of integrative-ness between the gender groups. In this study, female students had a much higher level of integrative-ness. This result supports the finding of Kang (2000) that girls had higher degrees of integrative orientation than boys. Overall, in this study, the female students had higher L2 Motivations than the male students. This finding confirms many previous studies— for recent EFL: Henry, 2009, 2010; Hou-Keat, Hassan & Ramli, 2017; Iwaniec, 2015; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013; Ryan, 2009; and for other foreign languages: Kissau, 2006; Kissau, Kolano, & Wang, 2010; for more previous studies: Henry, 2010), and particularly in the core affective domain of integrative-ness (Ahmadi, 2011; Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Henry, 2010; Okuniewski, 2014).

Nevertheless, some studies reported completely contradictory results (Al-Bustan & Al-Bustan, 2009; Polat, 2011) or no significant gender differences in L2 motivations (Akram & Ghani, 2013; Azarnoosh & Birjandi, 2012; Henry, 2010). According to Henry (2010), these inconsistent results might result from selection and sociocultural factors. Since gender-related

behavioral differences are contextual and cultural-dependent, more researches are needed, particularly in contexts where social practices, hierarchies, and ideologies are different from those in the West. These studies will help provide a better understanding of gender differences in L2 motivations and contribute to the literature on the gender gap (Hou-Keat, Hassan & Ramli, 2017).

Major. Non-STEM major students (M = 5.85, SD = 1.46) had higher level of instrumental orientation than STEM major students (M = 5.23, SD = 1.53). The students' major produced a small to moderate effect size ($F = .14$, $p = .02$, Partial $\eta^2 = .040$) on instrumental orientation. Major does not have a statistically significant impact on the other subscales of L2 Motivations. Based on the analysis of the data, non-STEM major students are more likely to study the foreign language courses for practical reasons than STEM major students.

L1. L1 was also correlated with L2 Motivations, more specifically with the integrative-ness factor. Chinese speaking students showed the lowest level of integrative-ness, but they showed the highest scores on the language requirement question than English or Korean speaking students. Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) also found that students who agree with the statement that they are studying a language mainly to fulfill the language requirement are less likely to score high on other measures of motivation. Nevertheless, they were cautious in claiming that having a language requirement lowers motivation or fosters poor learning habits. Instead, they stated that students who believed the requirement was the only or primary reason to study the language got those adverse effects.

Similar to their findings, this study also did not reveal any statistically significant correlation between language requirement and L2 motivations. However, this study results showed that 51% of the Chinese speaking students in the sample were fulfilling the language

requirement, while only 23 % of English-speaking students were fulfilling the requirement. Even though this study did not contrast students, who were studying in order to fulfill the language requirement with those who were not, the lowest level of integrative-ness in Chinese speaking students may be related to this language requirement factor to some extent.

With these findings taken into consideration, Chinese speaking students seem to have passivity to the foreign language itself. They appear to be hindered from putting legitimate efforts to learning the foreign language and end up not attaining the expected language performance level. Concerning this, Wen (1997) also alerted that such a mechanical requirement, measured by the numbers of classes or hours taken and the amount of grammatical knowledge covered in a course, does little to motivate a student to learn the language. To maximize students' learning, he suggested that the language requirement should be changed to one that measures how much students can use language to communicate. Then, passivity may cease to be a relevant motivation, and students readily see the value of becoming proficient.

TL. This study found that the TL variable was correlated with learner's language anxiety. In this study, the learners' language anxiety level was significantly different across the target language groups; the learners of the Chinese recorded the highest anxiety; the learners of Japanese stood in the middle; the learners of Korean had the lowest anxiety. Consistent with findings of Wen (1997), it is possible that many students, when they first start to learn Chinese, are fascinated by the Chinese writing system but are not aware of the amount of time required to learn Chinese characters. They may not know the learning task that awaits them. Indeed, the study of Ganschow et al. (1994) revealed that there is a positive correlation between perceived level of difficulty and level of foreign language anxiety. In their study, the majority of students with high levels of foreign language anxiety found their language course difficult. In contrast,

the majority of their low-anxious counterparts found their language course easy. The writing system Chinese is also very different from that of English. Chinese is a very different and challenging language for English speakers (Chang, 1987).

The reasons for the lowest anxiety among students of the Korean language may vary. They might have more learning opportunities outside of classrooms than students of Chinese or Japanese language. There were more Korean populations than Chinese or Japanese in the setting of this study; they could feel more comfortable and less anxious with communicating Korean speaking people. There were two Korean language and culture related organizations providing free Korean tutoring programs at the university of the study, and the Korean language learners might have more resources to resort to when they encountered difficulties.

Research Question 3 examined the pedagogical preferences of the three target language learners. Practical Proficiency was liked the most, Innovative Approach and Traditional Approach were next highly preferred, and Cooperative Learning and Challenge were liked the least by the participants across the three language groups. Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) also reported that Practical Proficiency was approved of the most highly, and Traditional Approach next highly approved of, and Challenge approved of the least by the participants.

Concerning the differences among the three target language groups, in the Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) study, learners of Chinese and Japanese did not show any significant differences in appreciation of Challenge and Cooperative Learning. However, in this study, learners of Chinese language showed less resistance to Challenge and Cooperative Learning than learners of Japanese or Korean.

Research Question 4 explored whether their pedagogical preferences in their language learning are correlated with the demographic variables. Gender, age, and L1 were significantly

correlated with student's pedagogical preferences while the other demographic variables were not.

Gender. The female students have a significantly higher appreciation for Traditional Approach, Practical Proficiency, Innovative Approach than the male students in this study. Previously, it was generally accepted that women show higher performance on verbal tasks and men on spatial tasks (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1979; Tittle, 1986). This assumption might lead to the hypothesis that communication demands on the learners are more likely to be favored by females, who showed a higher level of integrative-ness in their motivation in this study. However, the gender difference in preferences for language learning has not been addressed widely in the literature. The general literature on gender differences in educational settings or approaches has been widely criticized, and such predictions should be best considered with caution (Bowd, McDougall, & Yewchuck, 1994). Thus, more studies regarding this issue are needed for a better understanding of the gender difference in pedagogical preferences.

Age. The age group of 18-19, and of 22-23 welcomed Cooperative Learning more than students of 24 or above years old. Many previous pieces of research have suggested that Cooperative Learning is beneficial to foreign language learning for many reasons. Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain, and Steiner (1997), for example, reported that small-group cooperative practice of modified interaction and social interaction strategies improve EFL learners' communicative competence. Similarly, Thomson (1998), in her study of a group of third-year Australian university students in a Japanese language class, found that cooperation among teachers and students increased interaction opportunities among learners and promoted autonomous learning. Ning and Hornby's (2014) research also suggests that Cooperative Learning may have an important role to play in

tertiary English teaching in China because of the findings that Cooperative Learning was better than traditional teaching in improving learners' intrinsic motivation.

In this study, Cooperative Learning was the least favored method among the participants. Moreover, the students who were the age of 24 or above showed the least approval on the method. However, before results can be generalized, additional research is required to ascertain whether these differences hold in other contexts. Because in the current study, the students aged 24 or above take up only 7.7% in the sample.

L1. The English-speaking students showed significantly higher preferences for Practical Proficiency than Chinese-speaking students. In the study, 50% of Chinese-speaking students fulfill the graduation requirement through the foreign language course, while 25% of English-speaking students do. From these results, the English-speaking students are somewhat less likely than Chinese-speaking students to indicate agreement that they are studying mainly to fulfill the language requirement. In other words, they are more motivated to use the target language in communicating in the language than Chinese-speaking students. Challenge and Cooperative Learning were approved of the most by the Korean speaking students while the Innovative Approach got the most likeness by the English-speaking students among the L1 groups. However, these differences were not statistically significant in the data analysis.

Research Question 5 explored the relationship between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences in the three Asian language learner groups. There were statistically significant links between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences across the three target language groups. Specifically, integrative-ness, and attitude had a weak to moderate correlation with all the types of Part B except Cooperative Learning. And motivation subscale of L2 had a weak to moderate correlation with all the five types of classroom activities, including Cooperative Learning.

Depending on the types of classroom activities, the correlation with L2 Motivations varied; Practical Proficiency, Challenge, and Innovative Approach had a weak to moderate correlation with overall L2 Motivations. Cooperative Learning had a weak correlation, and Traditional Approach had a no significant correlation with overall L2 Motivations. The findings of this study support Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) research regarding significant correlations (r = .50) between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences.

However, in Schmidt and Watanabe's study, not all the students' preferences for pedagogical practices were affected by all aspects of L2 Motivations equally; a liking for challenging activities in the foreign language classroom was the most associated scale with various aspects of motivation positively. A similar finding was also observed in this study. Challenge stood out among the five types of classroom practices as the most associated type with all the aspects of motivation positively.

This study investigated the effect size of the variables on the pedagogical preferences as well. The six combined variables— integrative-ness, attitude, motivation, instrumental orientation, language anxiety, and language requirement, explained 15 % of the variance in appreciation of Traditional Approach, 19% of Practical Proficiency, 18% of Challenge, and 25% of Innovative Approach.

Lastly, the language requirement was not a significant factor in their pedagogical preferences in the study. Accordingly, future research could further investigate the role of language requirement factor in foreign language learners' preferences on classroom activities types.

Conclusions

First, with regard to L2 Motivations, similar to the previous study (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001), this study demonstrates that the learners of the Asian languages (Chinese/Japanese/Korean) recorded evenly distributed high scores across the five subscales: integrative-ness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation and instrumental orientation. Gender, major, L1, and TL had a significant correlation with their L2 Motivations while the others did not correlate.

Female students had a much higher level of the integrative-ness. This result supports the finding of Kang (2000) that girls had higher degrees of integrative orientation than boys. Overall, in this study, the female students had higher L2 Motivations than the male students. This finding confirms previous studies—Ahmadi, 2011; Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Henry, 2010; Okuniewski, 2014. Non-STEM major students had higher level of instrumental orientation than STEM major students. Non-STEM major students are more likely to study the foreign language courses for practical reasons than STEM major students. Chinese (L1) speaking students showed the lowest level of integrative-ness, but they had the strongest tendency to take the language course for their graduation requirement than other L1 groups. These results are consistent with Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) findings; those students who are studying a language mainly to fulfill the language requirement are less likely to score high on other measures of motivation. Concerning the L2 Motivations differences among learners of different target languages (TL), the learners of the Chinese recorded the highest anxiety; the learners of Japanese stood in the middle; the learners of Korean had the lowest anxiety.

Second, as for their pedagogical preferences in the study, Practical Proficiency was liked the most, and Innovative Approach and Traditional Approach were next highly preferred.

Cooperative Learning and challenge were liked the least by the participants across the three language groups. Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) also reported that Practical Proficiency was approved of the most highly, and Traditional Approach next highly approved of, and Challenge approved of the least by the participants.

Gender, age, and L1 are significantly correlated with the student's pedagogical preferences. The female students have a significantly higher appreciation for Traditional Approach, Practical Proficiency, and Innovative Approach than the male students. The age group of 18-19 and 22-23 welcomed Cooperative Learning (CL) more than students of above 23 years old. The English-speaking students showed significantly higher preferences for practical proficiency than Chinese-speaking students. For the difference among the three language groups, the learners of the Chinese language showed less resistance to challenge and Cooperative Learning than learners of Japanese or Korean.

Finally, consistent with what Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) found, there were statistically significant links between L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences across the three target language groups. However, not all aspects of motivation affected students' preferences for pedagogical practices equally. Integrative-ness and attitude had a weak to moderate correlation with all the types of Part B except Cooperative Learning. And motivation subscale of L2 Motivations had a weak to moderate correlation with all the five types of classroom activities, including Cooperative Learning. Instrumental orientation and language anxiety affected only the liking of Challenge with a weak correlation. The language requirement, however, was not a significant predictor of their pedagogical preferences in the study. Depending on the types of classroom activities, the correlation with overall L2 Motivations varied; Practical Proficiency, Challenge, and Innovative Approach had a weak to moderate correlation with overall L2

Motivations. Cooperative Learning had a weak correlation, and Traditional Approach had a no significant correlation with overall L2 Motivations. In terms of the effect size of the motivational variables on each type of pedagogical preferences, the six combined variables— integrative-ness, attitude, motivation, instrumental orientation, language anxiety, and language requirement accounted for 15 % of the variance in appreciation of Traditional Approach, 19% of Practical Proficiency, 18% of Challenge, and 25% of Innovative Approach.

Implications

The findings of this study suggest several pedagogical implications that extend beyond the sample population in a southeastern college in the U.S. This study builds upon current research on motivation and teaching methods in SLA that has been validated in a variety of different settings. Unlike most previous studies, this study explored the relationship between motivation and teaching methods among the adult learners of Chinese/Japanese/Korean languages in higher education. It provides generalizable implications via inferential statistics that are insightful to foreign language instructors in tertiary schools. The findings of this study suggest important implications for foreign language instructors to improve foreign language curriculum and instruction methods, particularly to provide a learning environment that enhances foreign language learning more effectively.

First, foreign language teachers should be aware of their student's L2 motivations. In second/foreign language (L2) learning, motivation has also been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the critical factors that influence the rate and success (Dörnyei, Z, 1998). Having a better understanding of their motivation will enhance more empathy of a teacher towards adult language learners and grow the better partnership between the teacher and the learners. Thus, at the early stage of teaching, needs analysis should be

implemented to recognize their motivations and their preferences. The results can help instructors plan the curriculum and lessons and navigate more successfully towards the goal of the course.

As Dörnyei (1994b) highlighted, Gardner's socio-educational model of language learning does not account for the pedagogical issues that may affect learning in the classroom, or for the cognitive aspects of motivation. Hence, some pedagogical recommendations for teachers could be derived. Students' motivation for learning a foreign language must be raised in order to successful learning of the language. Changing attitude is a difficult and challenging process with adult language learners. Instructors need to put extra effort into forming a positive attitude towards learning foreign languages throughout the course.

In this study, English-speaking students among the Asian language learners had higher integrative-ness to their target language than Chinese-speaking students. Given this result, instructors can reinforce that positive motivation by providing more opportunities to socialize and communicate with the target language speaking people—tutoring, cultural events, buddy programs, volunteer work opportunities in the target language community, or language exchange programs. Chinese-speaking students showed the lowest integrative-ness, but the highest link with fulfilling their language requirement through the foreign language course in the study. Thus, Instructors can use the language requirement status to improve the level of integrative-ness among students. They can consider giving extra credit for attending programs aforementioned to students who show low level of integrative-ness like Chinese-speaking students in this study. It is also suggested to incorporate more authentic materials. It will make their learning more meaningful beyond their language requirement fulfillment.

The Chinese-speaking students also had a lower preference for Practical Proficiency approach than English-speaking students. In the study, the correlation was strong between the integrative-ness as motivation and Practical Proficiency as a teaching method. Thus, it is not surprising that Chinese-speaking students are less active in speaking the target language. Using this data, instructors can design the course that is conducive to improving practical proficiency. Situational factors that are the school environment and contextual items may affect students' motivation, so teachers should provide a secure and engaging environment. They could, for instance, consider testing oral and listening skills in isolation, separately from written tests in order that the learners can be entirely focused on the practical proficiency-related activities. They can also consider giving the learners a second chance to take the oral test, which encourages the learners to keep practicing their speaking skills. Students who take the course for language requirements would not reject this opportunity. If only students who are below the course standards in speaking skills were allowed to retake the oral test, it would not take up too much of the instructor's time. Still, the effect of this second chance would be unimaginable in increasing their confidence in speaking in the target language. It will lead them to have a more active and positive attitude towards Practical Proficiency Approach.

Putting pressure on students in terms of the due date and opportunity limitations could only discourage them and is not a good idea, especially when the goal of the course is to develop students' speaking abilities. If the goal of the course could be met by the end of the semester, it would not hurt anyone to encourage the learners to keep on practicing and improving their skills throughout the course. As long as the learners are fully willing to retake speaking tests and to improve their proficiency, reducing pressure on students is necessary for best practices. To lower

the anxiety of learners, instructors should consider administering examinations and quizzes with less stringent time constraints.

In any case, certain types of language test items can increase anxiety levels (Madsen, Brown, & Jones, 1991), and all examinations should be constructed carefully. Given the MLA report that Asian languages are more challenging to learn for speakers of English than to learn European languages, it is more critical for the Asian language teachers to design the course assessment to lower their anxiety and foster a secure and safe climate throughout the course. For examples, all tests should be checked for content validity before they are administered. Instructors should consider giving pretest exposure to similar test items, where possible, as this has been found to reduce levels of anxiety (Onwuegbuzie et al., in press). Any reduction in foreign language anxiety has the potential to increase students' motivation to learn another language (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999).

Now moving on to learners' pedagogical preference in their foreign language learning, it is crucial for teachers to incorporate the learners' preferences as well as to broaden their view on learning a new language. For instance, the class should not be run utilizing Traditional Approach or just Practical Proficiency Approach. Some students feel more satisfied with grammar and vocabulary focused lessons while other students like to have activities for using the language in class. Therefore, teachers should balance the different liked styles of teaching among the learners.

However, it is also necessary to encourage the learners to go beyond their comfort zone and explore other dimensions of the target language skills through various learning activities. Communicative competence consists of four major components: grammatical competence to use the forms of language; discourse competence beyond sentence-level comprehension and

production; sociolinguistic competence to apply sociocultural contexts to communication; strategic competence to use of verbal and nonverbal tactics to accomplish a communicative goal (Brown & Lee, 2015). Starting from the common ground of the learners' pedagogical preferences, teachers should expand their learning experience to foster all the four components of competence in the course. Regardless of the motivations of learners, when it comes to learning a language, the four components of competence go hand in hand. Without balancing all the four competences, they cannot use the target language successfully. In fact, it is not a matter of choice among the four competences but a matter of degree to which they are willing to improve all the four competences.

In this study, learners across the target language groups did not approve of the Cooperative Learning approach much for the overall preferences of other approaches. Stevick (1980), however, indicated that "success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom" (p. 4). It has been noticed that learning is likely to be more successful when group cohesiveness is established in the classroom. Cooperative Learning activities in group work brought a greater quantity, and variety of speech than teacher-centered activities did (Long et al., 1976). Cooperative Learning helps students become more autonomous and self-controlled (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

To cultivate cohesiveness as a contributor to their learning, on-line chat rooms such as Kakao Talk (Korean), WeChat (Chinese), and Line (Japanese) are great spaces. Learners can have sufficient opportunities to use the target language without much anxiety or class time constraints in the online chat rooms. Indeed, in Freiermuth & Jarrell's (2006) study, online chatting provided a more comfortable environment, enhancing students' willingness to

communicate. Regarding benefits to the language teacher, they concluded that online chat provides another fruitful tool to enhance interaction in the target language.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. First, the present study involves the use of a survey questionnaire to investigate L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences. Given the particularly sophisticated and multi-faceted nature of L2 Motivations and the myriad factors that can affect the motivation, the students' motivations may not be thoroughly identified. Some potential drive behind the participants' target language learning motivation, for instance, preparation for later content courses and possible opportunities for overseas study, were not reflected by the measurement. Thus, no attempt will be made to generalize the findings of this study beyond the local context without caution.

Second, unlike Chinese and Japanese learner groups, current Korean learners in courses taught by the Principle Investigator (PI) were excluded for the Korean learner group from the study because of regulations of IRB that prevent any case of exercising coercion. It means that almost all in the Korean learner group in the sample had a prior learning experience in their previous semesters, which is not the case in Chinese and Japanese learner groups. The majority of Chinese and Japanese learners in the study did not take the language course before. However, their prior learning experience of the target language may be correlated to their motivation and pedagogical preferences. To address this heterogeneity, their perceived language level and their current course names were collected and incorporated in the data analysis. The homogeneity test was also conducted in the data analysis to address the inconsistency of the language groups.

Third, information was collected from participants in a large southeastern research institution. It may not represent all Chinese/Japanese/Korean learners in the U.S. Besides, the

effect size was small, which indicated that the implications of the study on L2 Motivations and the pedagogical preferences concerning their motivation needed to be evaluated carefully. The large unexplained proportion of variation in pedagogical preferences suggests that pedagogical preferences may be a composite construct influenced by many linguistic, psychological, and contextual precursors, as posited by Schmidt & Watanabe (2001). Furthermore, this study only involved students who are taking Chinese/Japanese/Korean credit courses in a college. Even though students in non-credit courses may have the similar motivation and pedagogical preferences, the setting of the study may lower the external validity of the study.

Lastly, limited studies have investigated the relationship between L2 motivations and pedagogical preferences. Specifically, it is not sufficiently investigated whether the L2 motivations of Chinese/Japanese/Korean language learners could predict their appreciation of specific pedagogical preferences, as well as how demographic variables affected the two areas.

Recommendations for Future Research

First, empirical and qualitative studies such as observation, focus groups, or interviews are needed to investigate L2 Motivations and pedagogical preferences during the learning process of the target language. These studies could also provide a deeper understanding of the present study. Second, future research could further investigate L2 Motivations and its relation to their pedagogical preferences across different populations, contexts, and age groups. It is also suggested to compare credit course students of the target language with non-credit course students regarding their L2 motivations and their pedagogical preferences during their learning process. Thirdly, follow-up studies are needed to clarify why the learners approve of specific teaching approaches more than other approaches. Finally, the foreign language requirement policy that requires a certain number of semesters should be considered for future studies.

Students who are fulfilling the requirement are less likely to be active in improving their proficiency overall. This trend raises questions such as how such a requirement influences the L2 motivations and their learning process, and what alternative requirement policy could be suggested instead of such mechanical regulations?

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Appendix A

Survey on Motivation and Preference on Foreign Language Learning

Part I. Demographics

Please provide the following demographic information. Choose the option that best describes you.

1. Gender

- ○ Male
- ○ Female
- ○ Prefer not to answer

2. Age

_____

3. Year in College

- ○ Freshman
- ○ Sophomore
- ○ Junior
- ○ Senior

4. First (Native) Language

- ○ Chinese
- ○ English
- ○ Japanese
- ○ Korean
- ○ Spanish
- ○ Other (Please specify.) _____

5. Major

- ○ STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, or Mathematics)
- ○ Non-STEM

6. Foreign language course you are taking or took

- ○ Chinese
- ○ Japanese
- ○ Korean

7. The **highest foreign language course level** you are taking or took**:**

- ○ Beginning (1010/1020)
- ○ Intermediate (2010/2020)
- ○ Advanced (3010/3050/3450/3930)

8. Is the **current/past foreign language course** for meeting a graduation **requirement**?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

9. Have you ever learned **other** foreign languages **before this one**?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

9-1. **If yes, what languages? Multiple choices are possible.**

- ☐ English
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ Japanese
- ☐ Spanish
- ☐ Korean
- ☐ Other (Please specify.)

_____

9-2. **Years of study of the other foreign languages**

_____

9-3. **Highest level you achieved in the other foreign languages**

- ○ Beginning
- ○ Intermediate
- ○ Advanced

Part II. Motivation

Read each statement and **choose the position** that best describes the extent to which the statement applies to you.

[Example] My feeling about snakes are

dangerous	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	safe

If you choose **the very left one**, it means that snakes are seen as **very dangerous**.

1. My feelings about learning foreign languages in order to converse with members of the foreign language community are

weak	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	strong

2. My interest in foreign languages is

low	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	high

3. My attitude towards members of the foreign language community is

unfavorable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	favorable

4. My attitude towards my foreign language instructor is

unfavorable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	favorable

5. My attitude towards my foreign language course is

unfavorable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	favorable

6. My work at learning a foreign language is

little	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	much

7. My desire to learn a foreign language is

low	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	high

8. My attitude toward learning a foreign language is

unfavorable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	favorable

9. The importance of learning a foreign language for future career is

low	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	high

10. My anxiety in my foreign language class is

low	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	high

11. My anxiety in interacting using my foreign language is

low	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	high

12. The importance of studying this language course to satisfy the university language requirement is

low	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	high

Part III. Pedagogical Preferences

The following statements are concerning your preferences as to your foreign/second language class. Using a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 being " Disagree", and 7 being "Agree", please read each statement and choose the option that best describes your agreement or disagreement about the statement.

	1 disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 agree
1. Grammar should be an important focus in a foreign language class	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2.Reading and writing should be an important focus in a foreign language class.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. Vocabulary should be an important focus in a foreign language class.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. Language lessons should be relevant to the students' learning goals.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. Students should ask questions whenever they have not understood a point in a foreign language class.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

6. Pronunciation should be an important focus in a foreign language class.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. Listening and speaking should be an important focus in a foreign language class.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. Activities in a foreign language class should be designed to help the students improve their abilities to communicate in the foreign language.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
9. It is important that the teacher gives immediate feedback in class so that students know if they are correct.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
10. Language instruction should focus on the general language of everyday situations.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

11. During a foreign language class, I would like to have only the foreign language spoken.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
12. In a foreign language class, I prefer activities and material that really challenge me to learn more.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
13. I prefer a language class in which there are lots of activities that allow me to participate actively.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
14. I prefer to sit and listen, and don't like being forced to speak in a foreign language class.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
15. I like language learning activities in which students work together in pairs or small groups.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

16. I prefer to work by myself in a foreign language class, not with other students.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
17. I prefer a foreign language class in which the students feel they are a cohesive group.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
18. Culture should be an important focus in a foreign language class.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
19. Activities in a foreign language class should be designed to help students to use and understand the foreign language appropriately in the given context or situations.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
20. I like a foreign language class that uses lots of authentic materials.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Appendix B

Authorization Letter from Dr. Watanabe

YW

Yuichi Watanabe <yuichiwatanabe.aso@gmail.com>

오늘, 오후 3:05

Haesoon An

전체 회신

작업 항목

NOTICE: This email originated from Gmail. Please report any phishing activity to phishing@auburn.edu.

Dear Ms/Mr Haesoon An,

As far as I'm concerned, you are welcome to use the questionnaire for your research.

Best wishes,

Watanabe Yuichi

2019年7月26日(金) 13:28 Haesoon An <hza0026@tigermail.auburn.edu>:

HA

Haesoon An

오늘, 오후 1:28

yuichiwatanabe.aso@gmail.com

전체 회신

Dear Dr. Yuichi Watanabe,

My name is Haesoon An, and I am a Ph. D. student at Auburn University. I hope this email finds you well. I am currently working on my dissertation on the foreign language learning motivation and their pedagogical preferences of Asian (Chinese/Japanese/Korean) language learners at a four-year institute in the United States.

I am emailing to ask for your permission to use in my dissertation the questionnaire Part B (Preferences for instructional activities) in Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), Motivation and second language acquisition (Technical Report #23, pp. 313–359). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

I would also love to get your permission to change some of the elements so that it may work better with the adult sample students I am studying.

I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

Haesoon An

Appendix C

Authorization Letters from Asian Language Instructors of Auburn University

AUBURN UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

September 4, 2019
Auburn University Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall Auburn, AL, 36849

Dear Sir or Madam:

I support the research of Haesoon An, PhD candidate in the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology (EFLT) in the College of Education, and give her permission to conduct research in my classes for her study, titled "*Motivations of Asian Language Learners and the Relationship to Pedagogical Preference*."

Ms. Haesoon An will provide students with an information letter and a questionnaire, to be distributed in the middle of the 2019 Fall semester. She will provide Asian Studies with a copy of the Auburn University IRB-approved, stamped consent document before she recruits participants and will also provide a copy of her aggregate results.

If there are any questions, please contact my office at (334) 844-6325.

Sincerely,

Tingting Wang, Ph. D.
Instructor, Asian Studies

6030 Haley Center, Auburn, AL, 36849-5221; Telephone: 334- 844-4345: Fax: 334-844-6378

www.auburn.edu

AUBURN UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

September 4, 2019
Auburn University Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall Auburn, AL, 36849

Dear Sir or Madam:

This letter is to inform you that Haesoon An, a PhD student in the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology (EFLT) in the College of Education at Auburn University, has the permission to conduct research in my classes for her study, titled "*Motivations of Asian Language Learners and the Relationship to Pedagogical Preference*."

Ms. Haesoon An will provide students with an information letter and a questionnaire, to be distributed in the middle of the 2019 Fall semester. She will provide Asian Studies with a copy of the Auburn University IRB-approved, stamped consent document before she recruits participants, and will also provide a copy of her aggregate results.

If there are any questions, please contact my office at (334) 844-6387.

Sincerely,

Carolyn FitzGerald, Ph. D.
Associate Professor, Asian Studies

6030 Haley Center, Auburn, AL, 36849-5221; Telephone: 334- 844-4345: Fax: 334-844-6378

www.auburn.edu

AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

September 3, 2019
Auburn University Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall Auburn, AL, 36849

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If there are any questions, please contact my office at (334) 844-8437.

Sincerely,

Sunmi Jang
Instructor, Asian Studies

6030 Haley Center, Auburn, AL, 36849-5221; Telephone: 334- 844-4345: Fax: 334-844-6378

www.auburn.edu

AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

September 3, 2019
Auburn University Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall Auburn, AL, 36849

Dear Sir or Madam:

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If there are any questions, please contact my office at (334) 844-8437.

Sincerely,

Miyoung Park
Instructor, Asian Studies

6030 Haley Center, Auburn, AL, 36849-5221; Telephone: 334- 844-4345: Fax: 334-844-6378

www.auburn.edu

AUBURN UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

September 3, 2019
Auburn University Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall Auburn, AL, 36849

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If there are any questions, please contact my office at (334) 844-6316.

Sincerely,

N. Chiba

Naomi Chiba
Instructor, Asian Studies

6030 Haley Center, Auburn, AL, 36849-5221; Telephone: 334- 844-4345: Fax: 334-844-6378

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AUBURN
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COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

September 4, 2019
Auburn University Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall Auburn, AL, 36849

Dear Sir or Madam:

This is to inform you that Haesoon An, a PhD student in the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology (EFLT) in the College of Education at Auburn University, has the permission to conduct research in my classes for her study, titled "*Motivations of Asian Language Learners and the Relationship to Pedagogical Preference*."

Ms. Haesoon An will provide students with an information letter and a questionnaire, to be distributed in the middle of the 2019 Fall semester. She will provide Asian Studies with a copy of the Auburn University IRB-approved, stamped consent document before she recruits participants and will also provide a copy of her aggregate results.

If there are any questions, please contact my office at (334) 844-6376.

Sincerely,

Makiko Mori, Ph. D.
Associate Professor, Asian Studies

6030 Haley Center, Auburn, AL, 36849-5221; Telephone: 334- 844-4345: Fax: 334-844-6378

www.auburn.edu

AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

September 4, 2019
Auburn University Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall Auburn, AL, 36849

Dear Sir or Madam:

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Ms. Haesoon An will provide students with an information letter and a questionnaire, to be distributed in the middle of the 2019 Fall semester. She will provide Asian Studies with a copy of the Auburn University IRB-approved, stamped consent document before she recruits participants and will also provide a copy of her aggregate results.

If there are any questions, please contact my office at (334) 844-6357.

Sincerely,

Chris Kern, Ph. D.
Visiting Assistant Professor, Asian Studies

6030 Haley Center, Auburn, AL, 36849-5221; Telephone: 334- 844-4345: Fax: 334-844-6378

www.auburn.edu

Appendix D

Initial Invitation Letter

Initial E-mail Invitation

My name is Haesoon An, a graduate student from the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology at Auburn University. I would like to invite you to participate in my research study to investigate *the motivations of Korean language learners and their relationship to pedagogical preferences* in order to explore effective teaching activities for enhancing student learning in relation to learners' motivation. You may participate if you are 18 years old or older. Please do not participate if you are 17 years old or younger.

As a participant, you will be asked to complete an online survey which will take about 10-15 minutes.

There is no potential compensation or cost for your participation. Your responses to the survey questions will be anonymous and completing this survey will not in any way influence your grade of the classes in which you are enrolled.

If you would like to participate in this research study, please click on the link in this e-mail and check on "I am 18 years old or older AND agree to participate."

If you have questions later, please contact me at hza0026@tigermail.auburn.edu, or you may contact my advisor, Dr. James Witte, at witteje@auburn.edu.

Sincerely yours,

Haesoon An

Appendix E

Approval Letter from Office of Research Compliance of Auburn University

Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall, basement
Auburn University, AL 36849

AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

Telephone: 334-844-5966
Fax: 334-844-4391
IRBadmin@auburn.edu
IRBsubmit@auburn.edu

December 5, 2019

MEMORANDUM TO: Haesoon An
Department: Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology

PROTOCOL TITLE: "Motivations of Asian Language Learners and The Relationship to Pedagogical Preferences"

IRB FILE NO.: 19-382 EX 1909

APPROVAL: September 12, 2019
EXPIRATION: No Continuing Review

The referenced protocol was approved "Exempt" by the IRB under 45 CFR 46.101 (b) (2 (i)(ii)):

"2. Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
(i) Information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects"
(ii) Andy disclosures of responses outside would not reasonably place participant at risk

Please Note:

1. CONSENT FORM AND/OR INFORMATION LETTERS: Only use documents that have been approved by the IRB and included the AU IRB approval stamp.
2. RECORDS: Keep this and all protocol approval documents in your files. Reference the complete protocol number in all correspondence.
3. MODIFICATIONS: Request IRB approval of any changes to an approved protocol prior to implementation. Some changes may affect the assigned review category.
4. FINAL REPORT: When the study is complete, notify the Office of Research Compliance at irbsubmit@auburn.edu.

If you have any questions, contact the Office of Research Compliance at irbsubmit@auburn.edu.

Bernie R. Olin, Pharm.D.
Chair of the Institutional Review Board #2
for the Use of Human Subjects in Research

cc: file