Japan’s Rise: The Benefits that can be Reaped from Japanese Language Education for Americans

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in International Affairs and the Honors Program

by

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BACHELOR OF ARTS, INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

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ABSTRACT

The Japanese language is the sixth highest foreign language learned in the United States, as the number of English-speaking American college students that are enrolled in Japanese language courses exceeded 66,000 students in 2013 (Furman, Goldberg, and Lusin). This paper will determine significant contributing factors to why this figure is particularly high when considered standalone in comparison to other foreign language enrollments, but remarkably low compared to the 2013 total foreign language enrollment figure of 1,500,000 students by examining individual student’s initial and continuing motivations in studying the Japanese language at the University of Nevada, Reno. This paper will explore fundamental motivation theories, motivation for foreign language acquisition (FLA), and current research on Japanese language learning motivation. From there, this paper will establish a direct link between continuing motivational factors and students’ future career aspirations, in both the short-term and long-term, as certain bodies of research have established indirect links, but not any direct links. Finally, this paper will discuss how the connection between continuing Japanese language learning motivations and future career goals can positively impact US-Japan relations, and give Japanese language learning students a variety of benefits, especially in the field of intercultural communication.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to God, for it was by His grace and mercy that I was able to get to where I am today and be who I am today.

This thesis would not have been possible, additionally, without the guidance and support of my thesis mentors Yoshie Kadowaki (Kadowaki-sensei) and Sayumi Suzuki (Suzuki-sensei). Although it was undoubtedly a huge challenge expressing my intentions and needs to them exclusively in Japanese during our weekly meetings, without their patience and kindness, I may have easily given up. Kadowaki-sensei and Suzuki-sensei were always willing to listen with open ears and keep me on track, despite my inconsistencies and chronic lateness (apologies for that!). I am grateful for how you made yourselves available whenever I needed you both, despite how busy both of you have been this past year. Also, without you two, I would not know the Japanese language at all and not be on the road to gaining intercultural communication competence, which I will incontrovertibly use in my future career path in which I will nurture US-Japan relations effectively. O sewa ni narimashita.

Additionally, I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Tamara Valentine for constantly pushing me to not settle for mediocre, but rather, to always strive for achievement above and beyond what was required. If it were not for your constant feedback and guidance, I would not have been on the right track to even beginning this thesis.

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GLOSSARY OF TERMS

1. Accents –
   “Distinguishable marks of pronunciation” (Lustig and Koester 173).

2. Argot –
   “[The] specialized language that is used by a large group within a culture
to define the boundaries of their group from others who are in a more
powerful position in society” (Lustig and Koester 174).

3. Bilingual –
   “Someone who is able to use two languages” (Hummel 224)

4. Bilingual First Language Acquisition (BFLA) or Bilingual Acquisition –
   “Simultaneous acquisition of two languages from birth or shortly
thereafter” (Hummel 224).

5. Continuing Motivational Factor –
   The motivational factors that a foreign language learner accepts as the
main reasons to continuing formal studies into the intended foreign
language.

6. Cultural Patterns –
   “The shared beliefs, values, norms, and social practices that are stable
over time and that lead to roughly similar behaviors across similar
situations” (Lustig and Koester 78).
7. **Dialects** –

“Versions of a language with distinctive vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation that are spoken by particular groups of people or within particular regions” (Lustig and Koester 172).

8. **Global Village** –

“[A term coined by Marshall McLuhan] to describe the consequences of the mass media’s ability to bring events from the far reaches of the globe into people’s homes, thus shrinking the world” (Lustig and Koester 6).

9. **Globalization** –

“The integration of capital, technology, and information across national borders” (Lustig and Koester 8).

10. **Hierarchy of Prepotency** –

“[Hierarchy of prepotency] means that the most prepotent ['higher'] goal will monopolize consciousness and will tend of itself to organize the recruitment of the various capacities of the organism. The less prepotent needs are minimized, even forgotten or denied. But when a need is fairly well satisfied, the next prepotent ('higher') need emerges, in turn to dominate the conscious life and to serve as the center of organization of behavior, since gratified needs are not active motivators” (Maslow 394-395).
11. **Initial Motivational Factor** –

The motivational factors that a foreign language learner credits as the main reasons for beginning formal studies into the intended foreign language.

12. **Intercultural Communication** –

A phenomenon that “occurs when large and important cultural differences create dissimilar interpretations and expectations about how to communicate competently” (Lustig and Koester 49).

13. **Jargon** –

“[The] set of words or terms that are shared by those with a common profession or experience” (Lustig and Koester 174).

14. **Monocultural Communication** –

“[Monocultural communication is] similarity-based [communication in which] common assumptions about the nature of reality create a context in which members of a culture exchange meaning with one another, recognized appropriate behavior, and coordinate collective action… [and in which] difference represents the potential for misunderstanding and friction” (Bennett)

15. **Motivation** –

“Motivation is a dynamic internal process that energizes and directs actions and action tendencies. Motivation pushes or pulls the individual. Environmental antecedents and goals provide sources of motivation” (Ferguson 6).
16. *Peak Learning Experiences* –

“Those experiences of students which occur in the instructional setting…[that] are so vivid that students will recall them in great detail many years later” (Bloom 126).

17. *Second Language Acquisition (SLA)* –

“[SLA] refers to beginning the learning of another language [L2] after a first language (L1) has been acquired” (Hummel 1).
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem Statement

The number of students attending institutions of higher education in the United States who enrolled in courses teaching foreign languages other than English exceeded 1,500,000 students in 2013 (Furman, Goldberg, and Lusin 2). This sizable figure suggests that there is an apparent interest in studying foreign languages nationwide, particularly in postsecondary education. Of these 1.5 million students, 66,740 students chose to study Japanese in 2013, ranking Japanese as the sixth highest learned language in the United States behind Spanish, French, American Sign Language, German, and Italian respectively (Table 1). Why do these students choose to study Japanese, the ninth most spoken language in the world, over Chinese, Spanish, and English, the top three most spoken languages worldwide?

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<td>6.2</td>
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Source: Nelly Furman, David Goldberg, and Natalia Lusin

Table 1 Language Enrollments and Percentage Change in Descending Order
According to Paul M. Lewis, Gary F. Simons, and Charles D. Fennig, students’ motivations vary when choosing to study foreign languages. Because of university general education requirements, some students are required to study a second language. Others choose to study a foreign language of their own volition. Either way, a vast number of definitions for the concept of motivation exists along with multiple frameworks to evaluate motivation, and specifically, foreign language motivation (Ryan and Deci 54-56). I will first establish a definition for motivation after examining fundamental theories on motivation and then scrutinize motivation through the framework established by classical psychologist Abraham Maslow, since his interpretations of motivation are best conducive to linking this definition of motivation to the study of foreign languages, specifically to the Japanese language. I will finally discuss the importance of Japanese language education for American students from cultural and historical perspectives through the concept of intercultural communication.

1.2 Thesis Goals

This paper will determine the most significant contributing factors to the rise of Japanese language learning American university students by examining individual student’s motivations in continued studies of the Japanese language at the University of Nevada, Reno. It will link these continuing motivations to students’ short-term and long-term future career aspirations. These results will be gleaned from an online survey hosted by Google Forms. This survey will be anonymous and accessible only to those Japanese language learning students who were enrolled in either the second or third year Japanese language class during the fall semester of 2015. In order to reinforce the concept of “continuing motivations” versus “initial motivations” in studying Japanese and to yield a greater percentage of students who predict they will be using the Japanese language in their future career goals, 1st year Japanese students were excluded from this
study. This paper will finally discuss how the connection between student’s Japanese language learning motivations and future career goals can positively impact US-Japan relations, especially in the field of intercultural communication (Miller 45).

Before sending out the survey, I hypothesized that students at the University of Nevada, Reno are motivated to continue studying Japanese, after initially taking a prior Japanese language class, for personal or cultural reasons. However, based on the 63 responses gleaned from the survey, the evidence suggests that there are significant motivational factors for learning Japanese that are rooted in an exclusive interest in the Japanese language and the wish to use the Japanese language for future career goals. It can, therefore, be presupposed that there is a strong link between students’ continuing language learning motivations and their wish to use the language in their desired future careers. I will establish a direct link

An alternative role of this paper is to inform teachers within Japanese language teaching departments across the United States of specific motivations that contribute to continued Japanese language learning at the University of Nevada, Reno. According to Furman, Goldberg, and Lusin, which discusses language course enrollment, although there was a sharp increase in Japanese language learning students from 2002 to 2009, a strikingly significant 38.5 percent increase in that decade, the 2013 figure of 66,740 Japanese language learning students in the United States is actually a significant 7.8 percent decrease in comparison to 2009’s 72,359 students (28). As such, Japanese language teachers across the United States can use the motivations derived from the students in the University of Nevada, Reno case study to determine and address ways to advertise to potential students and effectively get students into Japanese language learning curricula. Additionally, teachers of the Japanese language can be aware of prominent motivations for students to continue studying Japanese and tailor their curriculums to
cater to their own students’ individual motivations and desires. Ultimately, by informing these Japanese language teachers across the United States, the percentage change of Japanese language learning Americans in postsecondary education will return to a positive figure in the next decade, allowing US-Japan relations to proceed smoothly and efficiently through the overcoming of Japanese language barriers and the fostering of strong intercultural communication methods.

1.3 Summary of Research Questions

The main questions posed in this study are as follows:

1. Are there specific motivational factors contributing to why students at the University of Nevada, Reno chose to study and choose to continue studying the Japanese language over other foreign languages?

2. Do continuing motivational factors for Japanese language learning coincide with students’ future career goals?

3. What benefits can be gleaned from Japanese language learning for Americans?

1.4 Objectives

This proposed work aims to meet the following objectives:

1. To determine the most significant initial and continuing motivational factors for continued Japanese language learning for American students attending the University of Nevada, Reno.

2. To establish if a relationship exists between the motivational factors of Japanese language learners in the US and their individual future career goals by examining students at the University of Nevada, Reno.
3. To discuss the importance of US-Japan relations in intercultural communication.

4. To educate universities with Japanese language programs on the importance of motivation in students’ Japanese language studies.

1.5 Methodology

This paper will utilize an online questionnaire to survey second and third year Japanese language learners at the University of Nevada, Reno in regards to motivation and career aspirations (Appendix I). In September 2015, after receiving institutional review board (IRB) exempt approval, I anonymously surveyed these students to determine their primary and continuing motivations for studying the Japanese language. The survey was anonymous but sampled demographic data from students for the purpose of comparison data among different criteria (e.g. class level, gender, and age). This survey also investigated these students’ short-term and long-term post-graduation plans and whether or not they plan to use the Japanese language in their future careers. As such, the survey is divided into four parts: Consent Form, Demographic Questions, Language Questions, and Career Questions. The survey was constructed with the aid of the Center for Research Design and Analysis at the University of Nevada, Reno to ensure that the survey adequately addressed the thesis questions and addressed the thesis objectives. The survey consisted of multiple choice questions, ranking, and short-essay questions.

Google Forms was used as the online survey supplier and was used for the reasons of cost efficiency, simplicity in data collection, and ease of access. Classrooms at the University of Nevada, Reno typically lack individual computers, so the survey was accessible through an online link available to students’ smart-phones and other mobile devices that had an Internet connection. This survey, which was free to take, was conducted in English in-class and
administered online by the University of Nevada’s Japanese language professors to ensure that most, if not all, second and third year Japanese language students were able to take the survey. I was not present during the survey. The survey was administered on Monday, November 11, 2015 from 10:40 AM to 11 AM, from 11:40 AM to 12 PM, and from 12:40 PM to 1 PM at the end of each of the second and third year Japanese language classes, specifically, during the last 15 minutes of the class period. Additionally, administering the survey at only these specific time frames ensured that only those students in the class provided data. Any other responses with time-stamps (automatically given to submitted responses by Google Forms once the survey was completed) outside the administered period were thrown out to guarantee anonymity since a couple of students were absent during the day the survey was taken. After I provided a brief instruction page in the survey link suggesting that the survey participants are voluntary subjects, guaranteeing confidentiality, and asking for consent, the students at the University of Nevada, Reno accessed the body of the survey and answered the questions, beginning in page two of the survey. This consent form is viewable in Appendix I. The questionnaire was not given to samples at other university populations due to time and resource constraints.

From the results, I performed a confidence test to determine if a link could be established between the continuing motivational factors and future career aspirations for students at the University of Nevada, Reno. The results showed that, at the 95 percent confidence level, there is a statistically significant link at the primary and tertiary levels, but not at the secondary level (Figure 1). These data will be evaluated in full in Chapter 2, Section 4 (A Case Study—The University of Nevada, Reno) and Chapter 3, Section 2 (Foreign Language Acquisition as a Motivational Factor for Future Career Goals) of this thesis.
Figure 1: Confidence Test Performed on Language Question 7

1.6 Structure of Thesis

Each chapter in this thesis, following this introductory chapter, will be structured by starting with a broad framework that gets narrowed down into a specific topic.

Chapter 2 begins by scrutinizing the concept of “motivation,” including those groundbreaking theories on motivation that has continued to shape a number of motivational studies. From there, I will focus on evaluating specific motivational theories as they apply to foreign language learning and second language acquisition. Then, I will look exclusively at the role of motivation in Japanese language learning, including other studies that have been conducted on Japanese language learning motivation. I will choose a framework best suited to
evaluating the study of Japanese language learning motivations from those examined. Chapter 2 concludes by examining Japanese language learning motivations for students at the University of Nevada, Reno in the context of the framework selected prior in the chapter.

Chapter 3 starts with the role of foreign language acquisition, as explored in Chapter 2, in relation to future career aspirations. Thereafter, I will examine recent studies on this relationship that either reinforces that a link exists or refutes that a link exists. In my own research, I have established that in the case study of the University of Nevada, Reno, a link does indeed exist between foreign language acquisitions as a motivational factor and students’ future career goals. This chapter will include a discussion of these results. This chapter will conclude with a careful examination on this link at the University of Nevada, Reno.

Chapter 4 introduces the implications of intercultural communication in today’s contemporary world. I will formulate a definition of intercultural communication synthesizing previous studies on intercultural communication, and I will use this specific definition to examine the role of language in the broader context of intercultural communication. From there, I will examine US-Japan relations in different contexts, from a cultural context to a linguistic context, and how intercultural communication weaves intermittently among each context. Finally, I will conclude this chapter by suggesting significant implications for US-Japan relations both on a contemporary scale and into the future.

Chapter 5 concludes by suggesting practical applications for the information contained in this thesis for foreign language educators in the United States.
CHAPTER 2: MOTIVATION AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

2.1 Introduction

The concept of motivation is applicable to a variety of disciplines. In fact, the term “motivation” signifies a number of different meanings and contains many inherent implications, and is often likened to emotion, drive, instinct, and will. As such, to understand the relative importance of the term, especially in relation to this paper, a few fundamental theories and approaches will be considered.

Specifically, this chapter begins with a section examining three classic psychological frameworks for understanding the general concept of motivation: Sigmund Freud’s Psychoanalytic Theory on Motivation, Clark L. Hull’s Drive-Reduction Theory, and Abraham H. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory. These theoretical frameworks are often regarded as those foundational studies that pioneered the study of motivation as a whole. This section will further expound on three more recent studies, conducted by Richard Ryan and Edward Deci in 2000, Roderick Wong in 2000, and Eva Dreikurs Ferguson in 2000, that purport general interpretations of motivation based on 21st century trends. Finally, this section concludes with a discussion of research performed on motivational theories concerning foreign language learning, conducted by Kristen Hummel in 2014, Wolfgang Klein in 1986, and John W. Schweiter in 2013.

The next section is this chapter will narrow the discussion on motivation by exploring the role of motivation in Japanese language learning. This section starts with a commentary of why the Japanese language, as a foreign language for English-speakers, may be considered more strenuous and stressful to learn when compared to learning other foreign languages. Thereafter, this section will end with a review of existing literature regarding Japanese language learning.
and motivation, which includes the research of Masanori Matsumoto and Yasuko Obana’s 2001 study, Hiroshi Matsumoto’s 2007 publication, and Sin Yi Tsang’s 2012 investigation.

This chapter will close with a discussion on the case study performed on students at the University of Nevada, Reno. This section will begin with a discussion on the research method used and will include how the data were analyzed, along with detailed findings from the data gleaned from this study of the students at the University of Nevada, Reno. The section will thereafter consider trends found in the students’ initial motivational factors, the students’ continuing motivational factors, and close with a section drawing comparisons between the initial and continuing motivational factors for these students.

2.2 The Importance of Motivation in Studying Foreign Languages

2.2.1 Fundamental Theories of Motivation

Many theories surrounding motivation exist; however, a large number of these theories build upon fundamental frameworks theorized by psychologists in the mid-twentieth century. This subsection will explore three pioneering theories on motivation formulated by Sigmund Freud, Clark L. Hull, and Abraham Maslow. These models for motivation have been heavily scrutinized over the past few decades.

Renowned psychologist Sigmund Freud has been credited by many scholars in the last century for his groundbreaking work in the field of psychology, specifically for formulating psychoanalytic theory in the early twentieth century. Freud’s Psychoanalytic Theory of Motivation is grounded in a biological perspective and describes a survival model for motivation where individuals are driven to behave by three basic psychic phenomena inherent in an individual’s personality: the id, ego, and super-ego. The id relates to the sexual and aggressive unconscious drives that aim to satisfy the pleasure principle. The ego, on the other hand, operates
on a reality principle where it consciously attempts to reduce tension in the id’s pursuit of
pleasure. The super-ego, finally, acts as the conscience of an individual by instilling rewards for
moral behavior and punishing those immoral behaviors by delivering guilt (Freud) (Figure 2).

![Figure 2: Sigmund Freud’s Three Psychic Components of Personality](image)

Source: Bernard Weiner

**Figure 2** Sigmund Freud’s Three Psychic Components of Personality

The dynamic between the three can be explained by, as Freud personally commented in
his 1933 “New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis,” “Thus the ego, driven by the id,
confined by the super-ego, repulsed by reality, struggles to master its economic task of bringing
about harmony among the forces and influences working in and upon it; we can understand how
it is that so often we cannot suppress a cry: ‘Life is not easy’” (Freud 97). As such, the dialectic
between these three psychic components fundamentally drive humans to behave in order to reach
homeostasis and achieve hedonism through the fulfillment of unconscious desires (Figure 3).

![Figure 3: The Interaction Among Sigmund Freud’s Three Forces](image)

Source: Bernard Weiner

**Figure 3** The Interaction Among Sigmund Freud’s Three Forces
A psychological behaviorist, Clark Hull created the Drive-Reduction Theory of Motivation in his publication of *Principles of Behavior* in 1943. An avid mathematician, Hull strived to express human behavior and motivation in systematic terms, with experimentally testable hypotheses. Hull hypothesized that humans were motivated by biological imbalances, or needs, that drove people to attempt to erase or reduce this deficiency. As a whole, Hull believed that “the animal would repeat any behavior that reduced a drive, if the same need occurred again,” as in the case of pursuing food to reduce the hunger drive (Dewey). In this way, Hull’s theory posits that these drives act as the energy that powers behavior or motivation. To predict the likelihood of specific behaviors, Hull created the precise formula about excitation potential, or the probability that a particular stimulus would lead to a particular response (Figure 4), which has been largely tested by an assortment of researchers, known as “Hullians,” that found that the formula generally failed (Hull).

**Figure 4** Clark Hull’s Excitation Potential Equation

Psychologist Abraham H. Maslow, in his 1943 article “A Theory of Human Motivation,” bases his theory of motivation on the idea that human beings are driven to achieve certain needs, from basic levels to higher, more complex, needs in a hierarchical structure based on prepotency. Maslow writes, “[Hierarchy of prepotency] means that the most prepotent ['higher'] goal will monopolize consciousness and will tend of itself to organize the recruitment of the various
capacities of the organism. The less prepotent needs are minimized, even forgotten or denied. But when a need is fairly well satisfied, the next prepotent (‘higher’) need emerges, in turn to dominate the conscious life and to serve as the center of organization of behavior, since gratified needs are not active motivators” (394-395). Maslow’s “Hierarchy of Needs,” as it came to be called, differs from other theories of motivation in that it is based neither on a reinforcement system (Clark Hull’s “Drive Reduction”) or on the fulfillment of unconscious desires (Sigmund Freud’s “Id, Ego, and Superego”).

In a pyramidal schema, with the most basic needs on the lowest level and the least basic needs at the top, Maslow’s “Hierarchy of Needs” ranks in order from the bottom physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization (Figure 5). Individuals are motivated to satisfy these basic needs in order to survive.

![Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs](image)

**Figure 5** Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow asserts that, in this hierarchy, the most basic needs, those physiological needs including food, sleep, clothing, water, and the like, must be met in order to proceed to the next safety and security needs level, which includes shelter from strange situations and security. Those safety needs must be achieved to satisfy love needs, like social acceptance and
belongingness, to move onto the next level esteem, which in turn needs to be fulfilled to move to the top-most level self-actualization. In summary, Maslow’s theory of motivation involves the importance of satisfying these five basic needs, the pursuit of which motivates individuals into action (Maslow).

Among the three classical theories explored above, Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory has been consistently used as a basis for recent motivation theories, as will be explored in the next section. Although extremely influential in understanding the bases of motivation as we understand them today, Freud’s Psychoanalytic Theory and Hull’s Drive Reduction Theory have been largely dismissed in today’s contemporary age for the reasons that Psychoanalytic Theory is largely untestable and Drive Reduction Theory fails to provide consistent results when tested since it followed such a simple system (Dewey). As such, Maslow’s theory will be built upon in the next section, which will explore three recent studies on motivation.

2.2.2 Recent Theories of Motivation

Based on the groundwork created by the above theorists, a number of scholars have strived to define the concept of motivation within the last half century.

In a study published in 2000, psychologists Richard Ryan and Edward Deci establish and emphasize the importance of two distinctly fundamental types of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic, in evaluating educational and developmental practices in a theory they coined “self-determination theory.” Self-determination, Ryan and Deci argue, “make[s] the critical distinction between behaviors that are volitional and accompanied by the experience of freedom and autonomy—those that emanate from one’s sense of self—and those that are accompanied by the experience of pressure and control and are not representative of one’s self” (65). They further
explicate how those intrinsically motivated behaviors aim to satisfy innate psychological needs, whereas extrinsically motivated behaviors are performed to attain some separable outcome. In this sense, since these classes of motives attempt to achieve “basic human needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness,” which are needs that do not fit within the model of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, the classes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation stand alone as crucial interpretations of motivation (Fowler). Furthermore, these forms of motivation differ from the concept of “amotivation” since this concept describes “the state of lacking an intention to act” (Ryan and Deci 61). The dynamic among these three styles of motivation can be seen in Figure 6.

Source: Richard Ryan and Edward L. Deci

Figure 6 Richard Ryan and Edward Deci’s Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations

In contrast to the above theory, psychology professor Roderick Wong considers a biobehavioral approach to motivation in his 2000 book Motivation: A Biobehavioural Approach.
Wong writes in this book, “Motivation is a dispositional variable or concept that is inferred from behavior… which is guided by its consequences and is related to some end point linked with the biological requirements of the organism” (12). Wong goes on to explain how there are two specific levels in interpreting this view on motivation, the perspective on why an individual behaves (ultimate causation) and on how the behavior has come about (proximate causation). This theory of motivation builds upon Ryan and Deci’s self-determination theory in the way that Wong focuses more on the innate biological factors that promote humans to behave not just from a psychological perspective but also from a perspective rooted in biological origins. Additionally, Wong’s biobehavioral theory upholds the need for fulfilling basic biological needs, thus pertaining to Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs.

A fellow of the American Psychological Association, Eva D. Ferguson examined a holistic approach to motivation. She defines motivation as a construct that is not directly observable but tied both “theoretically and empirically to observable, external events” (6). Ferguson ensures to emphasize that motivation as a whole is a particularly dynamic, rather static, internal process that changes and adapts in response to the environment in different intensity, directions, and variability levels. Even further, Ferguson posits that motivation studies investigate three types of variation, “between circumstances (momentary and situational variation for any given individual), between individuals (the study of individual differences), and between species (the study of species-specific characteristics)” (5). In this way, motivation is fluid and mercurial, functioning at various levels depending on the circumstances individuals are placed in, the internal states of the individuals, the interactions among various factors within the individual and the environment, and more. As such, under Ferguson’s theory of motivation, individuals may be driven intrinsically at one moment to satisfy certain biological needs to, for
example, find food to satisfy hunger (a mix of Ryan and Deci’s theory and Wong’s theory), but at another moment, the individual may be motivated to simply sleep should the circumstances provide no sustenance (satisfying a different physiological need in Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs).

2.2.3 Defining Motivation

As explored above, the concept of motivation, on a theoretical level, exists to explain human behavior in a variety of interdisciplinary contexts. Perhaps Frederick Toates in his *Motivational Systems* describes the nature of motivation best, describing how “The way that the term ‘motivation’ is used depends upon the purpose of one’s explanation, which in turn will reflect the model of behavior that one employs” (17). To avoid the complexities in interpreting the term motivation in all of these different forms, for the purpose of this paper, I will use the definition of motivation laid out by contemporary psychologist Eva D. Ferguson, since her definition of motivation in *Motivation: A Biosocial and Cognitive Integration of Motivation and Emotion* best suits the methodology employed in this paper:

“Motivation is a dynamic internal process that energizes and directs actions and action tendencies. Motivation pushes or pulls the individual. Environmental antecedents and goals provide sources of motivation” (6).

2.2.4 Motivation as it Applies to Studying Foreign Languages

Foreign languages are multifaceted and complex. When an individual studies a foreign language, there are thousands of factors that must be considered for this individual to become proficient in the foreign language: intonation, grammar, syntax, diction, vocabulary, slang, dialect, and so on are just a handful of the many components contributing to the physical makeup
of any given language. With so many factors to consider, why study a foreign language? What is the motivation to even broach the daunting prospect of trying to learn a foreign language?

From birth, all individuals within a society learn a single language (or two languages in the case of bilingual first language acquisition, or BFLA, described in this paragraph) that becomes their native language or tongue. Depending on the circumstances, for example ethnic or cultural reasons, individuals have the motivation to learn a second language. Not to be confused with bilingual first language acquisition (BFLA), or bilingual acquisition, “Simultaneous acquisition of two languages from birth or shortly thereafter” (Hummel 224), the concept of second language acquisition (SLA) proposes that besides one’s native language, a second foreign language can be gleaned through different approaches after birth. In its most basic form, “[SLA] refers to beginning the learning of another language [L2] after a first language (L1) has been acquired” (Hummel 1). Also noteworthy is the idea that SLA differs significantly from “bilingualism” since a bilingual fundamentally means “Someone who is able to use two languages” (Hummel 224), but this term carries an assortment of nuanced implications and can refer to many types of bilinguals (Figure 7).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Bilingual</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>additive bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose two languages combine in a complementary and enriching fashion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ascendant bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose ability to function in a second language is developing due to increased use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>balanced bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose mastery of two languages is roughly equivalent (also, ambilingual, equilingual, symmetrical)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compound bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose two languages are learned at the same time, often in the same context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coordinate bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose two languages are learned in distinctively separate contexts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>covert bilingual</td>
<td>someone who conceals his or her knowledge of a given language due to an attitudinal disposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diagonal bilingual</td>
<td>someone who is bilingual in a non-standard language or a dialect and an unrelated standard language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dominant bilingual</td>
<td>someone with greater proficiency in one of his or her languages and uses it significantly more than the other language(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dormant bilingual</td>
<td>someone who has emigrated to a foreign country for a considerable period of time and has little opportunity to keep the first language actively in use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>early bilingual</td>
<td>someone who has acquired two languages early in childhood (also, ascribed bilingual)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>functional bilingual</td>
<td>someone who can operate in two languages with or without full fluency for the task in hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horizontal bilingual</td>
<td>someone who is bilingual in two distinct languages which have a similar or equal status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incipient bilingual</td>
<td>someone at the early stage of bilingualism where one language is not fully developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>late bilingual</td>
<td>someone who has become a bilingual later than childhood (achieved bilingual)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximal bilingual</td>
<td>someone with near native control of two or more languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimal bilingual</td>
<td>someone with only a few words and phrases in a second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>natural bilingual</td>
<td>someone who has not undergone any specific training and who is often not in a position to translate or interpret with facility between two languages (also, primary bilingual)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>productive bilingual</td>
<td>someone who not only understands but also speaks and possibly writes in two or more languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receptive bilingual</td>
<td>someone who understands a second language, in either its spoken or its written form, or both, but does not necessarily speak or write it (also, asymmetrical, semilingual or passive bilingual)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recessive bilingual</td>
<td>someone who begins to feel some difficulty in either understanding or expressing himself or herself with ease, due to lack of use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose second language has been added to a first language via instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semilingual</td>
<td>someone with insufficient knowledge of either language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simultaneous bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose two languages are present from the onset of speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subordinate bilingual</td>
<td>someone who exhibits interference in his or her language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subtractive bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose second language is acquired at the expense of the aptitudes already acquired in the first language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>successive bilingual</td>
<td>someone whose second language is added at some stage after the first has begun to develop (also, consecutive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertical bilingual</td>
<td>someone who is bilingual in a standard language and a distinct but related language or dialect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kirsten M. Hummel

Figure 7 Types of Bilinguals
The amount of research performed in SLA has increased rapidly within the last few decades as the world has become more and more interconnected, and as Kristen Hummel proposes, “Research into second language acquisition is a truly multidisciplinary endeavor. Some of the major disciplines that contribute to SLA include theoretical linguistics, education, psychology, and sociology” (2). In this way, SLA, when observed through a multidisciplinary paradigm, is vital in determining how motivation influences and impacts foreign language learning.

Wolfgang Klein has contributed intensively to the body of literature in SLA, pioneering the field with his 1986 novel Second Language Acquisition. Klein makes the important distinction between first language acquisition and second language acquisition as different processes where biologically, most individuals solidify their first language acquisition after puberty based off of the Critical Period Hypothesis, a psychological and linguistic theory that promotes how the early childhood and adolescent years are the prime periods where language develops rapidly and more easily than later years (10). He goes on to discuss the theoretical and practical issues of second language acquisition research, which he promotes is vital to understand to ensure that “foreign language teaching can become maximally effective” (200).

Adding to the body of literature regarding SLA, and bolstering Klein’s argument that first language acquisition is solidified after puberty, Kristen Hummel compares the similarities and differences between first language acquisition and second language acquisition, additionally distinguishing between first language acquisition and second language acquisition in the naturalistic and the instructed learning contexts. Hummel explains that certain commonalities exist that connect L1 and L2 from a processes standpoint; language learners in both contexts tend to go through similar patterns of development, similar errors, and similar strategies when
traversing through the developmental stages in acquiring the language. One discerning feature distinguishing L1 from L2 is that, according to Hummel, in the case of L2 acquisition, “one language is already available to enable basic communication and the expression of needs and desires” (26). Those who are going through SLA, therefore, are able to actively express themselves more fully through implementing strategies that utilize their first language, whereas those who have not undergone first language acquisition, generally referring to toddlers and infants undergoing the first language acquisition process, cannot fully and effectively communicate their intentions.

In comparison to Hummel’s more naturalistic approach, John W. Schwieter in *Innovative Research and Practices in Second Language Acquisition and Bilingualism* expands on the field of SLA by synthesizing empirical research and discussing SLA in the cognitive and linguistic disciplines, based off of a multitude of experts in the field of SLA and bilingualism. One such expert, Bill VanPatten, argues the existence of language in two distinct domains, “(1) mental representation and (2) the ability to use language (i.e., skill)” (Schwieter 23). In support of VanPatten’s argument, Wynne Wong of Ohio State University proposes the importance of development in these two domains, claiming that “L2 instruction should provide opportunities that will help both of these domains develop…[through] the availability of input, the means to notice input and to make form meaning connections, and opportunities to create output that requires the expression and negotiation of meaning” (Schwieter 28). Should these opportunities sufficiently address these two cognitive facets of L2 and SLA, mental representation and the ability to use language, a pursuant of the target foreign language should more easily and efficiently be able to learn the desired language.
Sachiho Mori in her 2008 PhD dissertation comments on the importance of language learning strategies, fueled by motivation, to successfully use language-specific tasks in SLA versus being unsuccessful. Specifically, Mori hone[s] in on Rebecca L. Oxford’s 1990 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), which boasts a design intending to “gather information about how… student[s] of a foreign or second language, go about learning that language” (Oxford 283). As Mori argues, there have been an assortment of studies that “have heavily relied on the SILL to find the tendencies of learners’ strategy use,” yet, the inventory fails to account for specific tasks and behaviors about culture, environment, and other factors, so a bigger picture of language learning strategies cannot be gleaned alone from SILL (2). A portion of the SILL can be found in Figures 8.1 and 8.2. In building upon the limitations of SILL, and expanding the scope through further studies, Mori comes to the conclusion that it is “necessary to conduct a longitudinal study by employing both qualitative (i.e., interviews) and quantitative (i.e., SILL) analysis with a valid assessment of learners’ success on tasks” in order to fully comprehend the motivations surrounding language learning, specifically in the Japanese language context (5). Instructions for the SILL and examples from the SILL can be found in Figures 8.1 and 8.2.
Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version for English Speakers Learning a New Language

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version 5.1
(C) R. Oxford, 1989

Directions

The STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is designed to gather information about how you, as a student of a foreign or second language, go about learning that language. On the following pages, you will find statements related to learning a new language. Please read each statement. On the separate answer sheet, mark the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells how true the statement is in terms of what you actually do when you are learning the new language.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Generally not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Generally true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

Never or almost never true of me means that the statement is very rarely true of you; that is, you do the behavior which is described in the statement only in very rare instances.

Generally not true of me means that the statement is usually not true of you; that is, you do the behavior which is described in the statement less than half the time, but more than in very rare instances.

Somewhat true of me means that the statement is true of you about half the time; that is, sometimes you do the behavior which is described in the statement, and sometimes you don’t, and these instances tend to occur with about equal frequency.

Generally true of me means that the statement is usually true of you; that is, you do the behavior which is described in the statement more than half the time.

Always or almost always true of me means that the statement is true of you in almost all circumstances; that is, you almost always do the behavior which is described in the statement.

Use the separate Worksheet for recording your answers and for scoring. Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you, not in terms of what you think you should do, or what other people do. Answer in reference to the language you are now learning (or the language you most recently learned). There are no right or wrong responses to these statements. Work carefully but quickly. You will score the SILL yourself using the attached Worksheets. On the Worksheet, write your name, the name of the language, and the language learned.


Source: Rebecca L. Oxford

Figure 8.1 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Directions
As a whole, these studies work to establish the prominence of foreign language learning, especially in the realm of SLA. It is not enough to simply view language learning from a single perspective, as inferred above, since languages are much more multifaceted and demand evaluations from a variety of disciplines in order to be understood. Distinguishing itself from first language acquisition, SLA, when viewed from these theoretical cognitive, psychological,
and qualitative frameworks, provides important guidelines for understanding the motivations driving individuals to study foreign languages. Following this section, I will focus on the role of motivational factors in SLA for students, specifically, Japanese language learning students.

2.3 The Role of Motivation in Japanese Language Learning

2.3.1 Studying Japanese in Comparison to Other Foreign Languages

As a foreign language growing in worldwide prominence and usage, the Japanese language features important cultural and linguistic implications that are crucial to understand if one were to become fluent. These considerations include the fact that the Japanese language features three distinct written scripts (kanji, hiragana, and katakana), tonal distinctions, thousands of pictorial characters based off of the Chinese writing system (kanji), and humble and polite forms; and yet, these important features of the Japanese language are barely scratching the surface of what makes Japanese language distinct from other languages, especially English. In fact, a stark difference between English and Japanese is that of the 141 different language families, Japanese falls into a language family that is unique to only the Japanese language and the Ryukyuan language (Japonic), whereas English falls into a language family that is populated with 438 other languages (Indo-European) (Lewis, Simons, and Fennig) (Figures 9.1 and 9.2).
Figure 9.1 The Japonic Language Family

Source: Harald Hammarstrom, Robert Forkel, Martin Haspelmath, and Sebastian Bank

Figure 9.2 The Indo-European Language Family

Source: Harald Hammarstrom, Robert Forkel, Martin Haspelmath, and Sebastian Bank
It is no wonder, then, that, according to Komiya Samimy and Matoko Tabuse, for American students learning Japanese in comparisons to American students learning Spanish or French, it takes on average three or four times longer for English-speaking students learning Japanese to achieve the same level of oral proficiency than those English-speaking students learning Spanish or French, which the researchers determined from a questionnaire administered to Japanese learners at a United States university (377). Additionally, the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) an offshoot of the US Department of State, ranked Japanese a Category V language, on a scale of I to V where V is the highest, signaling that Japanese is a language differing significantly from English, therefore making it difficult for native English speakers to learn Japanese. The FSI determined these categories through an independent study conducted by the United States Department of State and is based on generally proficiency in speaking and reading (Figure 10).
## Language Difficulty Ranking

The Foreign Service Institute (FSI) has created a list to show the approximate time you need to learn a specific language as an English speaker. After this particular study time, you will reach "Speaking 3: General Professional Proficiency in Speaking (GS)" and "Reading 3: General Professional Proficiency in Reading (GR)." Please keep in mind that this ranking only shows the view of the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) and some language students or experts may disagree with the ranking.

If there is a language in this list that you would like to learn and it is in a high difficulty category, don't let this stop you from learning it. Even if they are ranked as difficult, it does not mean that they are impossible to learn and maybe it is not hard for you at all.

### Category I: 23-24 weeks (575-600 hours)
Languages closely related to English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>African</th>
<th>Norwegian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>Romanian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Category II: 30 weeks (750 hours)
Languages similar to English

| German |

### Category III: 36 weeks (900 hours)
Languages with linguistic and/or cultural differences from English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>Swahili</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Malay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Category IV: 44 weeks (1100 hours)
Languages with significant linguistic and/or cultural differences from English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Albanian</th>
<th>Lithuanian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amharic</td>
<td>Macedonian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenian</td>
<td>*Mongolian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijani</td>
<td>Nepali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banjara</td>
<td>Pashto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bogorai</td>
<td>Persian (Dari, Farsi, Tajik)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgarian</td>
<td>Polish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burmese</td>
<td>Russian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>Serbian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech</td>
<td>Sinhala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Estonian</td>
<td>Slovak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Finnish</td>
<td>Slovenian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Georgian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Greek</td>
<td>Tatar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hebrew</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindi</td>
<td>Ukrainian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Hungarian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Mandarin  (Chinese)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Japanese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Languages preceded by asterisks are usually more difficult for native English speakers to learn than other languages in the same category.

Source: “Effective Language Learning”

**Figure 10** Language Difficulty Ranking by the Foreign Service Institute (FSI)
Yet, despite knowing its inherent difficulties, and recognizing that it may take well over 2200 hours or 88 weeks for English Speakers to become proficient in the language, why are students motivated to pursue studies in the Japanese language (Figures 11.1 and 11.2)?

Source: "What Are The Hardest Languages To Learn? (Infographic)"

Figure 11.1 Language Difficulty Ranking Infographic
There are a number of frameworks to investigate this phenomenon, the reason as to why students opt to choose to study the Japanese language instead of other languages, as explored in the next section.
2.3.2 Preliminary Studies on Japanese Language Learning and Motivation

The Japanese language as a foreign language has grown significantly in influence during the past decade. In 2013, there were over 66,000 Japanese language learners attending higher education in the United States (Figure 12).

*Source: Nelly Furman, David Goldberg, and Natalia Lusin*

**Figure 12** Enrollments in Japanese Language Classes

Furthermore, considering both nations feature strong economies and what can be considered functioning democracies, coupled with expanding globalization, “the integration of capital, technology, and information across national borders,” among a number of other reasons, US-Japan relations have deepened significantly within the past few decades (Lustig and Køester 8) (see Chapter 4, The Implications of Intercultural Communication and Being Interculturally Competent for more about the implications of US-Japan relations). As a foreign language growing in influence, the Japanese language and its application to SLA and foreign language acquisition (FLA) has important implications, especially considering how Japanese SLA is highly dependent on the concept of motivation. As a reminder, I will be examining motivation through the framework provided by Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs and under Ferguson’s definition of motivation namely, motivation as “a dynamic internal process that energizes and directs actions and action tendencies...[that] pushes or pulls the individual. Environmental antecedents and goals provide sources of motivation” (Ferguson 6).
Masanori Matsumoto and Yasuko Obana in a 2001 study published in the *New Zealand Journal of Asian Studies* establishes how motivation’s primary role is to “execute human needs,” which they link to Maslow’s “Hierarchy of Needs.” Matsumoto and Obana further go on to correlate motivation and Japanese language learning through an SLA framework to suggest how motivation eventually links to learning Japanese by addressing Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs through a study conducted on a sample of Japanese language learning university students in Australia, more specifically at three universities: the University of Queensland, Griffith University on the Gold Coast, and Bond University (61).

A vital consideration Matsumoto and Obana posit is the idea that motivations to study Japanese for these language learners, much less for other SLA learners, are generally fluid and dynamic, with initial motivations changing when compared to continuing motivations. Interestingly, when observing the number of students intending to continue studies in the Japanese language at these universities, when comparing surveys conducted at the beginning (QB) and end (QE) of the semester, they found that at an elementary level, 80.3 percent of students intended to continue studies at QB and 60.2 percent at QB, a net change of -20.1 percent; whereas, on the intermediate level, they found at QB 96.9 percent intended to continue studies while 96.7 percent intended to continue at QE, a net change of only -0.2 percent (65) (Figure 13). These figures illustrate how motivations have the potential to shift for students when they begin studying a certain foreign language and continue studying the same foreign language.
Figure 13 Comparison between Beginning-of-Semester (QB) and End-of-Semester (QE) Number of English-Speaking Students Wishing to Continue Japanese Language Studies in Australian Universities

Based on the above numbers, Matsumoto and Obana conclude that “This [result] implies that the less experience students had with language learning, the more readily they cease to study,” which they attribute to the difficulties inherent in not only learning the Japanese language, but also embedding cultural nuances, traditions, manners, and customs that are inextricably bound to the Japanese language. As such, with so much information coming in from learning the Japanese language, the information overload may lead to students experiencing “culture-shock” and other forms of anxiety that are inherent in SLA. Yet, these forms of frustration may also be heightened in Japanese SLA, since students who come from English-speaking backgrounds may be discouraged from the Japanese language due to the language’s comparatively high amount of entrenched implications, leading to a lack of motivation and weakened learning persistence. Similarly, because these students may be unable to effectively communicate their intentions in Japanese to native speakers in attempting to satisfying their...
basic physiological needs (the most basic needs on Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs), they may essentially get discouraged and cease their studies in the Japanese language.

Hiroshi Matsumoto of Soka University of America examines the concept of Benjamin S. Bloom’s “peak learning experiences” to explore motivation as it relates to Japanese language learning, basing his research mainly on Maslow’s “Needs Theory” (197). Bloom’s peak learning experiences are crucial to understanding SLA in the Japanese language learning context since peak learning experiences are “those experiences of students which occur in the instructional setting…[that] are so vivid that students will recall them in great detail many years later” (Bloom 126). Matsumoto argues that “It is always many second/foreign language teachers’ sincere desire to create dynamic, motivating and fulfilling language classes where all of the students’ lives can be impacted in a meaningful way,” yet, in actuality, “many students will forget most of their specific classroom sessions when they graduate” (195). These specific sessions, therefore, motivate students to continue their studies in their pursuit of Japanese SLA as peak learning experiences can act as a catalyst or key pivotal point for students in their future career paths.

Matsumoto differentiates between positive and negative peak learning experiences in his study on 130 American university students learning Japanese as a second language. He administered a survey questionnaire with the two open-ended questions “(1) What is the most impressive/helpful/encouraging positive experience that has helped (or has been helping) you to learn Japanese? Please describe that experience as precisely and in detail as possible” and “(2) What is the most difficult/discouraging negative experience that has prevented (or has been preventing) you from learning Japanese well? Will you describe that experience as precisely and in detail as possible, as well?” (198). The results of the study can be found in Figures 14.1 and 14.2.
Table 1 'Positive' Peak Learning Experiences (PLEs) categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLE categories</th>
<th>Number of students (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Living in Japan and communicating with a best family</td>
<td>34 (26.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Communicating with native-speaker Japanese friends</td>
<td>22 (17.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Noticing that their ability to comprehend what their Japanese teacher was saying increased</td>
<td>18 (14.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Japanese teacher influence (enthusiasm and patient attitudes)</td>
<td>17 (13.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Authentic Japanese materials</td>
<td>15 (11.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) Helpful classroom activities (games and tasks)</td>
<td>10 (7.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) Learning Kanji in an interesting way</td>
<td>5 (4.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) Reading a history book about Japan</td>
<td>4 (3.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Learning 'Katakana words'</td>
<td>3 (2.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>128 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hiroshi Matsumoto

Figure 14.1 Categories of Positive Peak Learning Experiences and the Number of Students in each Category

Table 2 'Negative' Peak Learning Experiences (NLEs) categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NLEs categories</th>
<th>Number of students (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Could not sense that their learning was making progress</td>
<td>28 (21.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Constant rule memorisation of many Kanji</td>
<td>20 (15.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Not enough opportunities to use Japanese outside of the classroom</td>
<td>18 (14.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Japanese teacher too critical, impatient, and/or lacked in enthusiasm</td>
<td>14 (10.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Could not make themselves understood to host family or friends</td>
<td>12 (9.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) Negative experiences in Japan outside of the classroom</td>
<td>10 (7.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) Learning Japanese takes a lot of time and memorisation</td>
<td>10 (7.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) Not interesting class teaching method, activities and materials</td>
<td>4 (3.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) So many grammar rules to memorise</td>
<td>4 (3.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(j) No negative experiences yet</td>
<td>8 (6.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>128 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hiroshi Matsumoto

Figure 14.2 Categories of Negative Peak Learning Experiences and the Number of Students in each Category
These results, in sum, found that, when scrutinizing sources of (external) motivation to enhance motivation through peak learning experiences, the top two sources were “(1) real communication experiences and opportunities with native speakers and (2) being immersed in authentic Japanese language materials, such as TV programmes, movies, animation, songs and magazines” (206). In contrast, certain negative peak learning experiences related to the inability to see individual progress in learning the language and tediously rote memorization tasks (especially with the Chinese-influenced Japanese writing script kanji) hinder motivation for students pursuing Japanese language studies.

Providing a different perspective, Sin Yi Tsang of the University of California, Santa Barbara evaluates four specific “de/motivational factors,” and their roles and contributions to Japanese language learning and motivation. Claiming that this term serves to highlight how her four factors can serve as both a motivational or demotivational factor depending on the context and the individual observed, Tsang promotes that these four “de/motivational factors” are teachers, feedback, difficulty of the class, and feeling of progress (130). Tsang investigates these “de/motivational factors” by surveying 102 total students studying Japanese at the University of Washington. Each factor affects a student’s motivation differently, Tsang argues, emphasizing how each factor affects students on different levels, in dissimilar forms, and in differing strengths. In addition, Tsang discusses how many approaches to studying motivation factors of learning second languages already exist, and uses these studies as a basis to consider language motivation at the learning situation level, where students who were in the process of acquiring a second language, in this case the Japanese language, were surveyed for data (Figures 15.1 and 15.2).
### Figure 15.1 Summary of De/Motivational Factors

#### Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>De/Motivating Factor</th>
<th>Psychology of Students</th>
<th>Influence on Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1) Enthusiastic teacher M | *Feel more connected with the teacher  
*Want to do well for the teacher | - More enthusiastic to learn  
-Motivated to make more of an effort |
| Note: “Unenthusiastic teacher” was also a demotivating factor. |
| 2) Friendly and approachable teacher M | *Feel more connected with the teacher  
*Feel more comfortable interacting with the teacher | - More enthusiastic to learn  
-Motivated to seek assistance when they encounter difficulties |
| Note: “Unfriendly or unapproachable teacher” was also a demotivating factor. |
| 3) Teacher’s willingness to help M | *Feel more comfortable approaching the teacher  
*Feel that they will be able to eventually understand | - Motivated to seek assistance when they encounter difficulties  
-Motivated to keep trying |
| Note: “Lack of willingness to help from the teacher” was also a demotivating factor. |
| 4) Applicability and practicality of materials M | *Feel that the materials are worthwhile and useful | - Motivated to make an effort to learn and understand them |
| Note: “Lack of applicability or practicality in the materials” was also a demotivating factor. |
| 5) Interactive and interesting class session M | *Feel more engaged and involved in the class  
*Find class more enjoyable | - Motivated to go to the class and actively participate. |
| Note: “Non-interactive or uninteresting class sessions” was also a demotivating factor. |
| 6) Encouragement from the teacher in face of difficulties M | *Feel more at ease with what they are having trouble with  
*Feel confident that they will be able to overcome the struggle | - Motivated to continue trying despite previous failures |
| Note: “Discouragement from the teacher” was also a demotivator. However, it is not clear what effects a lack of encouragement can have on student motivation. |

#### Source: Sin Yi Tsang

### Figure 15.2 Summary of De/Motivational Factors (continued)

#### Table 6 Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>De/Motivating Factor</th>
<th>Psychology of Students</th>
<th>Influence on Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 7) Encouragement from the teacher about not being afraid to make mistakes M | *Know that they will not be reprimanded or ridiculed even if they make mistakes  
*Do not feel intimidated | - Motivated to use newly learned materials  
-Motivated to actively participate in speaking practices |
| Note: A lack of such encouragement was not identified as demotivator, but “Ridicules or reprimand on mistakes” was found to be a demotivator. |
| 8) Informative feedback that explains why something is incorrect M | *Sense that the teacher cares about the students  
*Know how to improve and to avoid the same mistakes | - Motivated to learn from the mistakes |
| Note: “Lack of informative feedback” was also a demotivator. |
| 9) Easy materials and lenient grading system D | *Feel that the teacher does not care  
*Feel that they can slack off  
*Feel less responsible for mistakes they make | - Less motivated to study the best they can  
-Less motivated to reflect upon their mistakes on homework and tests |
| Note: “Difficult materials and strict grading system” could be considered as a motivator when the level of difficulty was within the scope of the students. If the class was too difficult or strict, it could be demotivating to the students. |
| 10) Lack of progress or sense of incompetence D | *Sense a lack of ability  
*Feel that their previous effort is futile | - Demotivated to put forth effort  
-Demotivated to continue learning Japanese |
| Notes: “Feeling of progress/sense of competence” was also a motivator. |
After interpreting the data, which can be seen in Figures 15.1 and 15.2, Tsang concludes that “among the four de/motivators found, teachers and feeling of progress had the most salient influences” (156). In effect, in response to the teacher’s attitudes toward the subject of Japanese and his or her students, namely in the subjects of enthusiasm, approachability, and willingness to help, students felt motivated, and even felt enthusiastic to learn. If teachers did not exhibit some or all of the above behaviors, students felt a sense of demotivation, which can be attributed to the students’ strong reliance on the teacher for guidance in satisfying their basic needs to communicate in order to feel a sense of confidence and achievement (Maslow’s fourth level, self-esteem needs) (150). Likewise, if students did not feel a sense of progress, the students felt incompetent, felt their previous efforts were futile, and tended to sense a lack of ability, therefore feeling demotivated (151). In this way, “de/motivational factors,” when examined from a learning situational level, aids in understanding how motivation plays crucial roles in Japanese language acquisition.

The three studies above examined how in three unique case studies performed in Australia and the United States, native English speakers had considerable trouble when engaging in Japanese FLA. The next section will look at another case study taken from a sample at the University of Nevada, Reno.

2.4 A Case Study—The University of Nevada, Reno

2.4.1 Research Method

To ensure that my sample included only Japanese language learning students and to eliminate the number of students who studied the Japanese language strictly because of academic requirements at the University of Nevada, Reno, I administered my survey to a target audience consisting of 63 second year and third year Japanese language learning students. Specifically, the
spread of students included 45 students (71.4 percent) taking second year Japanese language classes and 18 students (28.6 percent) taking third year Japanese language classes (Language Question 5, What Japanese language class(es) are you currently taking this semester?).

A single online questionnaire was given to these students in-class with permission from the Japanese professors. I created the questionnaire in abidance to IRB policies with four sections: “Consent form,” “Demographic questions,” “Language questions,” and “Career questions.” The questionnaire consisted of four demographic questions, 10 language questions, and 10 career questions with a mixture of multiple-choice, ranking, and short-answer questions (Appendix I).

The “Language questions” section of the questionnaire was designed in a way to learn the students’ top three initial motivational factors, the motivational factors that a foreign language learner credits as the main reasons for beginning formal studies into the intended foreign language, for learning Japanese and the top three continuing motivational factors, the motivational factors that a foreign language learner accepts as the main reasons to continuing formal studies into the intended foreign language, for learning Japanese.

The “Career questions” section of the questionnaire was constructed to learn the students’ short-term and long-term career aspirations.

The “Demographic questions” was made for data comparison purposes in descriptive categories such as gender, class level, age, and ethnicity.

As I prepared answers for most of the questions in each section in advance to limit the number of essay-type responses and create broad, inclusive categories, the answers to the Language and Career questions were selected keeping the above Japanese motivational factor studies in mind (Matsumoto and Obana; Matsumoto; Tsang) while framing the possible
responses with Ferguson’s definition of motivation and Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs. Certain extraneous information can also be gleaned from the results of the survey, such as information in regards to possible retention for students transitioning from the 2nd year Japanese language class to the 3rd year class and the ratio of students pursuing Japanese Studies minors and those who are not, however, this paper will focus mainly on continuing motivational factors and career aspirations.

Once the survey was administered, students took on average five to ten minutes to answer the 25 questions. In total, 63 of the total 65 students enrolled in the second year and third year Japanese language classes were able to complete the survey (the two missing students were absent from class that day).

2.4.2 Data Analysis

The published data from the questionnaire were collected, arranged, and drafted into various graphs and tables, which can be found in full in Appendix II of this paper. In analyzing the data, I used Microsoft Excel to construct Figure 1 and adjusted the built-in chart constructions of the data made automatically by Google Forms.

From the survey results, I performed a statistical analysis to determine if a link exists between students’ Japanese language motivations and their future career goals. With assistance from tutors at the University of Nevada, Reno’s Math Center, I performed a 95 percent confidence test based on the survey results, specifically on the responses to question seven of the “Language questions,” to establish if a link exists. Language question 7 was “What [are] your [primary, secondary, and tertiary] motivation[s] for continued Japanese studies?” and had students rank their top three motivations out of nine specific choices. One of nine of the answers,
“Future Career Goals,” was the tested statistic that would establish whether or not a link existed between Japanese continuing language learning motivation and future career goals.

Beginning with Japanese language learning continuing motivational factors at the primary level, where 31.7 percent of respondents chose “Future Career Goals,” I created a 95 percent hypothesis test with the null hypothesis as $\bar{x} = .143$ and the alternate hypothesis as $\bar{x} > .143$, at an alpha of .05. The value of .143 was calculated by taking $n$, the number of responses (63), and dividing by the number of responses (9) to yield 7, which I took the reciprocal of to glean the value of .143. I then calculated the standard deviation using the equation $\text{std}(x) = \sqrt{p(1-p)/n}$, where $p$ was .317, the percentage of respondents choosing “Future Career Goals,” to yield .059. Next, I found the z score with the equation $(x - \bar{x})/\text{std}(x)$, yielding 2.949. I used a z-score chart to find the p-value of .001594. Because the p-value was less than .05, I rejected the null hypothesis and concluded there is statistically significant reason to believe there is a link between continuing Japanese language motivation and future career goals at the primary motivation level. The procedure described above is detailed in Figure 1.
I performed the same procedure at the secondary level (11.1 percent of respondents chose “Future Career Goals”) and at the tertiary level (27 percent of respondents chose “Future Career Goals”), ultimately generating the p-values of .211855 and .011665. These figures show statistically significant reason to believe there is a link between Japanese continued learning motivation and future career goals at the tertiary level, but not at the secondary level. A detailed analysis of these results can be found in Chapter 3, Section 2 (Foreign Language Acquisition as a Motivational Factor for Future Goals) of this paper.


2.4.3 Discussion

2.4.3.1 Initial Motivational Factors

Initial motivational factors, the motivational factors that a foreign language learner credits as the main reasons for beginning formal studies into the intended foreign language, are important to consider when attempting to learn what motivates students to learn the Japanese language. As is evident by the data results, there are varying degrees of initial motivational factors (Language Question 4) driving students to learn the Japanese language at the University of Nevada, Reno. Yet, interestingly enough, as shown by Language Question 1 (Generally, when did you develop an interest in the Japanese language or culture?), before taking a formal language class, a majority of students developed an interest in the Japanese language or culture in high school (39.7 percent) and in middle school (28.6 percent). When adding college to the equation (9.5 percent), we yield the total percentage of 77.8 percent and can conclude that generally, most students developed an interest in the Japanese language and culture during their post-pubescent years, which is significant in the sense that Klein, in his motivational theory, distinguished SLA from first language acquisition as language acquisition after puberty. Furthermore, an overwhelming majority of students cited that the primary motivational factor attributed to this interest (Language Question 2, What was the primary factor motivating this interest?) is due to “Cultural exposure” with 63.5 percent and “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.)” with 20.6 percent, for a total of 84.1 percent in just these two categories alone, out of the six total categories.

Survey results also illustrated that 82.1 percent of the students began formal Japanese language studies during or after high school, with the majority (41.3 percent) of students taking their first Japanese language class in high school (Language Questions 3, When was your first
Japanese language class?). In light of these results, it can be inferred that certain students nurtured an interest in the Japanese language during high school while simultaneously taking Japanese language classes (Language Question 1 “High school” at 39.7 percent versus Language Question 3 “High school” at 41.3 percent).

Yet by and by, the most important factor in determining initial motivational factors for learning the Japanese language in FLA comes from the responses to Language Question 4. Out of the nine responses to Language Question 4 (What is your primary motivating factor for taking this class), a ranking question, the three most popular responses dealt with “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.),” “Cultural exposure,” and “Future career goals” respectively. Specifically, at the primary level, 42.9 percent (27 students) selected “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.),” 27 percent (17 students) selected “Cultural exposure,” and 17.5 percent (11 students) selected “Future career goals.” At the secondary level, 31.7 percent (20 students) selected “Future career goals,” 30.2 percent (19 students) selected “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.),” and 17.5 percent (11 students) selected “Future Career Goals.” At the tertiary level, 31.7 percent (20 students) selected “Future career goals,” 23.8 percent (15 students) selected “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.),” and 20.6 percent (13 students) selected “Japanese friends/acquaintances.”

From the above results, it can be inferred that specific linguistic aspects of the Japanese language (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, kanji, etc.) and cultural factors (e.g. anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.) lead to Japanese language initial motivational factors for certain reasons that may be attributable to curiosity in Japan as a whole from a Westerner’s perspective. Additionally, it can also be argued that certain factors, including “Racial background/Immediate family of Japanese descent,” “Extended family of Japanese descent,” “Demographics of city
currently resided in,” “Specific class reasons,” and “Professor reasons” do not contribute much to initial motivational factors for students at the University of Nevada, Reno.

2.4.3.2 Continuing Motivational Factors

Similar to initial motivational factors, continuing motivational factors, the motivational factors that a foreign language learner accepts as the main reasons to continuing formal studies into the intended foreign language, are important to understand in order to understand what motivates students to continue pursuing studies in the Japanese language. In determining continuing motivational factors, the responses to Language Question 7 (What [are] your primary [secondary, and tertiary] motivation[s] for continued Japanese studies?) are critical to evaluate.

Similar to the responses to Language Question 4, which determined initial motivational factors, the responses to Language Question 7 illustrated the top three continuing motivational factors were “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.),” “Future career goals,” and “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.),” respectively for students at the University of Nevada, Reno. Specifically, at the primary level, 39.7 percent (25 students) selected “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.),” 31.7 percent (20 students) selected “Future career goals,” and 14.3 percent (9 students) selected “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.).” In contrast, at the secondary level, 34.9 percent (22 students) selected “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.),” 25.4 percent (16 students) selected “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.),” and 11.1 percent (7 students) selected “Future career goals.” Finally, at the tertiary level, 28.6 percent (18 students) selected “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.),” 27 percent (17 students) selected “Future career goals,” and 22.2 percent (14 students) selected “Japanese friends/acquaintances.” It can be
concluded from this information that generally, students credit their continuing motivational factors to specific facets of the Japanese language, the Japanese culture, and also their future career aspirations.

Also noteworthy is the ratio of students who intend to, or are in the process of completing all of the Japanese classes up until the third year (Language Question 8, Do you plan to complete or are currently completing both of the 3rd year Japanese language classes?). 79.4 percent of the 63 students intend to do so while 20.6 percent of the students do not intend to do so. Out of the 50 students who replied “Yes,” 98 percent of students (plus or minus 2 percent error) plan to continue studying Japanese after completing the third year Japanese language sequence (Language Question 9, If yes, do you plan to continue studying Japanese after the completion of these classes?). Students who replied “Yes” cited the top three reasons of “Wish to become fluent in the language,” “Wish to work abroad in Japan in the future” and “Wish to travel abroad to Japan for leisure purposes,” respectively at the primary level as continuing motivational factors for studying Japanese post-graduation (Language Question 9, If yes, what would you say are the top three motivating factors for you in continuing your Japanese language studies?). It can be concluded, therefore, that those students who plan to continue studying Japanese post-graduation intend to travel to Japan someday and use the Japanese language in these endeavors.

2.4.3.3 Drawing Comparisons between these Motivational Factors

In comparing the results from Section 2.4.3.1 and Section 2.4.3.2, and in comparing initial motivational factors and continuing motivational factors, we can clearly see that at the University of Nevada, Reno, the top three motivational factors for students in both categories are “Interests in the Japanese language,” “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.),” and “Future career goals.” As such, it can be concluded that out of the nine
responses for both questions, these three motivational factors motivated students the most in initial and continued Japanese language studies.

Some interesting conclusions can be determined from these data. At the primary level, the number of students who responded with “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.)” remained the most selected answer; however, there was a slight three percent decrease between initial and continuing motivational factors. In the initial motivational factor category, the second most selected response came in the form of “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.),” yet at the continuing motivational factor category, the second most selected response was “Future career goals.” It can be concluded from this shift that students began considering the opportunity of using the Japanese language in their future endeavors while taking Japanese classes. Of course, this shift can also be due to the fact that most of the students, 68.2 percent, are considered upper-class standing (either a junior, senior, or super senior) in terms of total credit hours (Appendix II: “Demographic Questions”).
CHAPTER 3: FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN RELATION TO FUTURE CAREER GOALS

3.1 Introduction

The connection between foreign language learning and future career goals is nebulous at best. There is not much literature with concrete evidence suggesting a link between the two fields. Many bodies of research, however, promote a strong tie between foreign language learning and specific activities that can indirectly impact future career decisions. In this way, a link can be established indirectly through these pieces of literature, which serve to illuminate a possible link between studying foreign language and future career aspirations for students.

This section will begin by exploring this literature and discussing what sort of links can be established between motivation and future career aspirations for students, specifically through the following contexts: how study abroad in foreign language learning (FLA) influences student motivations to work abroad, the cognitive benefits of FLA that serve as motivation boosters by increasing students’ employability, the shift of paradigms that result from the introduction of global ideas and cultures, and the impact of globalization in creating new academic disciplines that students can engage in. Results gleaned from the survey given to students at the University of Nevada, Reno (Appendix II) will be considered in support of the claims made by the authors in these contexts. It is also important to note that the literature addressed examine FLA in general terms and is not exclusive to Japanese language learning. Further it is important to note that FLA, when discussed, will be regarded as synonymous with second language acquisition (SLA) as discussed in the previous section for the purposes of this study.

Since none of the above discussed literature establishes a direct link, the section will conclude with a commentary on the results of a statistical analysis performed on the
aforementioned results with the intention of establishing a direct link between students’ Japanese language learning motivations and future aspirations.

3.2 Foreign Language Acquisition as a Motivational Factor for Future Career Goals

3.2.1 Is There a Link?

3.2.1.1 Studying Abroad Context

As established in Appendix II, for students at the University of Nevada, Reno, studying abroad serves as a continuing motivational factor for continuing their Japanese language studies. In responses to Question 10 (If yes [to Question 8], what would you say are the top three motivating factors for you in continuing your Japanese language studies?), 6.3 percent of the respondents answered “Wish to travel abroad to Japan for study abroad purposes (undergraduate or graduate)” at the primary level, 17.5 percent at the secondary level, and 3.2 percent at the tertiary level. From these responses it is apparent that the prospect of studying abroad serves as a critical continuing motivational factor for students to keep learning foreign languages.

In 2013 and 2014, the number of US students studying abroad increased five percent in relation to the prior year, with a grand total of 304,467 students, or 1 in 10 undergraduate students (Figure 16).
Although it is important to note that this total includes students going to English-speaking countries and students who will not use a foreign language, which is evident by the fact that 32
percent of US study abroad students were going to predominantly English-speaking countries like the United Kingdom, Italy, and Spain, clearly, study abroad provides ample opportunity for students to foster their abilities in foreign languages. For students who are learning a foreign language, studying abroad allows these students various opportunities to not only practice speaking and listening to the foreign language with native peoples in the language’s most natural state, but also reinforces foreign language.

Valeria A. Pellegrino Aveni discusses the importance of study abroad in second language acquisition, reinforcing the idea that because certain social, psychological, and cultural barriers exist for students studying SLA, establishing a foreign language learner’s concept of “self” in relation to those natives in a foreign environment will prove difficult. In this way, Pellegrino Aveni suggests how these study abroad experiences impact students’ future job aspirations by commenting on how “language learners entering the realm of the new culture often lack the necessary degree of empathy to understand their own position in the new culture,” which sways their senses of self and the strategies they employ to cope with their insecurities and anxieties (147).

Positive experiences that increase language learners’ intercultural competence and communication effectiveness tend to buttress the learners’ confidence and opens up new realms of possibilities for using the foreign language in the future. This, in turn, poses the possibility of using the foreign language in future employment. On the other hand, should the language learner experience negative experiences abroad, such as being unable to cope to culture shock or being ineffective in communicating his or her intentions, which also plays the role of not allowing the individual to effectively satisfy his or her basic needs on Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, the possibility of using the second language in the future becomes diminished in the learner’s mind.
As Pellegrino Aveni comments about these situations, “Language use ultimately suffers in an effort to protect the self,” as these language learners are unable to construct “identity competence…the ability to establish and maintain the desired level of control, status, safety, and validation, while interacting in the [foreign language]” (147-148). Therefore, in terms of second language acquisition as a continuing motivational factor for future career goals, study abroad acts to either magnify or diminish students’ desires to use a foreign language in their future careers, based considerably on their experiences abroad in the foreign country.

3.2.1.2 Reaping Cognitive Benefits as a Means to Increase Employability Context

Foreign language learning can be quite impactful for language learners since it has desirable cognitive benefits. Considering that languages are extremely multifaceted and are highly connected to cultures throughout the world, learning foreign languages allows learners to enhance perceptions of different ethnic groups, experience cultures unlike their own, and glean information that may be considered untranslatable, like specific vocabulary unique to certain languages. Generally, languages have a variety of implications and nuanced interpretations—not just the grammatical structures, syntax, vocabulary, diction, and intonations inherently embedded in the language system. For a student learning a foreign language, students earn a variety of cognitive benefits that act to stimulate the brain and promote healthy brain growth, which will be explored hereafter. As such, the large number of cognitive benefits serves as a motivation for foreign language learning, and in turn, increases the number of job opportunities by nurturing skills desired by employers.

Anne Merritt explores how brain functionality, memory improvement, enhanced ability to multitask, and other cognitive benefits stem from foreign language learning, suggesting that becoming bilingual or multilingual aids by providing more career opportunities in the future.
Meritt argues that foreign language learning allows learners to effectively problem solve by challenging their brains to “recognize, negotiate meaning, and communicate in different language systems” (Meritt). Even more so, having the skill to switch between language structures (code switching), in terms of writing, speaking, reading, and listening, allows language learners to effectively build up valuable multi-tasking skills. This form of mental “language juggling,” as a study performed by Pennsylvania State University bolsters, allows bilingual speakers to better sort out irrelevant information, prioritize tasks, take perspectives, and more clearly express their thoughts than monolinguals (Kroll and Bialystok 497). In this study, in which researchers used brain wave detecting machines like MRIs and electroencephalographs to track how the subjects’ brains operated when reading sentences in different languages, bilinguals had little to no trouble slipping in and out of both languages, effectively mentally negotiating between these languages. It is important to emphasize, however, this study mainly examined bilingual subjects rather than strictly foreign language learning subjects.

In a different way, foreign language learning, Anne Meritt emphasizes, allows learners to improve their decision-making skills, especially in terms of making decisions. A study performed at the University of Chicago emphasizes this assertion, proving that thinking in a foreign language promotes the seizing of attractive opportunities and the making of beneficial bets by reducing loss aversion (Keysar, Hayakawa, and An 661). This study suggested that when faced with monetary bets, students were more myopic when the bet was given in English, focusing on fear of losing the bet; on the other hand, when the bet was given in Spanish, these students who were proficient in Spanish tended to take the risky bet. The authors conclude by implying that “people who routinely make decisions in a foreign language rather than their native tongue might be less biased in their…decisions, as a result of reduced myopic loss aversion”
In this sense, as Meritt suggests, foreign language learners are more systematic in decision-making, thus increasing the employability of the learner.

Foreign language learners have much to gain in terms of cognitive benefits resulting from foreign language learning. These cognitive benefits foster skills valued by employers and increase the employability of these language learners, therefore serving as a significant continuing motivational factor for foreign language learning. In support of this assertion, Merritt validates how there may be a link between foreign language learning and career opportunities through boosting employability. Additionally, in the case of students at the University of Nevada, Reno, as seen in Appendix II, a number of students that responded to “Yes” to Question 5 (Do you think you will use the Japanese language for this immediate goal?) answered Question 6 (Why or why not do you think this?) expressing how learning the Japanese language boosts their employability. Some of the responses include “I know my [Japanese] minor will definitely make me look more appealing to employers which is one of the reasons why I’m studying Japanese,” “Knowing another language (especially Japanese) in the technology field is a very large benefit. While I may not use the language itself, I will certainly use it as a resume booster,” and “Knowing another language will hopefully set me apart enough to appear more attractive to employers as well as possibly helping me set up business opportunities in Japan as well.” As evident by these responses, certain students inherently feel learning a foreign language increases their employability.

### 3.2.1.3 Experiencing Global Ideas Context

As the world has become more globalized, “the integrat[ing] of capital, technology, and information across national borders” (Lustig and Koester 8), within the past decade, students worldwide have become exposed to new global ideas, perspectives, and concepts. When students
learn a foreign language in the classroom, more often than not, students are effectively introduced to novel international ideas that essentially expand their minds from exclusively ethnocentric mindsets. The political, social, cultural, educational, and technological landscapes of countries throughout the world are universally dynamic, intriguingly complex, and at times, vastly exceptional in comparison to other countries on regional and global levels. As a result of exposure to unfamiliar foreign countries in language learning classrooms, students are able to conceptualize and develop global mindsets for new countries, cultures, and areas in the world through this metaphorical language doorway. Through the exposure of global ideas, students realize the possibilities of using a foreign language in tandem with their professional careers in the foreign country that garnered these students’ interests, and in this way, reinforces continued foreign language learning motivation for these students.

For the promotion of cross-cultural ideas and global mindsets in students’ minds to be effective, globally competent teachers are necessary to adequately introduce and foster these global ideas. Organizations in support of developing globally competent teachers in the face of increased internationalization have sprung up across the United States, such as the Global Partnership for Education and Global Teacher Education. Global Teacher Education defines a globally competent teacher as someone “who possess the competencies, attitudes, and habits of mind necessary for successful cross-cultural engagement at home and abroad” (“What is Internationalization of Teacher Education?”).

With the rise of globally competent teachers, students participating in what can be considered a global classroom can expect to see international facets that the teachers purposefully integrate into the school curriculum. For example, a teacher may “Encourage creative representations of the world, avoid stereotypes when selecting international images,
create games using maps and globes, play music from a variety of cultures, post and refer to the alphabets of other world languages, incorporate toys/times from around the world, and post and frequently use a variety of maps” (Berdan and Berdan 40). In this way, beginning at primary and secondary education levels, students become introduced to global ideas, which allow them to become motivated to study foreign languages in higher education and amply relate foreign language study with their future careers, and along the way more likely than not becoming interculturally competent.

Appendix II shows that, at the University of Nevada, Reno, an astronomical 90.5 percent of students at the University of Nevada, Reno developed an interest in the Japanese language during or before high school but only 7.9 percent and 41.3 percent of students took their first formal Japanese language class before high school and during high school respectively. These results show that the disconnect between the time that a student is exposed to global ideas and the time that a student begins formal studies of a foreign language may differ significantly.

This idea, of students experiencing global ideas, is not exclusively unique to primary education classrooms. Ema Ushioda reinforces how language teachers have a crucial impact on students engaging in FLA, especially in the introduction of global ideas and concepts through modern technology to students at nearly every education level (235). Ushioda argues how the field of the global exchange of ideas has become increasingly complex because, “with the growth of migration and mobility and advances in communication technologies, contexts of learning and using English in the globalized world are becoming fluid, flexible, mobile, transitory, borderless and less easily definable” (5).

The advent of communication technologies via the Internet, for example, allows students to interact with people worldwide through blogs, chat rooms, webinars, and the like through
smart phones, tablets, and computers. National news and television programs from other countries have become much more accessible, and so the contexts that allow foreign language learners to learn a foreign language have become less definable in physical terms. Because so much information is readily available, globally competent teachers that provide students with the necessary tools to properly sift the information and create strong cross-cultural networks with other foreign people and ideas from abroad greatly benefits the students, especially those foreign language learners. With these cross-cultural networks, these students have more potential to connect to possible employment opportunities. Overall, Ushioda provides an interesting perspective on how foreign language learning and future career objectives can possibly correlate through the usage of international communication technologies.

3.2.1.4 Seizing the Opportunity to Enter Newer Academic Disciplines Context

The American Council on Education’s Center for Internationalization and Global Engagement published a report in 2012 showcasing how in 2011, in a study surveying about 1000 universities across the United States, over half of the universities had “international or global education, or other aspects of internationalization” referred to and prioritized in their mission statements (“Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses: 2012 Edition” 7). In addition, this report shows that the overall percentage of institutions with campus-wide internationalization plans increased from 2006 to 2011 in nearly every degree program in the United States, with an overall three percent increase since 2006 (Figure 17).
As these universities and colleges began to adopt internationalization plans in their strategic visions, the number of institutions that adopted foreign language graduation requirements remained significantly high at over 65 percent, 61 percent, and 73 percent at the Baccalaureate, Master’s, and Doctoral levels (12).

These statistics and figures exemplify how internationalization plays vital roles in today’s contemporary society. As universities nationwide have begun to shift from local to global perspectives, many universities have adopted newer academic disciplines, which promote internationalization efforts, cross-cultural information exchange, and foreign language learning. In this way, students have the opportunity to enter into academic disciplines that were not even in existence a century ago, which allows students to become motivated to learn foreign languages that assist them with entering into jobs correlated with the degrees they are pursuing.

Ronald Cere asserts how foreign language learning in tandem with globalization has promoted the creation of new academic disciplines accessible to students in college settings, such as International Trade and International Business. Cere goes on to reinforce how the rise of interdisciplinary studies in university and college settings have prompted the combining of “language, literature, and culture studies with professional areas to create numerous courses, if
not entire programs to meet…the academic and professional needs of students who live and work in an increasingly global economy and society” (235). Indeed, these programs and courses were created with the intention of not just exposing students to foreign ideas and cultural landscapes, but also creating internationally minded students who are interculturally competent and prepared to work for companies in countries outside their home countries, for companies in countries with international divisions, or for companies with international components. As such, students are prepared for the roles they would play in a global society and workplace (Figure 18).

Source: Veronica Boix Mansilla and Anthony Jackson

Figure 18 The Four Global Competences: Students’ Disciplinary and Interdisciplinary Understanding of the World
Because students who tend to pursue these international degrees tend to work abroad, it is necessary for students to better understand the world in competent manners. Cere mentions how it is critical for educators who are undergoing international degree programs to “network with foreign-language and other educators, professionals, and government and community officials to…create interdisciplinary programs, instruction, experiences, and opportunities needed to produce mature, culturally and linguistically sensitive [students]” (236). Through the intentional inclusion of these international contacts in these interdisciplinary programs, students are able to build their abilities to increase specific competencies that allow them to methodically process and better understand the world through disciplinary and interdisciplinary study. These students are able to investigate the world beyond their immediate environment, recognize both their own and others’ perspectives, take appropriate action to improve conditions, and communicate ideas effectively with diverse audiences (Figure 18). As such, students pursuing international degrees in interdisciplinary programs meeting Cere’s interpretation of effective degree programs are more sensitive and more effective in the global society and workplace. As students are more prepared for these roles, they are more employable and motivated to utilize these international degrees to work abroad.

At the University of Nevada, Reno, of the 63 respondents who took the survey, nine responded that they sought degrees in International Business or International Affairs, as shown through Career Question 1 (What is your major?) in Appendix II.
3.2.2 Linking Foreign Language Learning Motivation and Future Career Aspirations at the University of Nevada, Reno

3.2.2.1 Career Questions Discussion

The questionnaire that was distributed to the 63 students at the University of Nevada, Reno who were taking 2nd or 3rd year Japanese language classes featured 10 questions in the Career Questions section. This section of the questionnaire was specifically designed in a way that would determine what students’ intentions were once they received their undergraduate degrees immediately post-graduation and in the long-term (for example, five years). Data from the results can be found in Appendix II.

The first two questions aimed to understand what the students were studying along with their anticipated graduation dates. The first question, “What is your major?”, surveyed the various majors that students were pursuing at the University of Nevada. In the sample of students surveyed, there were 36 distinct majors, with 47.6 percent of the total students pursuing degrees in the College of Liberal Arts. 17.5 percent of the students were studying engineering and 11.1 percent of the students were studying science, the second and third most represented major categories for students in the sample. Ethnically, 46% of the students identified as “White/Caucasian,” 27% identified as “Asian,” and 14.3% identified as “Multiracial.” At the time of the survey, most of the students estimated they would graduate within the next three years, centralized around the spring semester, in Spring 2016 (15.9 percent), Spring 2017 (28.6 percent), and Spring 2018 (28.6 percent).

Four questions related to the students’ immediate post-graduation goals followed. The first three of these four questions determined whether or not students hoped to use the Japanese language in the immediate future. In response to Career Question 3 “What is your immediate post-graduation goal?”, of the five options, the most selected answer was “Full-time job” at 34.9
percent, indicating that over a third of the students hoped to start working right away post-graduation. In response to the following two questions, Career Question 4 “Do you plan to achieve this immediate goal by going to Japan?” and Career Question 5 “Do you think you will use the Japanese language for this immediate goal, over half of the respondents chose “Yes” (60.3 percent) to Career Question 4 and a whopping 82.5% of the surveyed responded “Yes” to Career Question 5. The final question related to student’s immediate goals, Career Question 6 “Why or why not do you think this?” asked students for a short essay type response and yielded various results ranging from “I plan to make Japanese translation of art (eg comics) and software” to “Bucket list priority.”

Following the immediate career goals section was the long-term goals section, consisting of four questions. The terminology “ideal goals” replaced the phrase “long-term goals” since the questions asked allowed students to formulate their own interpretations of what they deem fitting for a “long-term” goal. Career Question 7, however, provided a term length example to students by asking “What is your ideal post-graduation goal (e.g. after five years)?” By this point in time, 52.4% of the students felt they would be working a full-time job while 14.3% of the students felt they would be pursuing a PhD. 46% of the respondents answered “Yes” to Career Question 8 “Do you plan to achieve this ideal goal by going to Japan?” and 71.4% percent of the students felt they would be using the Japanese language for their long-term goals (Career Question 9 “Do you think you will use the Japanese language for this ideal goal?”). Similar to Career Question 6, Career Question 10 (“Why or why not do you think this?”) allowed students to justify why or why not they felt they would or would not be using the Japanese language in their long-term goals in a short essay response format. Responses were varied in response to this question, for
example, “I hope to become a professor for International Affairs related courses concerning Asia or more specifically Japan” and “To better help to teach and research into military evolution.”

A detailed analysis of the results will be examined in the next section.

3.2.2.2 Analysis of the Responses to the Career Questions

In terms of immediate post-graduation goals, the majority of respondents, 34.9 percent, plus the addition of 4.8 percent of students who responded with “Other” and expressed employment related responses in elaboration of why they chose “Other,” desired to go into full-time jobs or some other type of work. Of these 26 respondents, 21 students felt they would use the Japanese language in their immediate future career goals. Of these 21 respondents, 14 students hoped to work in Japan and use the Japanese language in their future careers, therefore reinforcing a connection linking Japanese language learning motivation and future career aspirations. Of these 14 students, 10 students showed a desire to teach abroad in Japan, with nine of these students detailing how they desired to work specifically for the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Program, an initiative “Aiming primarily to promote grass-roots internationalisation at the local level… [that] invites young college graduates from around the world to participate in international exchange work and be involved in foreign language education at Japan’s local government offices, Boards of Education, elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools” (“Introduction – JET Programme”). The seven other students, of the 21 total respondents, that desired to use the Japanese language in their future career goals but did not wish to live in Japan hoped to become international musicians, detectives, artists, and other such peoples in other career fields. Many justified this decision with the idea that knowing the Japanese language makes them more employable and allows them to reach more Japanese-speaking target audiences in their future endeavors (Table 2).
Table 2 The Number of Students who think they will use the Japanese Language while Working Full-Time Jobs Immediately, Post-Graduation

As for long-term post-graduation goals, a higher number of respondents hoped to be working full-time jobs compared to the immediate post-graduate statistic (39.7 percent), with 52.4 percent of the students, plus 3.2 percent from the “Other” category, expressing they ideally would be working in full-time careers in the long-term. Within this sample of 35 students, 26 of the students desired to use the Japanese language in their employment, up from 21 students in the immediate post-graduation section. Of these 26 students, 19 students expressed a desire to be working in Japan and believe they will be using the Japanese language in their professional careers. A total of seven of these students expressed a desire to engage in teaching related fields, down from the 10 in the immediate post-graduation section, with only four explaining how they wished to work for the JET Program, down from nine in the last section. This decrease makes sense since the JET Program provides only one-year contracts with individuals, renewable up to five years. The 12 other students who felt they would be working in Japan in the long-term
expressed a desire to work in fields involving US-Japanese relations, obtain technical careers in the technological sector, and be employed by Japanese businesses and corporations. Similar to the previous section, those students who believed that they would use the Japanese language in their careers but would not work in Japan expressed how the Japanese language would serve them by making them more employable or help them achieve more communicability in reaching possible Japanese-speaking target audiences (Table 3).

Table 3 The Number of Students who think they will use the Japanese Language while Working Full-Time Jobs in the Long-Term, Post-Graduation

In the above analyses of the immediate post-graduation goals and long-term post-graduation goals, for both cases, it is notable that none of the respondents felt that if they went to Japan for their goals, they would not use the Japanese language. The fact that students responded in this way promotes the idea that students believe that the Japanese language is crucial in achieving their goals if they were to go to Japan.
In the next section, a link between continuing Japanese language learning motivation and future career aspirations will be established for this sample at the University of Nevada, Reno through statistical analysis.

**3.2.2.3 Hypothesis Test Analysis**

As analyzed throughout the prior sections, students often have differing motivations to continue studying foreign languages. Though many bodies of research establish certain reasons or goals that perpetuate motivation to learn foreign languages, such as study abroad, reaping cognitive benefits as a means to increase employability, experiencing global ideas, and seizing the opportunity to enter new academic disciplines, no formally published studies tie continuing foreign language learning motivations and future career aspirations. As such, I have endeavored to establish a link by performing a confidence test at the 95 percent level on the results gleaned from the survey found in Appendix I. I performed the confidence test at the primary, secondary, and tertiary motivational levels. The specific research method and the steps I took to perform the test can be found in the prior Chapter 2, Section 4 (A Case Study—The University of Nevada, Reno) of this paper.

We can say at 95 percent certainty that there is a statistically significant link between continuing motivational factors for learning Japanese and future career goals at the primary and tertiary motivation levels but not the secondary motivation level (Figure 1). The results will be explored hereafter.
The results of this test signify that a number of students continue to study the Japanese language on the basis of reaching their future goals. These results make sense since, as discussed in the prior section, most of the students who were studying the Japanese language hoped to use the Japanese language in their future careers, both for their immediate and long-term career goals, with many opting to actually work in Japan. Overall, this established link paves the way to understanding why students desire to learn the Japanese language over other foreign languages and reinforces that, for students, in general, motivations for foreign language learning may be tied to future career aspirations.
It is imperative to mention that this test was only performed on students enrolled in the Japanese language section of the World Languages and Literatures Department at the University of Nevada, Reno. Should the same test be performed in other language sections at the University of Nevada, Reno, such as the Spanish, Chinese, or the French sections, the results may differ and a link between continuing motivational factors and future career aspirations may not be gleaned. This may be attributed to the fact that the Japanese language differs in linguistic and cultural elements in comparison to these other foreign languages. Similar results may occur should other researchers perform the same test on Japanese language learning students at other universities.

Further, it is important to consider certain research limitations stemming from the sample of students at the University of Nevada, Reno, which may not be entirely relevant or comparable to other campuses. The Japanese Studies Program, in the World Languages and Literatures Department, at the University of Nevada, Reno only provides a Japanese Studies minor and no major program. As such, a number of the students who were studying the Japanese language at the University of Nevada at the time the survey was given may not have had the goal of using the Japanese language in their future careers, but rather were studying the Japanese language because of major degree requirements in the College of Liberal Arts. Next, the number of students in the minor program may be significantly smaller relative to the number at other universities. There were less than one hundred students, out of a total student population of 20,898 students, enrolled in the second or third year Japanese language classes at the University of Nevada, Reno in 2015 and only 41 students in the sample were pursuing the Japanese minor, as opposed to 22 students who were not, at the time the survey was administered (Language Question 6) (“Current Enrollment Data”). Finally, in terms of demographics, the number of students in the sample who were affiliated with the White/Caucasian (46 percent) ethnicity may
be considerably high compared to other universities. This large number may be attributed to the fact that in the total student population (20,898), 11,537 students were affiliated with the “White Non-hispanic” ethnicity in 2015 at the University of Nevada, Reno (“Headcount, Spring to Spring Comparison (Preliminary Census)”).
CHAPTER 4: THE IMPLICATIONS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION AND BEING INTERCULTURALLY COMPETENT

4.1 Introduction

Intercultural communication has become increasingly important as the world gets tightly interconnected through globalization, “the integration of capital, technology, and information across national borders,” and electronic media (Lustig and Koester 8). As such, it has become increasingly necessary for individuals to be interculturally competent in order to nurture strong relations across cultures, both at personal and professional levels. This section will consider intercultural communication as a whole, examine the roles of language in intercultural communication, analyze the Japanese language in intercultural communication, and investigate the significant implications that US-Japan relations have had until now and have going into the future. By examining these roles, this chapter will promote how foreign language learning impacts the global marketplace, relations across countries, and foreign affairs by framing foreign language learning in respect to macro relationships.

The literature addressed in this chapter ultimately connects foreign language learning motivations to future career goals, which are highly influenced by the effects of intercultural communication in today’s contemporary world. Foreign language learning is a vital component of intercultural communication. As the amount of intercultural communication rises globally, more jobs have demanded people to be proficient in foreign languages (Lustig and Koester). Yet, foreign language learning was not really known to have a significant statistical relationship with future career aspirations. As such, since it has been established in the prior chapter that there is a link between Japanese language learning and future career aspirations, we can begin to examine
the importance of intercultural competency for students learning foreign languages that wish to ultimately work abroad or use a foreign language in their desired career paths.

4.2 What is Intercultural Communication?

4.2.1 Intercultural Communication Defined

With so many cultures worldwide, and with each culture having unique characteristics that are unlike other cultures, how do people across cultures communicate? In answering this question, it is important to understand the concept of “intercultural communication.” Myron W. Lustig and Jolene Koester explain that intercultural communication is a phenomenon that “occurs when large and important cultural differences create dissimilar interpretations and expectations about how to communicate competently” (49). This definition reinforces how cultures are different, and so, communication can be ineffective among cultures if these cultural differences, which become barriers in this sense, are not surmounted. In this way, understanding what intercultural communication is and how it relates to relationships among countries is crucial to create effective intercultural relationships in an increasingly globalized world.

4.2.2 Why Intercultural Communication Matters

According to Milton J. Bennett, “The study of intercultural communication has tried to answer the question, ‘How do people understand one another when they do not share a common cultural experience?’” (2). As mentioned in the above section, the world is becoming increasingly globalized, which allows people to live in multicultural societies brimming with people from diverse backgrounds, ethnicities, belief systems, religions, and so on, around the world. Therefore, it has become increasingly necessary to answer this question in order not just to be understood and pursue common societal goals, but also to create an environment of respect for cultural diversity, not just mere tolerance. Additionally, in creating this global village
centered on strong, effective intercultural communication, how do people forgo cultural biases such as social categorizing, ethnocentrism, stereotyping, discrimination, and racism, while retaining their individual cultural identities?

Milton J. Bennett continues to lay the groundwork for what intercultural communication is as a whole and how it is explicitly used as the world becomes more globalized. Bennett argues that intercultural communication differs from monocultural communication, in many ways, especially considering the definition of monocultural communication as “similarity-based [communication in which] common assumptions about the nature of reality create a context in which members of a culture exchange meaning with one another, recognized appropriate behavior, and coordinate collective action… [and in which] difference represents the potential for misunderstanding and friction” (3). Compared to monocultural communication, intercultural communication is difference-based, encourages intentionality, and is generally unnatural.

Bennett paints an interesting picture of the intentionality and unnaturalness of intercultural communication. Bennett promotes that it is common for people to think that communication is something that is natural, normal, necessary, and not exactly conscious. As this interpretation of communication can be ineffective and ethnocentric, Bennett calls this form of communication monocultural communication and asserts that this way of thinking can be metaphorically associated with the common activity of walking. Since communication should be practiced with full engagement in order to be successful, intercultural communication can be unnatural since one needs to be more intentional and conscious in these efforts. Bennett therefore associates intercultural communication with the uncommon activity of flying a plane. Bennett explains, “With the right technology (technique) it has recently become possible [to fly a plane], but [flying a plane] demands a lot of conscious attention. Even when the airplane is on
‘autopilot,’ the real pilot must be trained and ready to instantly engage the technology” (5).

Because in today’s contemporary world people live in increasingly multicultural contexts, people must be intentional in addressing the differences brought about by cultures, although doing so may feel unnatural.

Living in an intercultural world brings about numerous challenges and opportunities. However, as Lustig and Koester advocate, there are generally five imperatives for achieving intercultural communication competence, namely, the demographic, technological, economic, peace, and interpersonal imperatives. Although these imperatives may exist separately, because of the rise of globalization and the rise of interconnected media, these imperatives have become more integrated within the last few decades.

Societies worldwide have become transformed into multicultural societies, since populations have shifted resulting from immigration and more and more people have become comfortable associating with multiple racial and cultural identities. This demographic transformation in recent years is, as Lustig and Koester promote, “perhaps the largest and most extensive wave of cultural mixing in recorded history” (3). The US Census Bureau has published statistics promoting that by 2011, 20 percent of the United States population speak a foreign language besides English at home (“Language Spoken at Home: 2010 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimates”). Additionally, census figures show that in 2010, over nine million American citizens identified with more than one racial group, and the 2050 multiracial population is projected to triple by 2050 (Cohn). Further, in the United States, as of July 15, 2014, there were over 42 million who identified as “Black or African American alone,” over 55 million who identified as “Hispanic or Latino alone,” over 17 million who identified as “Asian alone,” and 246 million who identified as “white alone” (“QuickFacts – United States”). These
figures signal that the US is becoming increasingly multiracial. However, this transformation into a multicultural society is not exclusively unique to the United States. As Lustig and Koester explain, “Throughout Europe, Asia, Africa, South America, and the Middle East, there is an increasing pattern of cross-border movements that is both changing the distribution of people around the globe and intensifying the political and social tensions that accompany such population shifts” (6).

To understand the technological imperative for intercultural communication competence, it is crucial to understand Marshall McLuhan 1964 coined term, “global village,” which is used essentially to describe how the mass media has the ability to bring events from the fall over the world into people’s homes globally, therefore shrinking the world (McLuhan). The accessibility of innovative communications technologies, long-distance transportation systems, along with the dissemination of information through complex information systems has facilitated human interactions instantaneously across borders in a global village. Modern technologies like the Internet and the smartphone have allowed users to link effectively to people in different countries and different continents. In support of this fact that technology links people, within the last few decades, the use of cell phones worldwide has increased to over six billion users, over three-quarters of the Earth’s population (“Mobile Cellular Subscriptions”). In short, modern information systems and technologies allow people worldwide to hear news in different countries, gain insights into different cultures, travel to places thousands of miles away, and in general, communicate with peoples of different cultures in the global village.

The economic imperative is important when examining how interdependent global economies have become. Investors in one country can easily hold stocks, bonds, and other securities outside their home countries, international tourism has been burgeoning worldwide,
corporations have outsourced labor across borders, and other such activities among countries internationally has contributed to the flow of trillions of US dollars and other currencies across borders. Actually, in terms of the growth of international trade, especially for the United States, “U.S. international trade has more than doubled every decade since 1960, and it now exceeds $3.5 trillion annually” (“U.S. International Trade in Goods and Services: January 2016.”). The effect that significant economic crises have had on the global marketplace, such as the European banking and debt crisis that has been persisting since 2009 and the Great Recession in the US that resulted from the burst of the housing bubble in 2007, have not only significantly impacted the area the crisis transpired in, but has had lasting ramifications on economies worldwide (Lustig and Koester).

With so much global interdependence, there has been a rise in cultural clashes over resource controls and ideologies, thus creating the peace imperative. The influx of cultural ideas and people with differing ethnic backgrounds across borders has exposed people to ideas and people unlike what they are used to. As such, as Bennett contends, this sort of exposure can be uncomfortable, leading people to retaliate adversely, through hate crimes, terrorism, discrimination, and even warfare, while maintaining ethnocentric stances against this global diversification. Lustig and Koester offer contemporary examples of these obstacles, which can be illustrated on regional levels, such as in the case of the Rwandan Genocide, where the Hutu majority slaughtered almost a million Tutsi peoples, and on global levels, such as in the case of the People’s Republic of China and Japan’s recent conflict over control of the Senkaku Islands or Diaoyu Islands off the coast of mainland China, which has involved the United States in the dispute. The rise of culture clashes and resource control resulting from cultural group
interdependence brings about the importance of peace in international dealings and the importance of intercultural communication effectiveness.

Finally, the interpersonal imperative for intercultural competence combines the above four imperatives to showcase a world that maintains human interactions among culturally different people groups and interaction within multiple cultural frameworks. The interpersonal imperative promotes the need for maintaining competent interpersonal relationships and interpersonal communication so culturally different individuals in this global society can “live, work, play, and communicate harmoniously” (Lustig and Koester 12). If ineffective, adverse consequences result, such as, “human suffering, hatred passed on from one generation to another, disruptions in people’s lives, and unnecessary conflicts that sap people’s creative talents and energies and that siphon off scarce resources from other important societal needs” (Lustig and Koester 12). Although interpersonal relationships may be challenging to form, it is important to consider, understand, and even appreciate cultural differences in order to ensure effective and competent intercultural communication in our day-to-day interpersonal relationships.

When taken individually, each of these bodies of research contribute a unique perspective on how intercultural communication differs from what can be considered normal, monocultural communication and how intercultural communication plays a significant role in today’s world through the demographic, technological, economic, peace, and interpersonal imperatives. The next section will explore the role of language, specifically, verbal language, in intercultural communication.

4.2.3 The Role of Language in Intercultural Communication

As discussed above, intercultural communication plays critical roles in today’s multicultural society. Language, a component of intercultural communication, contains a number
of implicit implications and nuances that certainly contribute to how effective intercultural communication can be for individuals striving to communicate with individuals with different cultural identities. Particularly, the interrelatedness among language, thought, culture, and behavior is important to understand since each language—consisting of unique verbal codes, phonology, morphology, semantics, syntactics, and pragmatics—has a significant role in shaping how humans think, how they practice culture, and how individuals behave.

Benjamin Lee Whorf and Edward Sapir’s Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis of Linguistic Relativity argues how components of a language, such as vocabulary and grammar affect human experience. The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis of Linguistic Relativity promotes that language plays a role in shaping how people think, react, and experience the world although language’s influence is fluid and not deterministic. As Edward Sapir advocated, “Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression for their society…We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation” (12).

The effect of language on how people think and perceive the world, in support of the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis of Linguistic Relativity, can be seen through the variations in vocabulary, cultural conceptions of time, shows of respect and social hierarchy, and the regard for pronouns among languages. Different languages have variations in vocabulary. For example, the Inuktitut Eskimo language contains almost 50 words differentiating types of “snow,” although English speakers may generally just use “snow” as an umbrella term. The fact that the Inuktitut language contains many terms for “snow” reflects what is important for the Eskimo people who speak that language. Similarly, linguistic grammatical structures of language affect
how users organize the world and interpret the world by signaling how individuals describe time, 
show respect and social hierarchy, and regard pronouns. For example, the Hopi language has no 
verb tenses, reinforcing their belief in time as a movement in the stream of life; in contrast, the 
English language has past, present, and future verb tenses, thus causing speakers to regard time 
as a fixed point. Grammar within a language can also indicate shows of respect and social 
hierarchy. The Japanese language allows social distinctions to be made when communicating by 
encouraging certain syntactical structures that allow speakers to honor the listener or humble 
themselves (keigo). In terms of pronouns, the English language is the only language capitalizing 
“I,” yet it does not require the capitalization of “you,” thus implying that individualism is valued 
by English-speaking countries. Clearly, language verbal codes have an effect on how people 
think and respond to the world (Lustig and Koester 164-169).

Along with the above considerations regarding the interconnected of languages and 
experiences, there are alternative versions of a language spoken by people who speak the same 
language, which make it difficult to learn foreign languages. Specifically, there are dialects, 
accents, argot, and jargon used by language speakers. Dialects refer to “versions of a language 
with distinctive vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation that are spoken by particular groups of 
people or within particular regions” (Lustig and Koester 172). As such, for English, there can be 
considered the British-English and Ebonics dialects since these forms of English indicate a 
different version of Standard American English. Accents are “Distinguishable marks of 
pronunciation” and are often related to dialects (Lustig and Koester 173). Jargon is the “set of 
words or terms that are shared by those with a common profession or experience” and argot is 
the “specialized language that is used by a large group within a culture to define the boundaries 
of their group from others who are in a more powerful position in society” (Lustig and Koester
Both of these are specialized forms of vocabulary use and play the roles of allowing in-group members to communicate effectively, although out-group members may not understand what they are saying.

Language, being so multifaceted, plays key roles in intercultural communication. As the world becomes more multicultural and multilingual, those who are able to competently speak, listen, and understand the variety of languages spoken worldwide will be more valued in nearly every facet of society. As such, in preparation of contributing meaningfully to society, people must strive to study a foreign language (or foreign languages) with the goal of becoming proficient, become knowledgeable of other languages, seek to understand those who speak foreign languages while striving to be understood, and show respect to those who struggle with speaking our own native languages. In these ways, we can better live, work, and play in an intercultural world consisting of multiple foreign languages.

The next section will explore how intercultural communication is crucial to understanding the relationship between the United States and Japan.

4.3 The United States, Japan, and Intercultural Communication

4.3.1 US-Japan Relations from a Cultural Context: A Basic Overview of American and Japanese Cultures in Relation to Specific Cultural Taxonomies

In order to understand the fundamental foundations of the American and Japanese cultures, it is important to consider how the basic cultural patterns, “the shared beliefs, values, norms, and social practices that are stable over time and that lead to roughly similar behaviors across similar situations,” differ between the United States and Japan (Lustig and Koester 78). As such, to investigate this difference in cultural patterns, it is important to consider how the American culture and the Japanese culture fall into certain cultural taxonomies, specifically Edward T. Hall’s High and Low-Context Cultural Taxonomy and the GLOBE Cultural
Taxonomy, to understand how specific differences between these two cultures create tensions, misunderstandings, and barriers to effective intercultural communication in the US-Japan relationship. By overcoming these cultural barriers, Japanese language learners are better able to become interculturally competent and have stronger motivations to continue learning the Japanese language.

Edward T. Hall’s High and Low-Context Cultural Taxonomy explains that cultures differ in a continuum that ranges from high to low-context, which affects how a culture uses messages, places importance on in-groups and out-groups, and orients itself to time. Generally, high-context cultures prefer the use of indirect, almost pre-programmed messages. In high-context cultures, the meaning of messages is either implied by the physical environment or is presumed to be part of the individuals’ implicit cultural patterns. High-context cultures generally place a strong importance of in-groups and out-groups, since the commitments and loyalties between group members are emphasized over individual concerns. In terms of orientation to time, high-context cultures are generally more open and not constrained by external circumstances. Low-context cultures, on the other hand, emphasize the use of direct messages that are plain and explicit. Low-context cultures favor less commitment and loyalty to relationships among people and value the individual’s responsibility to oneself. Finally, time is highly organized in low-context cultures. A concise table showing the differences between high-context and low-context cultures can be seen in Figure 19 (Hall).
Under Hall’s High and Low-Context Cultural Taxonomy, it is generally understood by scholars that the Japanese culture ranks as an overall high-context culture, whereas the American culture ranks as an overall low-context culture. Rieko Maruta Richardson and Sandi W. Smith tested this assumption in the paper “Developmental Themes in Japanese-North American Interpersonal Relationships.” Richardson and Smith write, “The assumption that Japan and the US are considered to be higher and lower context cultures, respectively, has been widely accepted, but there are only a few studies in which this assumption was statistically tested. The result [of the study we performed] is noteworthy as the assumptions were statistically confirmed with a scale that is consistent with the original unidimensional conceptualization of [high-context/low-context] culture” (Richardson and Smith). As the United States and Japan rank as opposites in this cultural taxonomy, these differences can lead to tensions in the US-Japan relationship if not understood and addressed properly when engaging in intercultural communication.
The GLOBE Cultural Taxonomy, also known as Project GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness), was created by Robert J. House and a team of over 170 investigators. The GLOBE Cultural Taxonomy builds upon the five cultural dimensions laid out in Geert Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions Taxonomy, a common and renowned taxonomy often used by anthropologists and social psychologists alike, to create a more inclusive framework to examine the cultural patterns of various cultures by adding four more cultural dimensions. These dimensions are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, performance orientation, future orientation, and humane orientation. Each dimension is ranked in a continuum from -250 to 250, with a negative value indicating a low score for the dimension and a positive value indicating a high score for the dimension. A detailed table listing each cultural dimension, characteristics of each dimension, and sample items of each dimension can be found in Figure 20.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Power Distance</th>
<th>The degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty Avoidance</td>
<td>The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humane Orientation</td>
<td>The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism I (Institutional)</td>
<td>The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism II (In-Group)</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationships with others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Egalitarianism</td>
<td>The degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Orientation</td>
<td>The extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviors such as delaying gratification, planning, and investing in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Orientation</td>
<td>The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Robert J. House

Figure 20 The GLOBE Cultural Taxonomy
Note: “A large positive score means that the culture is high on that dimension. A large negative score means that the culture is low on that dimension. The average score is zero. Ratings are standardized scores, with the decimal point omitted. For the Gender Egalitarianism dimension, a large positive score means that the cultural value is feminine. A large negative score means that the cultural value is masculine. A score of zero indicates egalitarianism.”

Source: Myron Lustig and Jolene Koester

Table 4 How the United States and Japan Ranks in the GLOBE Cultural Taxonomy

As seen in Table 4, the United States and Japan differ in many ways when comparing the two countries’ cultures in the GLOBE Cultural Taxonomy. Notable differences include Japan’s astronomical value of 222 in the “Institutional Collectivism” dimension, whereas the United States scores a value of negative 11. These values show that in general, Japanese culture values collectivism much more so than that of the United States. Additionally, the United States scores a high 111 in “Assertiveness,” though Japan scores a negative value of 147. These values indicate how American culture is more confrontational and aggressive, while Japanese culture is on the opposite end of the spectrum showing less assertiveness. As both Japan and the United States rank with low negative values in “Uncertainty Avoidance,” negative 15 and negative 2 respectively, it can be said that both Japan and the United States are generally less reliant on social norms and rules to avoid uncertainty and more attune to tolerating uncertainty than other countries.

Understanding cultural differences and making soft conclusions like those above allows individuals within the United States and Japan to have keen knowledge when dealing with and approaching members of the other culture. Although the classifications made in each taxonomy
may be true for a culture at a societal level, it is important to note that individuals within a
culture may differ slightly or significantly based on internal and external factors such as the
individual’s personality, upbringing, and so on.

As Sandra Sudweeks, William B. Gudykunst, Stella Ting-Toomey, and Tsukasa Nishida contend, “Knowledge of the cultural differences between Japanese and [American] styles of relationship initiation, for example, could assist a[n] [American] to accommodate to the Japanese’s emphasis on a common shared social network or background similarities, rather than the…American style of pursuing friendships through common interests in social activities. Similarly, an understanding of the differences between direct and indirect communication styles could allow a Japanese to develop the knowledge of when and how to use more direct approaches to facilitate relationship communication with…Americans. Being able to develop compensatory communication strategies allows partners to transcend linguistic limitations and minimize the perception of cultural differences as problematic in intercultural relationships” (Sudweeks, Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, and Nishida 229). By striving to understand the cultural differences between the American and Japanese cultures, intercultural communication can be fostered more effectively through cultural knowledge and sensitivity. Japanese language learning students who become more culturally aware can be motivated to become effective intercultural communicators, therefore solidifying more potential career paths and boosting employability.

4.3.2 US-Japan Relations from a Historical Context

When viewed from a historical perspective, it is clear to see that Japan and the United States have shared a turbulent relationship. From the time that the United States opened up Japan to foreign influences in 1854, a time when beforehand Japan maintained over 200 years of self-
 imposed isolation, Japan and the United States engaged in a series of diplomatic and trade efforts
that persisted until World War II. Before the outbreak of full-on war beginning with Japan’s attack on Pearl Harbor, Japan and the United States were allied with Great Britain and France in World War I against the Central Powers after 1914, with Japan enjoying strong relations with the Western powers. However, by 1931, Japan underwent self-strengthening policies in order to become a regional hegemon in the East Asia-Pacific region and gain economic control of the region. In order to accomplish these goals and glean an abundance of natural resources that fueled its expansionist efforts, Japan attacked China to gain control of Manchuria, an area of Chinese land between Korea and Russia. The United States refused to diplomatically acknowledge Japan’s annexation of Manchuria, but threatened no military retaliation, especially since Japan and the United States continued to engage in lucrative trade of oil and other commodities. Beginning in 1937, Japan went to war with China, and performed aggressive actions like the “Rape of Nanking,” which ultimately appalled Americans who felt that the Japanese people violated human rights. It was not until 1939 that the United States acted on Japan’s aggression against China, cutting trade ties with Japan and finalizing a complete embargo on resources to Japan in July of 1941. A few months later, in December of 1941, Japan retaliated by sending the Japanese navy to attack Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, the Philippines, and other bases belonging to the United States and other Western powers in the Pacific (Jones).

The attack on Pearl Harbor prompted the United States and its allies to declare war on Japan. Many battles took place and many casualties resulted; by 1942, Japan occupied the Philippines, the Dutch East Indies, Burma, and Malaya as it continued to seize other Pacific islands. The United States retaliated by using the military strategy “island-hopping” to cut Japanese resources and support. By 1944, the United States began fire-bombing strategies on Japanese cities, which entailed United States airplanes dropping fire bombs all around key
Japanese cities like Tokyo, which in effect burned out all of the oxygen in the city and suffocated the civilians residing in the city. In August of 1945, the United States dropped two atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Soon after, Emperor Hirohito surrendered and all Japanese military and naval forces disbanded and ceased war efforts. By the time the new constitution came into effect in 1947, and Japan signed the Treaty of San Francisco on September 8th, 1951, an estimated three million total civilian and military deaths would be counted on the Japan’s side and an estimated 419,000 total civilian and military deaths would be counted on the United States’ side, thus concluding World War II (“By the Numbers: World-wide Deaths”) (“Japan Profile – Timeline”).

A strong Japanese-American relationship was once again incepted and developed from 1945 until 1960 in the postwar era. In this time period, Japan aimed to reemerge as an independent nation guided by United States policymaking to ensure liberal democratic ideals and postwar peace would last in the region. However, with the onslaught of the Cold War in 1947, the United States attempted to change its definition of stability by shifting policy in Japan toward military security and conservative political consolidation within Japan, as security issues were at the forefront of concern for the United States. Article nine of Japan’s new constitution, for example, made it illegal for Japan to have an army that is capable of offensive action, but allowed Japan to maintain a self-defense force. Policies such as article nine aggravated the US-Japan relationship and contributed to increased tensions, which threatened the stability of the US-Japan relationship. However, by 1957, United States policymakers adapted to Japanese concerns and pushed policies that would “ensure Japan’s voluntary alignment with the United States…[which] resulted in the successful maintenance of the relationship to the present day” (Miller ii-iii). Thereafter, the United States and Japan began mutual efforts to ensure a
relationship that proved both stable, profitable, and ultimately fostered cooperation between these two nations into the present day. Students who are aware of the history between the two nations and are cognizant of the historical memory at play between the US and Japan generally make for better intercultural communicators. As such, students learning the Japanese language could be motivated to examine the US-Japan relationship through a historical lens as this, like the cultural context, provides a more nuanced examination of the US-Japan bilateral alliance, boosts the employability of students by making them better intercultural communicators, and opens up more career paths into career-related spheres such as international diplomacy and policy-making (Miller).

### 4.3.3 Significant Implications of the US-Japan Relationship

Despite the United States and Japan’s cultural differences and tempestuous history, the United States and Japan share a mutually prosperous relationship that has lasted since the post-war era. In today’s contemporary day, the United States and Japan are engaged in a partnership based on economic prosperity through trade, strong diplomatic efforts, and shared values. As the Bureau of East Asian and Pacific Affairs in the U.S. Department of State contends, “The U.S.-Japan Alliance is the cornerstone of U.S. security interests in Asia and is fundamental to regional stability and prosperity. The Alliance is based on shared vital interests and values, including: the maintenance of stability in the Asia-Pacific region; the preservation and promotion of political and economic freedoms; support for human rights and democratic institutions; and, the expansion of prosperity for the people of both countries and the international community as a whole” (“U.S. Relations With Japan”). In order to maintain, preserve, and strengthen this relationship, however, intercultural communication between the United States and Japan needs to be present and emphasized.
Steven K. Vogel, Associate Professor of Political Science at the University of California, Berkeley, argues that while the United States exerts global leadership, Japan plays a smaller role despite its economic and technological prowess. Although the San Francisco system established by the signing of the San Francisco Treaty back in September 8th, 1951, has persisted into the present day, the United States is “losing its grip over the relationship” and the system will likely crumble under various pressures in the future that will change the regional balance of power in this bilateral relationship (Vogel 2). Factors such as dissatisfaction that the United States and Japan continue to “maintain an unequal security alliance, American military bases remain in Japan, and Japan defers to the United States on many foreign policy issues” have sparked tension for the Japanese population since Japanese independence and sovereignty becomes questioned by other nations and even the Japanese civil population (Vogel 2). As such, it has become increasingly necessary to have people who are interculturally competent in US-Japan relations in the face of these pressures, especially in the fields of foreign policy, domestic politics, media, international organizations, finance, technology, the balance of power, and economic performance to guarantee a strong bilateral relationship between the United States and Japan going into the future.

In favor of having US-Japan intercultural experts is Gerald Curtis, Professor of Political Science at Columbia University, who in support of Vogel’s assertions, argues that “It goes without saying that the US-Japan alliance has to rest on a strong political and economic base and draw the interest and attention of leaders and publics in both countries” (9). Curtis fears that the United States mass media and businesses have placed less attention on Japan, which, he feels, should be considered a serious concern. Although the widespread perception in Japan that fewer young Americans have an interest in Japan is misplaced, Curtis comments on the fact that few
college students plan to be Japan specialists, and instead, “in college, …want to learn more about Japan, not to become a specialist, but in a sense to become a well-rounded, educated human being” (12). Curtis claims that students’ wishes to become well-rounded can be considered similar to how few Americans strive to become British economy or French politics experts yet are still interested in Europe. Though the “overall trend in interest in Japan among young Americans is a healthy one,” Curtis insists that the United States desperately need a core of Japan specialists in light of the debate over Japan’s changing security policy with the US-Alliance and that the fact that “few American students are pursuing PhDs that involve Japan” is worrisome (12). Overall Curtis contends that there is a need for individuals to effectively engage in intercultural communication between the United States and Japan and a need to increase exposure of the Japanese language and culture to Americans.

On April 28, 2015, current Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe met with American President Barack Obama to announce a strategic joint vision statement for the two allies regarding security, trade, and historical reconciliation. Abe’s visit to the White House was the first official visit to the United States by a Japanese leader in nine years. This recent development in US-Japan relations allowed the two nations to remember and reflect on the end of World War II, since the 70th anniversary would soon take place afterward, and celebrate the achievements of the US-Japan bilateral alliance. As Michael Green and Nicholas Szechenyi remark on this watershed, “the summit demonstrated how the two governments are aligned strategically and therefore well positioned to shape the contours of security and prosperity in Asia and continue upholding rules and norms that govern the international system” 1). Although this achievement is undoubtedly a positive in the diplomatic relationship between the United States and Japan, considering the challenges the Abe government will face in steering security
legislation through the Diet and the raucous political landscape characterizing the United States, along with growing concerns about China’s potential ideals to become a regional hegemon in the Asia-Pacific region and Japanese restlessness at the nation’s inability to truly govern its own military force, the US-Japan relationship remains strained and fragile. As such, on America’s side, individuals who are motivated to become effective intercultural communicators and even know the Japanese language and culture are incontrovertibly extremely valuable in keeping the US-Japan bilateral alliance mutually beneficial and considerably strong going into the future.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Conclusion

This paper aimed to determine if there are any specific motivational factors contributing to why students at the University of Nevada, Reno choose to study and choose to continue studying the Japanese language over other foreign languages. Next, it established a direct link between continuing motivational factors for Japanese language learning and students’ future career goals through a statistical analysis. Finally, this paper discussed how Japanese language learning has the potential to contribute significantly to nurturing US-Japan relations through the fostering of competent intercultural communication between the United States and Japan. The data discussed in this study were taken from results from a survey given to 63 Japanese language learning students at the University of Nevada, Reno who were in second year Japanese language classes or higher.

In terms of initial motivational factors, the overwhelming majority of students surveyed at the University of Nevada, Reno (77.8 percent) developed an interest in the Japanese language and culture during their post-pubescent years following elementary school, with 84.1 percent of the total students crediting this interest to “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.),” and “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.).” This statistic is significant in the sense that it can be concluded that exposure to Japan’s culture and the Japanese language during middle school, high school, and college causes students to become intrinsically motivated to begin studies of the Japanese language, despite the inherent difficulties uniquely associated with Japanese second language acquisition (SLA) for native English speakers. In this way, Japanese language teachers and professors in secondary and post-secondary institutions hoping to increase enrollment in their classes may find it beneficial to
create advertisements that emphasize the Japanese culture and the Japanese language to motivate students to begin studying the Japanese language.

When examining motivations to continue learning the Japanese language for Japanese language learners, for the sample of students at the University of Nevada, Reno, generally among the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels, the top three continuing motivational factors were “Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.),” “Future career goals,” and “Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.).” Comparing initial and continuing motivational factors, it can be concluded that many students who were initially motivated to study the Japanese language because of cultural exposure continue to study the Japanese language because they are interested in the Japanese language, resulting perhaps from its embedded linguistic qualities, and because they see value in using the Japanese language for their future career goals. Of course, this shift in thinking can be attributed to the fact that almost three-quarters (68.2 percent) of the students are of upper-class standing and are more prone to be thinking about future career aspirations, but the shift is more significant in the sense that Japanese language teachers can better tailor their curricula to emphasize implicit nuances of the Japanese language that are unique compared to English and provide material amply exhibiting how the Japanese language can be used to provide an increased number of employment opportunities, given that the students continue to be career-oriented.

As seen in Chapter 3, although there was no direct link between foreign language learning motivation and future career goals established by existing literature in the field, there were many indirect links established through the studying abroad, reaping cognitive benefits as a means to increase employability, experiencing global ideas, and seizing the opportunity to enter newer academic disciplines contexts. The hypothesis test performed on Language Question 7 in
Appendix II shows at the University of Nevada, Reno, there is a direct link between Japanese language continuing motivational factors and future career goals. We can say at 95 percent certainty there is a statistically significant link at the primary and tertiary motivation levels, but not the secondary motivation level. The implications of this result suggest that, in general, students’ motivations to learn foreign languages may be tied to students’ future career aspirations.

As suggested by this paper, many benefits can be gleaned from Japanese language learning for Americans, especially when considering the globalization of nearly all facets of life. Learning the Japanese language over other foreign languages allows students to become competent in intercultural communication between the United States and Japan, thus solidifying the US-Japan relationship in a time when the US-Japan bilateral alliance is shaky and uncertain, but mutually beneficial and desirable. In this way, students who are motivated to learn the Japanese language are almost guaranteed a boost to employability since these Japanese language learning students are universally and invariably exposed more so than the general student to Japanese culture and history, which affords Japanese language learning students more career opportunities. Those individuals who are competent in fostering effective intercultural communication between the United States and Japan will be needed in everything from security and economic policy to domestic policies and media.
APPENDIX I: RESEARCH SURVEY

Survey Title: Motivations for Japanese Language Learning
* Required

Consent Form (Page 1 of 4)
We are conducting a research study to learn about what motivation factors contribute to why students chose to learn, and why students are continuing to learn, Japanese in comparison to other languages. We also hope to establish if a link exists between students’ motivations behind studying Japanese and their future career goals.

If you volunteer to be in this study, you will be asked to take a short, anonymous survey consisting of four demographic questions, 10 language-related questions, and 10 career-related questions. Please answer these questions honestly and to the best of your ability.

Your participation should take about five to ten minutes.

This study is considered to be minimal risk of harm. This means the risks of your participation in the research are similar in type or intensity to what you encounter during your daily activities. You may experience relative emotional discomfort in having to think about your future career path. Even if you have not solidified a definite career goal, please consider what you generally want to do in the future and be honest in your answers.

Benefits of doing research are not definite; but we hope to learn about what motivates students to continue learning Japanese and if there is a definite link to students’ future career goals in studying Japanese. There are no direct benefits to you in this study activity.

The researchers and the University of Nevada, Reno will treat your identity and the information collected about you with professional standards of confidentiality and protect it to the extent allowed by law. You will not be personally identified in any reports or publications that may result from this study. The US Department of Health and Human Services, the University of Nevada, Reno Research Integrity Office, and the Institutional Review Board may look at your study records.

You may ask questions of the researcher at any time by calling Jordan Bauzon at (702) 927-1474 or by sending an email to jordanbauzon@nevada.unr.edu.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may stop at any time. Declining to participate or stopping your participation will not have any negative effects on your grade in JPN 212, JPN 305, or JPN 309.

You may ask about your rights as a research participant. If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about this research, you may report them (anonymously if you so choose) by calling the University of Nevada, Reno Research Integrity Office at 775.327.2368.

Thank you for your participation in this study!
Demographic Questions *(Page 2 of 4)*
Please be honest and answer the questions to the best of your ability.

What is your age? *
(Years old)
- 17 and below
- 18
- 19
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23
- 24
- 25 and above

What is your gender? *
- Male
- Female

What is your ethnicity? *
- White/Caucasian
- Hispanic
- Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
- Black/African American
- Asian
- American Indian/Alaska Native
- Multiracial

What is your class standing? *
(In terms of credits)
- Freshman (0-30 credits)
- Sophomore (31-60 credits)
- Junior (61-90 credits)
- Senior (91-120 credits)
- Super Senior (121+ credits)
Language Questions (Page 3 of 4)
Please be honest and answer the questions to the best of your ability.

1. Generally, when did you develop an interest in the Japanese language or culture? *
   - Before elementary school
   - Elementary school
   - Middle school
   - High school
   - College

2. What was the primary factor motivating this interest? *
   (Please choose your number one motivation)
   - Racial background/Immediate family of Japanese descent
   - Extended family of Japanese descent
   - Japanese friends/acquaintances
   - Demographics of city currently resided in
   - Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.)
   - Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.)

3. When was your first Japanese language class? *
   - Before high school
   - High school
   - Freshman year in college
   - Sophomore year in college

4. What is your primary motivating factor for taking this class? *
   - Racial background/Immediate family of Japanese descent
   - Extended family of Japanese descent
   - Japanese friends/acquaintances
   - Demographics of city currently resided in
   - Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.)
   - Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.)
   - Future career goals
   - Specific class reasons (e.g. class is challenging, types of assignments given, etc.)
   - Professor reasons (e.g. feedback, teaching style, etc.)

What is your secondary motivating factor for taking this class? *
   - *Same options as above.*

What is your tertiary motivating factor for taking this class? *
   - *Same options as above.*

5. What Japanese language class(es) are you currently taking this semester? *
   (If not listed, please choose "other")
   - JPN 211
   - JPN 305
   - JPN 309
   - Other: *(fill in)*
6. Are you pursuing a Japanese minor? (Must be declared)*
   • Yes
   • No

7. What is your primary motivation for continued Japanese studies? *
   (Why do you choose to continue studying Japanese?)
   • Racial background/Immediate family of Japanese descent
   • Extended family of Japanese descent
   • Japanese friends/acquaintances
   • Demographics of city currently resided in
   • Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.)
   • Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.)
   • Future career goals
   • Specific class reasons (e.g. class is challenging, types of assignments given, etc.)
   • Professor reasons (e.g. feedback, teaching style, etc.)

What is your secondary motivation for continued Japanese studies? *
   • Same options as above

What is your tertiary motivation for continued Japanese studies? *
   • Same options as above

8. Do you plan to complete or are currently completing both of the 3rd year Japanese language classes (JPN 305 and JPN 306)? *
   • Yes
   • No

9. If yes, do you plan to continue studying Japanese after the completion of these classes? *
   • Yes
   • No
   • Choose this option if you chose "no" in response to question 8

10. If yes, what would you say are the top three motivating factors for you in continuing your Japanese language studies? *
    (Please choose your number one motivation)
    • Choose this option if you chose "no" in response to question 8
    • Wish to travel abroad to Japan for study abroad purposes (undergraduate or graduate)
    • Wish to travel abroad to Japan for leisure purposes
    • Wish to work abroad in Japan in the future
    • Wish to become fluent in the language
    • Parents/family are making me learn
    • Interest in Japanese media (anime, manga, etc.)
    • Interest in other Japanese cultural factors (fashion, music, karate, etc.)
    • Interest in the Japanese language

    (Please choose your number two motivation)
    • Same options as above.

    (Please choose your number three motivation)
    • Same options as above.
Career Questions (Page 4 of 4)
Please be honest and answer the questions to the best of your ability.

1. What is your major? *
   (If double or triple majoring, please write all of your majors)
   - (Fill-in)

What college at the University of Nevada, Reno does your major fall under? *
   (If double or triple majoring, please choose all the colleges involved)
   - College of Agriculture, Biotechnology, and Natural Resources
   - College of Business
   - College of Education
   - College of Engineering
   - College of Liberal Arts
   - College of Science
   - Division of Health Sciences
   - Reynolds School of Journalism
   - Other: (Fill-in)

2. When is (was) your anticipated graduation date? *
   - Fall 2012
   - Spring 2013
   - Fall 2013
   - Spring 2014
   - Fall 2014
   - Spring 2015
   - Fall 2015
   - Spring 2016
   - Fall 2016
   - Spring 2017
   - Fall 2017
   - Spring 2018
   - Fall 2018
   - Spring 2019
   - Fall 2019
   - Spring 2020
   - Fall 2020
   - Spring 2021
   - Other: (Fill-in)

3. What is your immediate post-graduation goal? *
   - Full-time job
   - Graduate school
   - Travel
   - Gap year
   - Other: (Fill-in)

4. Do you plan to achieve this immediate goal by going to Japan? *
   - Yes
   - No

5. Do you think you will use the Japanese language for this immediate goal? *
   - Yes
   - No

6. Why or why not do you think this? *
   (Please be as specific as possible)
   - (Fill-in)

7. What is your ideal post-graduation goal (e.g. after five years)? *
   - Full-time job
   - Graduate school
   - Pursue Master's degree
   - Pursue PhD
   - Unemployed
   - Travel
   - Other: (Fill-in)
8. Do you plan to achieve this ideal goal by going to Japan? *
   - Yes
   - No

9. Do you think you will use the Japanese language for this ideal goal? *
   - Yes
   - No

10. Why or why not do you think this? *
    (Please be as specific as possible)
    - (Fill-in)
APPENDIX II: RESEARCH SURVEY RESULTS

Demographic Questions

What is your age? (63 responses)

What is your gender? (63 responses)

What is your ethnicity? (63 responses)

What is your class standing? (63 responses)
1. Generally, when did you develop an interest in the Japanese language or culture? (63 responses)

![Pie chart showing distribution of responses](chart1.png)

2. What was the primary factor motivating this interest? (63 responses)

![Pie chart showing distribution of responses](chart2.png)

3. When was your first Japanese language class? (63 responses)

![Pie chart showing distribution of responses](chart3.png)
4. What is your primary motivating factor for taking this class?

- Racial background/Immediate family of Japanese descent: 6 (9.6%)
- Extended family of Japanese descent: 0 (0%)
- Japanese friends/acquaintances: 0 (0%)
- Demographics of city currently resided in: 0 (0%)
- Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.): 17 (27%)
- Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.): 27 (42.6%)
- Future career goals: 11 (17.5%)
- Specific class reasons (e.g. class is challenging, types of assignments given, etc.): 1 (1.6%)
- Professor reasons (e.g. feedback, teaching style, etc.): 1 (1.6%)

5. What Japanese language class(es) are you currently taking this semester?

- JPN 211: 45 (71.4%)
- JPN 305: 18 (28.6%)
- JPN 309: 4 (6.3%)
- Other: 0 (0%)

6. Are you pursuing a Japanese minor?

- Yes: 41 (65.1%)
- No: 22 (34.9%)
7. What is your primary motivation for continued Japanese studies?

- Racial background/Immediate family of Japanese descent: 4 (6.3%)
- Extended family of Japanese descent: 1 (1.6%)
- Japanese friends/acquaintances: 1 (1.6%)
- Demographics of city currently resided in: 0 (0%)
- Cultural exposure (anime, manga, pop culture, karate, history, etc.): 9 (14.3%)
- Interest in the Japanese language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.): 25 (39.7%)
- Future career goals: 20 (31.7%)
- Specific class reasons (e.g., class is challenging, types of assignments given, etc.): 1 (1.6%)
- Professor reasons (e.g., feedback, teaching style, etc.): 2 (3.2%)

8. Do you plan to complete or are currently completing both of the 3rd year Japanese language classes (JPN 305 and JPN 306)?

- Yes: 50 (79.4%)
- No: 13 (20.6%)

9. If yes, do you plan to continue studying Japanese after the completion of these classes?

- Yes: 51 (81%)
- No: 0 (0%)
- Choose this option if you chose “no” in response to question 8: 12 (19%)
10. If yes, what would you say are the top three motivating factors for you in continuing your Japanese language studies?

Choose this option if you chose "no" in response to question 8
- Wish to travel abroad to Japan for study abroad purposes (undergraduate or graduate) 9 14.3%
- Wish to travel abroad to Japan for leisure purposes 4 6.3%
- Wish to work abroad in Japan in the future 11 17.5%
- Wish to become fluent in the language 22 34.9%
- Parents/family are making me learn 0 0%
- Interest in Japanese media (anime, manga, etc.) 1 1.6%
- Interest in other Japanese cultural factors (fashion, music, karate, etc.) 4 6.3%
- Interest in the Japanese language 3 4.8%

Choose this option if you chose "no" in response to question 8
- Wish to travel abroad to Japan for study abroad purposes (undergraduate or graduate) 11 17.5%
- Wish to travel abroad to Japan for leisure purposes 9 14.3%
- Wish to work abroad in Japan in the future 7 11.1%
- Wish to become fluent in the language 10 15.9%
- Parents/family are making me learn 0 0%
- Interest in Japanese media (anime, manga, etc.) 7 11.1%
- Interest in other Japanese cultural factors (fashion, music, karate, etc.) 3 4.8%
- Interest in the Japanese language 7 11.1%

Choose this option if you chose "no" in response to question 8
- Wish to travel abroad to Japan for study abroad purposes (undergraduate or graduate) 6 9.5%
- Wish to travel abroad to Japan for leisure purposes 6 9.5%
- Wish to work abroad in Japan in the future 11 17.5%
- Wish to become fluent in the language 6 9.5%
- Parents/family are making me learn 1 1.6%
- Interest in Japanese media (anime, manga, etc.) 10 15.9%
- Interest in other Japanese cultural factors (fashion, music, karate, etc.) 7 11.1%
- Interest in the Japanese language 11 17.5%
Career Questions

1. What is your major?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Major</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>Computer Science and Engineering</td>
<td>International Business and International Relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>Computer Science and Engineering</td>
<td>International Business Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>Criminal Justice</td>
<td>Journalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>Criminal Justice</td>
<td>Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology/International affairs</td>
<td>Digital media</td>
<td>Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology-Archaeology</td>
<td>Digital Media</td>
<td>Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Eng education</td>
<td>Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art, focus on Digital Media</td>
<td>English - Writing</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bach. Music Performance</td>
<td>Environmental engineering</td>
<td>Mechanical engineering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Arts, Mathematics</td>
<td>Environmental engineering</td>
<td>MMI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Arts, Mathematics</td>
<td>Environmental engineering</td>
<td>Music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biology</td>
<td>Environmental Science</td>
<td>Music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>Fine Art</td>
<td>Neuroscience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>HDFS</td>
<td>Physics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Political science. International affair master</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>I am in high school</td>
<td>Pre-Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>International affairs</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>International Affairs</td>
<td>Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>International Affairs</td>
<td>Theatre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer science</td>
<td>International Business</td>
<td>Theatre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science and Engineering</td>
<td>International Business</td>
<td>Undeclared</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What college at the University of Nevada, Reno does your major fall under?

![Bar chart showing college distribution](chart.png)

| College of Agriculture, Biotechnology, and Natural Resources | 1 | 1.6% |
| College of Business                                           | 6 | 9.5% |
| College of Education                                           | 3 | 4.8% |
| College of Engineering                                         | 11| 17.5%|
| College of Liberal Arts                                        | 30| 47.5%|
| College of Science                                             | 7 | 11.1%|
| Division of Health Sciences                                    | 0 | 0%   |
| Reynolds School of Journalism                                  | 1 | 1.6% |
| Other                                                          | 5 | 7.9% |
2. When is (was) your anticipated graduation date?

- Fall 2012: 0 (0%)
- Spring 2013: 0 (0%)
- Fall 2013: 0 (0%)
- Spring 2014: 0 (0%)
- Fall 2014: 0 (0%)
- Spring 2015: 0 (0%)
- Fall 2015: 1 (1.6%)
- Spring 2016: 10 (15.9%)
- Fall 2016: 2 (3.2%)
- Spring 2017: 18 (28.6%)
- Fall 2017: 4 (6.3%)
- Spring 2018: 18 (28.6%)
- Fall 2018: 4 (6.3%)
- Spring 2019: 3 (4.8%)
- Fall 2019: 0 (0%)
- Spring 2020: 1 (1.6%)
- Fall 2020: 0 (0%)
- Spring 2021: 1 (1.6%)
- Other: 1 (1.6%)

3. What is your immediate post-graduation goal?

- Full-time job: 22 (34.9%)
- Graduate school: 12 (19%)
- Travel: 18 (28.6%)
- Gap year: 5 (7.9%)
- Other: 6 (9.5%)

4. Do you plan to achieve this immediate goal by going to Japan?

- Yes: 38 (60.3%)
- No: 25 (39.7%)

5. Do you think you will use the Japanese language for this immediate goal?

- Yes: 52 (82.5%)
- No: 11 (17.5%)
6. Why or why not do you think this?

1. I plan to make Japanese translations of art (e.g., comics) and software.
2. Because I will be living in Washington state to establish residency for a year before continuing grad school, I do not anticipate going to Japan or using the language unless I join the Jet program.
3. In order to travel in the country, I need to understand the language. I also want to be able to experience the culture without looking like a tourist.
4. Life is life baby. I have no clue what's going on but I'm here and riding the tide to victory, most likely using Japanese on the way.
5. I have always like the Japanese language and culture, so I really want to travel there to see it for myself. If I got to Japan I will definitely need my language skills.
6. I plan on traveling around Asia for a time after I graduate. I also want to spend a large amount of time in Japan.
7. I plan to travel to Japan so knowledge of the Japanese language is very important.
8. Because I want to go to Japan.
9. I can incorporate the language into some of my art and also maybe get my name out in Japanese art.
10. It will help me on my travels and studies abroad.
11. My goal is the evolution of military tactics and weaponry through the ages. Japan is on of few isolated cases in the world whose tactics not only adopted new technology quickly but also had a drastic effect on their culture both positively and negatively. Knowing and understanding the language helps me to better do my own research and be able to collect data.
12. I will get an engineering job in the US.
13. I'm a game developer. In order to make my games a success, it helps to have localization efforts in as many languages as possible. If I can translate to Japanese, that is a large game market I can potentially enter.
14. Because it will help me connect in med school.
15. Because I love Japanese media culture and business and I would need to become proficient in speaking the language to achieve my goals.
16. I want to be able to travel with my group of friends in Japan. I will use Japanese to communicate and navigate my way around Japan.
17. Japanese isn't necessary to obtain a masters degree in my particular field.
18. To communicate.
19. It would be very applicable for the field I want to go into.
20. I wanna go to Japan.
21. Linguistics requires the study of language and so any experience in another language helps.
22. I wish to be self proficient in any country I wish to visit. Since going to Japan is very important to me I want to be able to speak and understand the language very well.
23. I would like to work for the JET program one year, so continuing my study in Japanese will help me achieve this goal.
24. I'm technically in CSE, but I plan to change majors and I also plan to transfer soon. The only direction I have for my future is the fact that I want to go to Japan. I'm hoping that exposing myself to more of my hobbies and interests will help me understand what I want for my future.
25. A job just used for obtaining money most likely will not require Japanese language.
26. Learning Japanese will greatly help in my pursuit to work in Japan.
27. If I go to Japan I want to speak Japanese.
28. I am applying to the JET Program, so if all goes well I will be living and working in Japan after I graduate.
29. I plan to perform internationally as a musician, which could include Japanese-speaking regions.
30. I plan to apply to Jet program as well as alternatives and smaller programs. I think teaching in Japan is what I want to do.
31. Having a proficiency in another language helps admittance into graduate schools.
32. I plan to move to Japan.
33. Because you have to speak Japanese in Japan, it'll help better the experience.
34. Unless I am fortunate enough to be selected for someone work abroad program or Japanese company, I anticipate my 1st post college to located in the United States.
35. Feels niche.
36. I'm in 305 for the sole purpose of traveling to Japan for a month after I graduate this December.
37. I would love to go to a Japanese graduate school for my field if possible.
38. I want to prove that I can speak Japanese to gain an edge to pursue my job. It will prove that I am different then I will have a better chance of getting my job to show that I am diverse. I want to become a detective.

39. I want to take a year off to recuperate before I start grad school. During that year I would like to go to Japan, specifically to experience the fine arts such as Kabuki, Noh and Bunraku.

40. Have to work in the usa to gain experience first.

41. Computer science does not require Japanese language as the major itself acts as a whole new language (C programming language).

42. Knowing another language will hopefully set me apart enough to appear more attractive to employers as well as possibly helping me set up business opportunities in Japan as well.

43. I plan on going to medical school which doesn't require Japanese.

44. Grad schools in the US are not taught in Japanese.

45. I hope to teach English through the JET program.

46. I want to teach in Japan.

47. In order to participate in the JET Program, Japanese is needed.

48. Bucket list priority.

49. After graduating I hope to work as a business man in Japan.

50. Because I would like to take my gap year in Japan.

51. Studying Asia in international affairs

52. I wish to join the JET program in Japan.

53. If it works out, I will be working at a Japanese school, which may involve interacting extensively with students and translating documents.

54. I am applying to teach English in Japan through JET. I am also applying for internships abroad with the US State Department and the CIA.

55. I have the intention of applying for English teaching jobs immediately after my studies here—like the JET program.

56. Knowing another language (especially Japanese) in the technology field is a very large benefit. While I may not use the language itself, I will certainly use it as a resume booster.

57. My intention is to have my own Aikido Dojo one day, and pursuing the study of the language will give me better insight to the culture, therfore better help me transfer Aikido to my future students.

58. I plan on attaining a master's degree that involves fluency in the language.

59. I plan to go into the jet program. That is my ultimate goal.

60. I know my minor will definitely make me look more appealing to employers which is one of the reasons why I'm studying Japanese. I'm hoping to work for a company that partners up with Japan -as well as other countries- that will allow me to travel to Japan for business and leisure trips. I don't think I need to be in Japan to find a job that allows me to do so if that makes sense.

61. While I find the language and culture interesting it is not something I think will have a direct impact on my graduate studies and I think it will be something I apply more once I am out working full time.
7. What is your ideal post-graduation goal (e.g. after five years)?

- Full-time job: 33 (52.4%)
- Graduate school: 8 (12.7%)
- Pursue Master's degree: 3 (4.8%)
- Pursue PhD: 9 (14.3%)
- Unemployed: 0 (0%)
- Travel: 4 (6.3%)
- Other: 6 (9.5%)

8. Do you plan to achieve this ideal goal by going to Japan?

- Yes: 29 (46%)
- No: 34 (54%)

9. Do you think you will use the Japanese language for this ideal goal?

- Yes: 45 (71.4%)
- No: 18 (28.6%)
10. Why or why not do you think this?

1. I plan to make Japanese translations of art (eg comics) and software.
2. Because I want to teach English in Japan
3. Japan is one of the places I want to most travel to, and knowing some degree of Japanese would be helpful!
4. Engineering does not necessarily require Japanese to succeed.
5. Like I said previously, my goal would be to work under the JET program for a year, so learning Japanese will be essentially to obtaining future jobs in Japan.
6. I hope to become a professor for International Affairs related courses concerning Asia or more specifically Japan.
7. Same as above
8. Because I'm going to grad school for Forensic Anthropology
9. Because I want to go to Japan
10. Since Japan is a fairly advanced country in certain technological aspects I think that being able to speak the language and understand some of the culture I would be useful in possible interactions between my company and a Japanese company.
11. I might still be residing in the United States at that time.
12. Use Japanese in my art and possibly have some say in game design and possibly developing something specifically for the Japanese community
13. I don't think I'll be working in an area with Japanese demographic.
14. Japanese will make me look more appealing to employers
15. As said above, knowing another language will hopefully set me apart.
16. Same reasons as above.
17. Language applies to job
18. I'll be pursuing a master's degree in mathematics, which Japanese is not directly related to.
19. Because I want to
20. Because I love Japanese media culture and business and I would need to become proficient in speaking the language to achieve my goals.
21. I plan on becoming fluent in Japanese more for a personal goal and academic goal so the Japanese I learn will be useful.
22. I would love to work in my field in Japan as well
23. I hope to go into the tech field and Japan is one of the leading countries in this field. Speaking Japanese and possibly living in Japan would be a great way to further my career goals.
24. Going to Japan will have many doors available for me.
25. I will always seek to continue learning Japan's culture and language.
26. May do some work on Okinawa
27. Same as before
28. I think that eventually I would like my profession to have some relation to or dealings with Japan.
29. Japanese language is essential to teach English to Japanese speakers.
30. I will be studying in the US
31. I honestly question whether or not this will happen since I've never gone to Japan. But I feel I will ultimately want to stay when I get there. Also, I plan on participating in the the JET program.
32. I plan to move and get a job in Japan
33. I will only use Japanese for travel and anime probably
34. Again, I plan on attaining a master's degree in a field that involved fluency in the language.
35. I'll probably work in America in a Statistics related field.
36. Getting a PhD in related subject + know Japanese = working in Japan
37. My ideal career is acting, but particularly acting for an anime distribution company, where I would likely have to do some translation work.
38. I will continue to study Japanese, but I want to get my master's in business.
39. The JET Program is really the only thing I want at this point.
40. I'm not sure if I'll get a job using Japanese in Washington
41. I may or may not be in Japan at that time, but I will still use the Japanese language skills in my endeavours.
As of right now, I do not plan to do this. Depending on proficiency level, I may reconsider where I attend Grad School. For now, this is because I would also like to learn other languages and am hoping to focus on a different language as well during that time, while possibly in another country.

Since my major is international affairs, I was particularly interested in US-Japan relations.

Because I plan to work in Japan, being fluent in Japanese will be a great advantage.

I'm not sure where I want to go to graduate school yet but knowing Japanese could possibly open up the opportunity of pursuing post-graduate studies at a Japanese university.

To better help to teach and research into military evolution.

Also niche.

It will help me gain connections through the community. By showing that I am different and useful, it will help me get a job.

If I want to travel, I would like to go back to Japan. In order to really appreciate my time there, knowing some Japanese is critical.

I would like to join the JET program soon after graduating.

PhD programs in the US are not in Japanese.

It's good to have the ability to speak a second language.

I will not need Japanese language to play this sport, but I may use it to communicate with other players in tournaments.

Since I am an International Business major with an Asian track, it would make sense to go work abroad in the area which I studied.

Same reason.

Japanese is purely a goal I made for fun. It may only help in getting a job at a hospital, if that

Again, its not necessary.

I want to teach in Japan.

Unless I go to graduate school in Japan, I do not anticipate going to Japan until after I graduate grad school or using the language very much aside from practice.

I like to travel to Japan but I don't think I like to live there. Nearly impossible to intergrate and be considered japanese and high living costs.

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