Bilingual Mongolian students' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs on the process of foreign language policy and language planning implementation in an Eastern Mongolian University

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Abstract

This research examined why bilingual Mongolian students chose to learn Japanese as their foreign language at university and how their perceived experiences' impact on foreign language policy and language planning implementation from university, classroom, to self-learning level. Drawing upon data collected through analysis of documents, student questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, the study found that the enactment of China's systemic College Japanese Curriculum from one eastern Mongolian university was not a matter of simple implementation but the result of a more complex process, which changes in language context to shape students' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, motivations and actions as regards to Japanese learning. The research, therefore, argues that multi-level contents and cause-effect sequences intertwined to shape Mongolian students' language cognitions and behaviours of Japanese teaching and learning.

The research findings show many factors worked together to facilitate students' favourable attitudes towards the foreign language policy and language planning implementation at the institutional context, such as more foreign language options, 'privileged attitude' of Mongolian identity, intrinsic and instrumental learning motivations, and language similarity. The levels of contextual change tensions caused challenges in the actual classroom instructions, such as students negatively responding in the appraisal of textbooks, preference for the language used in class, reflection on classroom interaction, and questioned the relevance of expected teaching techniques. Moreover, language comparisons at students' individual learning stage are shown to confuse Japanese learning in errors, mistakes and difficulties. Thus, despite students' general endorsement of and favourable attitudes towards the proposed implementation of foreign language policy and language planning, all students in this study experienced some changes in language behaviours.

The findings suggest that the implementation of a top-down foreign language policy

and language planning is mediated through an interplay of challenges at different language contexts with the major impetus for how students make sense of and enact the language behaviour, which relates more to the strength of their previous and current language cognitions, motivations, and practices. Without students' language attitudes, perceptions and beliefs on foreign language policy and language planning, there will be insufficiency in ensuring the enactment of practices. The research, therefore, explores knowledge on wider influential factors and a deeper context of foreign language curriculum implementation and how language cognitions, behaviours, and motivations are interpreted and translated by students, teachers and administrators in the minority university context. The findings also provide information to administrators and frontline teachers concerning the ideal language contexts.

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Abbreviations

AMTB	Attitude/Motivation Test Battery
BALLI	Beliefs and Attitudes Language Inventory
CECR	College English Curriculum Reform
CET	College English Text
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CMoE	Chinese Ministry of Education
EFL	English as foreign language
ESL	English as second language
LC	Language choice
LMSS	L2 Motivation Self System
LP	Language policy
LPP	Language policy and planning
LPLP	Language policy and language planning
FLAS	Foreign Language Attitude Scale
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
FLP	Foreign language policy
FLPLP	Foreign language policy and language planning
L1	First language
L2	Second language
L3	Third language
SEM	Social-Educational Model
SLA	Second language acquisition
TL	Target language

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Chapter One: Introduction

The motivation for this research is rooted in my national identity; I am a minority student who grew up in Tongliao city, in the eastern part of Inner Mongolia, China. I was curious about how minority students looked at the development and implementation of the foreign language policy and language planning (FLPLP) in my hometown and wondered about the future of the FLPLP in minority areas. In this introductory section, I will first describe the research context and background of multilingual education in China, with particular focus on the FLPLP enactment in the eastern part of Inner Mongolia, China that frames this study. Next, this chapter reports the research objectives, followed by the significance of the study. Finally, this chapter outlines the structure and content of the entire thesis.

1.1 The research background

The research is born out to investigate the implementation status and context of a foreign language policy and language planning (FLPLP) in Eastern Inner Mongolia, China, to evaluate the requirement of China's College English with the provision of more flexibility in the context of minority foreign language teaching and learning. In particular, the current study of FLPLP in China focuses on the political perspective, to ascertain the shortage of multilingual education in minority areas and proposes feasible suggestions through a comparison with the other countries' language policy. Furthermore, the comparison studies focus not on describing the current context of FLPLP enactment, but rather, investigates how participants' attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations are influenced by FLPLP implementation in the different contexts. In addition, according to the relevant literature, there have been several studies exploring the content, cause-effect sequence and influential factors of language learners' attitude and motivation towards second language context separately, however, this exploration in the trilingual/multilingual context, combining participants' language cognitions and conative behaviours to identify the affective

influences will, it is hoped, offer a more comprehensive understanding of the specific foreign language context of a minority region of China.

1.1.1 Bilingual education of minorities in primary and secondary language contexts

Bilingualism, in Chinese *'shuangyu'*, refers to the command of two languages, which for the Han (majority) students, is those who can speak Chinese and a foreign language, such as English, Russian and Japanese. In the context of minority peoples, the policy of bilingualism means a minority who can speak a minority language and Chinese (Tsung and Crujckshank, 2009). China is a unified multi-ethnic country and has a total of 56 ethnic groups, formed by the Han nationality and 55 ethnic minority groups. China State Language Commission (1995) has recognised over 80 to 120 minority languages, while Sun, Hu and Huang (2007) claimed that China has 129 languages.

The government language documents for minority bilingual education at primary and secondary contexts tended to stress the importance and flexibility of minority language and Chinese teaching and learning. In 1955, *the first National Conference of Minority Education* determined that in all minority communities with regularly used writing systems, 'native languages must be used as the medium of instruction in every course in primary and secondary schools', and these schools would offer Chinese courses, 'in accordance with the needs and desires of the community' (Zhou and Sun, 2004, p. 48). At the same time, the 'government had moved to strengthen central control over education in minority regions by establishing minority education divisions at each level of administration from Ministry of Education down including in prefectures where the percentage of the population was a minority' (Zhou and Sun, 2004, p. 52). In 1980. The *Third National Conference on Minority Education* announced that the use of minority languages as a medium of instruction in primary and secondary school had improved the quality of education and benefited the minority students, thus, advocated that minority students master both their own language and Chinese at the same time. It was deemed vital for them to participate in the socialist construction of their motherland and continue their further studies (Liu, 1992). *The*

document (1991) 32, issued by the State Council, reviewed the language policy in minority areas, and highlighted that there was no clear understanding of language policy for minorities, further, that plans could not be fully implemented and were in fact neglected (Zhou, 2004a). *The document (1991)* required that effective measures of foreign language context in minority areas should be taken to consider through multiple channels and at multiple levels (Zhou, 2004b). The concerns of bilingual minority policies tend to relate to the length of schooling, that is, the function and importance of minority people's first language and second language (Chinese) teaching and learning were stressed by the national language policy at primary and secondary school language context, with the expectation that local minority education instructions would make flexible adjustments to the teaching of Chinese based on their own particular needs and desires.

1.1.2 Trilingual education of minority in university language context

The rationale for foreign language education, especially English teaching and learning in China, is for the benefit of the learners' future career and necessary for the international positioning of China as a major player in the global arena. The national language policy goals of China are three-fold: 'to enhance literacy, to assure internal stability, and to strengthen the nation with acquisition of scientific knowledge and economic progress so as to withstand foreign aggression' (Lam, 2007, p. 18). Although the *Law on Language Use of the China* (2000) announced that minority groups still have the freedom to use and develop their own languages and scripts, Chinese is used throughout the nation, while, the teaching of English at school from around the primary age of 3 to both Han and minority learners is compulsory (Lam, 2005). The national foreign language policy seems to promote English based on students' instrumental and integrative motivations for English learning. Actually, minority students are encouraged to become trilingual in their own minority language, Chinese and English. Minority students tend to start English learning from primary school, through to secondary school, senior school, and up to university. Lam (2005), on investigating minority students' English learning context at university, found that

students felt that their English competence was not good enough at the point of completing secondary school, however, that their English learning confidence was increased at university due to their own increased awareness that an investment time and energy in learning English both in the classroom and beyond is required if they are to become a qualified graduate. Despite this awareness, issues of minority students' foreign learning motivation have increased in the university context. Their lower motivation seems to relate to their greater language burden than that of Han students, who are only required to learn Chinese and one other foreign language. Minority students are tasked with learning both their own mother tongues and Chinese as their second language, and the additional foreign language, namely, English. Negative transference is assumed to be partly caused by cognitive immaturity of the learners in learning through three languages, which, in turn, affects minority students' foreign language learning motivation. Minority students have relatively low L2 and L3 competence, as it is difficult for them to understand teacher's L3 instruction in L2 fully. Their negative learning experience of L2 and L3 in the secondary context may also further interfere with learning in the university context. Minority learners' cognitions on foreign language competence are concerned with instrumental motivation and communication with foreign tourists (Jiang et al., 2006).

China's national policies are generally favourable toward trilingual education in minority areas. In practice, it is up to the local schools to decide what programmes and curriculum are best for the student population of their individual schools (Cobbey, 2007). In 2005, national curriculum allowed the local schools to dedicate 16-20% of their class time to a school-based curriculum and teach about the local language context and things more relevant to the lives of their students. The local institution could decide on how many hours per week for each subject, depending on needs; further, they could design a specific curriculum tailored specifically to that area, which might include a language curriculum not relevant in another language area; they might also decide whether they wanted to try a project using a certain type of curriculum (Cobbey, 2007). It seems that the local schools are permitted in advance to adjust their

application of national language policy in accordance with their particular language context, though still expected to report on what they were doing.

Trilingual education in minority areas of China is a systematic project which must be viewed holistically. Research into multilingual language contexts is not just about the determination of language policy, but also about the participants' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations of language practices, experiences and learning results. The minority learners' cognitions in a multilingual context consist of overall curriculum design, textbook compilation, classroom teaching, and assessment (Dai and Cheng, 2007), with each activity being organically and logically related to the others.

1.1.3 Multilingual context of Eastern Inner Mongolia

The Inner Mongolia Autonomous Regions in northern China were the first autonomous regions to be created in 1947. As the third largest region of China, spanning almost 1.18 million square kilometers and 12 percent of China's land, it is home to, among others, the Mongols and the Daur, whose languages belong to the Mongolian branch of the Altaic language family. Mongols typically use Mongolian in their daily lives and as the language of instruction in primary and secondary schools. While about 31 percent of Mongols have already shifted to using Chinese, Mongolian is now considered to be an endangered language even in Inner Mongolia, where more and more Mongols parents are sending their children to Chinese schools to learn Chinese and English for their future career prospects (Tsung, 2009). Having established the structure of the research, presented the language context of Inner Mongolia of China, this section introduces the development of multilingual education of Tongliao city, located in Eastern Inner Mongolia, including its history and political background, and specific language policy requirements to clarify the structural properties of the language context at different language education stages. Further, Eastern Inner Mongolia's trilingual education context and development is considered and reviewed (with a focus on Tongliao city as an example of 1949-present). Over the 60 years, after

the autonomous region was founded, ethnic education courses in Eastern Inner Mongolia has developed considerably with the establishment of a relatively complete educational system of trilingual teaching from infant to higher education. When reviewing and summarising this 60-years of the development history of Tongliao's multilingual education, four different development stages can be identified:

(1) The language context of Mongolian as a medium of instruction from 1949 to 1966

In the period after the foundation of 'New China' and before the 'Cultural Revolution', the ethnic minority area of Tongliao Municipality established ethnic schools and even created mobile teaching opportunities such as "the school on the horse" in remote areas. In the mixed school of Mongolian and Han nationality, ethnic classes were introduced. In February 1951, a Mongolian primary school was established in the location of Zhelimu Prefecture administrative office, Tongliao Municipality. All grades and subjects in primary school were instructed completely in L1 Mongolian, and from October 1954, after grade 3 (aged 10) half of students' class time was instructed in Chinese to learn Chinese. The first Mongolian middle school, Tongliao No.2 Middle School was established, hence ending the educational historical period of no pure Mongolian ethnic middle schools. On October 22th, 1963, the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region Education Office issued file No. 142 in general education *The Notice of Adding the Examination of Mongolian in the Entrance Exam to secondary, senior schools and college and university in the Mongolian County After 1964*. Mongolian was then added to the entrance exam at secondary school for university entry in Mongolian county (Tongliao City Board of Education, 2009).

(2) The language context of Mongolian as a medium of instruction from 1966 to 1977

At this time, the whole country and the nation were entrenched in an unprecedented catastrophe, in which the Mongolian teaching and learning in Tongliao Municipality also suffered difficulties (Sun, 2010). The only fully ethnic middle school in the city, Tongliao No.2 Middle School was criticised, and students were dismissed due to the political culture revolution. Ethnic schools at all levels in the city suffered severe

damage, and the teaching of the Mongolian national language teaching was stopped. Hence, its educational development halted. In the middle and later periods of this stage, with the gradual improvement of the internal political situation, in 1972, the Party Committee in Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region issued *The Instruction of Implementing Several Problems* in Current Ethnic Policies, and in 1973 organised and held an ethnic education working conference for the whole district, to re-establish the essential position of ethnic education and formulated several new measures to restore and develop ethnic education. Thereafter, the ethnic education situation in Tongliao City began to recover, and Mongolian students again learned with their native spoken and written language (Tongliao City Board of Education, 2009).

(3) The language context of bilingual education from 1978 to 1993

In 1980, according to the [19801(No.174)] File, 'The Opinions to Strengthen Ethnic Education Work from the People's Government of Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region' formulated by the county Cultural and Education department, the language of instruction was determined to be in the following three forms: firstly, all areas where Mongolians settle gave priority to use of Mongolian in teaching and grade three in primary school started to learn Han Chinese; secondly, in areas where Mongolian lived scattered in the towns and cities, students with some knowledge of Mongolian were absorbed into schools with Mongolian as the language of instruction. Those with only a little Mongolian were mainly taught in Chinese but were required to learn Mongolian from grade three of primary school; thirdly, the Mongolian students in the northern purely pastoral areas were not required to learn Chinese. Furthermore, all universities and colleges in Inner Mongolia established a department for Mongolian or a major in Mongolian teaching to strengthen the training of ethnic minority skills (Tongliao City Board of Education, 2009).

(4) The language context of trilingual education from 1996 to present

In September 1996, each county 'Su-Mu' in the Zhelimu Prefecture held an on-site conference for the standardisation work of "double basics" (the basic popularisation

of nine-year compulsory education and basic eradication of illiteracy among young and middle-aged adults) in the Zuoyihou county of Horqin. In 1996, with ‘bilingual' and ‘trilingual' language development at a breakthrough point in ethnic education throughout the city, elementary schools in rural pastoral areas started to include courses on Chinese dialogue at grade two. For the secondary and senior school context, Baokang Mongolian Secondary School in KeZuozhong County and Tongliao Mongolia High School held an experimental class of "trilingual" teaching of Science in English in the autonomous region. In 1999, the No.5 File from the State Council of PRC decided to remove Zhelimu Prefecture and set up the Tongliao Municipality. From then on, Zhelimu Prefecture was re-named as ‘Tongliao City.' In 2000, the No.52 File from Tongliao city government (2000) *Notice of Opinions on Ethnic Education Reform and Development Situation* proposed that the first aspect of the main contents of this ethnic education reform was a focus on practically strengthening Chinese and foreign language teaching under the premise of teaching native language well; the second was to adjust the school structure, and re-organise educational resources to improve educational quality and benefits; the third was to develop ethnic vocational education, and to exert efforts to enhance the comprehensive quality of ethnic minority students in the locale. In 2003, according to the ‘bilingual' and ‘trilingual' teaching plan, Tongliao Education Bureau additionally opened Chinese subject up to grade one students and English subject at grade three in ethnic primary schools. By 2007, the entire grade three in all Mongolian teaching primary schools had introduced courses for ‘English speaking’. Based on the original Mongolian-instructed majors, Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities, training colleges and vocational colleges of art in the Tongliao area newly introduced a major in foreign languages taught in Mongolian (Tongliao City Board of Education, 2009).

After reviewing the multilingual language context of Eastern Inner Mongolia, it is evident that the educational institutions fully adhere to the national language policy for minority areas, that is, they try to maintain Mongolian and develop Chinese. As regards China’s College English as one major part of foreign language education policy

implementation at higher education system, the Eastern Mongolian university has made adjustments in line with national foreign language policy by providing more foreign language options (English, Japanese and Russian) instead of only English learning at the higher education stage (Wu, 2009). Inner Mongolia, like the other minority areas of China, also faces problems with the low proportion of foreign language enrolment, which is lower than China's national average. However, there exists a difference in the Inner Mongolian trilingual context. 84.49% of the population of Inner Mongolia learn the English language, 9.31% lower than the national level. In the case of the Japanese language, this figure is 5.88%, 2.54% higher than the national level (Liu, 2005). In Eastern Mongolian students have to learn Mongolian, Chinese and prefer to learn Japanese, whereas in Western Mongolia students learn Mongolian, Chinese and English (Wu, 2009). Eastern Mongolian students seem to have a preference for learning Japanese over English at university. Therefore, it is necessary to take into account their relevant language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations for foreign language choice, embedded in the foreign language policy implementation process at each level of the university context.

1.2 Research Objectives

My first encounter with bilingual Eastern Mongolian students' language choice on FLPLP at MDU (one Eastern Mongolian University was anonymised for MDU) identified that they chose to learn Japanese. Three questions about their language choice came to mind:

1. Why do Year 1 and Year 2 bilingual Mongolian university students choose to study Japanese at an Eastern Mongolian University?

2. How does the foreign language policy and language planning implement in the language context of an Eastern Mongolian University from university to classroom and self-learning level?

My reflections on these questions and assumptions implicit in students' Japanese learning highlight several personal concerns of the FLPLP implementation at MDU from university to classroom and the self-learning context. Having discussed the FLPLP development from primary school through to university level, the requirement of Mongolian students' foreign language learning has evidently only changed in the university context. The rationale for Eastern Mongolian students' positive attitude towards learning Japanese seems to be associated with their previous foreign language learning experience, and language choice trends to relate with negative consequences or risks of language policy enactment (Norwich, 2008). The students' language attitude towards university context tends to consist of their comparisons between previous and current foreign language contexts.

My second question reveals a preference for teaching Japanese in the classroom and self-learning contexts. Compared with English teaching, Japanese classes offer a new learning experience for Mongolian students associated with the usage of the textbook, teaching language, classroom interaction and learning environment. My question suggests a view of students' understanding of classroom context, which tends to describe the real situation of Japanese classes and tries to find out the cause-effect sequence between these teaching factors and students' Japanese learning. Their perceptions also tend to relate to their linguistic learning needs, which require additional support for learning. Frederickson and Cline (2015) in their endeavours to understand the Welsh students' English learning context in the United Kingdom, find that Welsh students require extra support due to their capability in English which is insufficient for them to access the curriculum fully, as a result of it not being their first language Furthermore, their perceptions of extra support are based on their understanding of in-class English teaching and learning, and assume that the support might include reading and writing correction, differentiation of lesson content and materials.

My research reveals learning difficulties in relation to the linguistic comparisons

between Mongolian and English and Mongolian and Japanese. At this time, my views may have shown some agreements with Chinese researchers. Giving a different language family background, each minority learner has different difficulties encountered in the process of learning the third language (the foreign language). Jin (2006) investigates the foreign language context of the Inner Mongolia autonomous region, Mongolian college/university students' sense of English learning difficulties and its influencing factors, the results show that Mongolian bilingual students have difficulties with vocabulary, grammar, and reading, and listening and reading due to the loosely linguistic distance between Mongolian and English. In contrast, Sun and An (2015) note that the application of traditional Chinese characters in Japanese is helpful for Mongolian students to remember Japanese words and increases their learning motivation; thus, the linguistic similarity between Mongolian and Japanese as regards grammar knowledge tends to reduce the Japanese learning difficulties for Mongolian students.

The additional two key terms illustrate my understanding of FLPLP implementation in the Mongolian university context. Firstly, differences in language policy and language planning tend to explain the content of FLPLP, that is, how the Eastern Mongolian university might provide more foreign language options for their Mongolian students; further, this becomes the structure of the FLPLP investigation based on the routine of China's College English, such as assessment and testing criteria, textbook selection and organization, teaching and learning models, to understand FLPLP implementation at university, classroom and self-learning stages. Secondly, taking account of participants' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations (Gardner, 1985a, 1990, 2001; Baker, 1992; Dörnyei, 1994a, 1998, 2009) in addition to investigating the content of participants' language cognitions and behaviours, further seeks to identify the cause-effect sequence and affective factors of Mongolian students' target language learning in different language contexts.

The importance of Mongolian students foreign language options not only leads to

understanding the motivations for their language decisions, and their positive or negative attitudes toward the content and cause-effect sequence of this FLPLP enactment, but also to the understanding of the particular language contexts in this minority area. In the analysis of FLPLP implementation process at each level, an understanding of the minority students' foreign language learning process during different teaching and learning contexts is important, and might provide enriched and much broader responses from the students, than the traditional method of comparison only of language learning difficulties.

1.3 Significance of the research

This study uses a qualitative interpretivist approach to explore the implementation of FLPLP at a Mongolian university in China from university to classroom and self-learning levels, to understand the language cognitions and behaviours of Mongolian students' Japanese learning at a Mongolian university. Thus, this research aims to investigate the reasons, language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations behind Mongolian students' choice to learn Japanese, to capture their previous and current foreign language learning experiences and how these are translated into their understanding in the university language context at different levels. The significance is as follows: First, this study provides further insight into understanding the complexities of the foreign language context in a minority region. FLPLP enactment in China is much more complicated owing to a long history foreign language education reform, especially in a minority context. It is of significant importance to investigate how the FLPLP implementation at each stage has influenced Mongolian students' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations on foreign language learning. In addition, from the investigation into the participants' language attitude, perceptions, beliefs and motivations towards College English implementation, and how these language cognitions affect Mongolian students' target language learning in the Mongolian university context of China, this study identifies lessons to be learned for any future research conducted within the field of participants' evaluation on FLPLP enactment in other multilingual contexts. This study explains the content and structure of

researching the FLPLP implementation from participants' understandings. In particular, original and direct contributions will be made as regards relevant knowledge of FLPLP enactment in the other multilingual regions of China. Moreover, it is hoped that the findings herein inform the policymakers, administrators, and teachers on understanding trilingual students' positive language attitudes and motivations towards the language context, and how trilingual students' negative perceptions of FLPLP implementation and their learning difficulties of the target language in China might be resolved.

1.4 The structure of the thesis

The thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter 1 provides the context and rationale for this study, and also introduces the research aims, scope and significances.

Chapter 2 sets the scene by introducing the history of China's College foreign language curriculum development at tertiary level with specific reference to:

College English (1980, 1985, 1986, 1999, 2004 and 2007);

College Japanese (1993).

Chapter 3 offers a review of the literature reporting the differences and relationships between foreign language policy and language planning in content and structure, which then forms an essential structure for a theoretical framework for this study into understanding how system-level FLPLP is implemented in university, classroom and self-learning contexts. Language learner' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations are the measurements used for investigating the specific contents of participants' language cognitions in three different language contexts, with the aim of identifying the cause-effect sequence and affective factors between language cognitions and behaviours.

Chapter 4 addresses the methodology for the study and explains the rationale for the decision made to research traditions and paradigms in which to situate the research.

The consideration and implementation of the research plan and methods employed are discussed. In this chapter, the analysis of participants' attitudes towards FLPLP implementation at the university level is used to introduce the content of participants' general attitudes, and how their attitudes affect language choice.

Further, Chapters 5, 6 and 7 comprise the analysis section of the thesis, in which the central emergent themes of the data are explained in relation to research questions. Chapter 5 reports and demonstrates the language context at university level. In Chapter 6, the foreign language context in the classroom is outlined; the teaching effects are explored in more depth and through students' perceptions. Finally, Chapter 7 offers students' beliefs towards the self-learning context, which attempts to explain affective factors of their learning difficulties, mistakes and errors.

After that, Chapters 8 and 9 include the main discussion and the conclusions of the study. In Chapter 8, there is further analysis and discussion in relation to the literature. The summarisation of findings for each research questions is listed, in preparation for the conclusions, contributions, further research implications and personal reflections in Chapter 9.

Chapter Two: Literature Review: Language policy and China's College English and Japanese Reform

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the key research concepts of foreign language policy and language planning and provides the policy and research context of foreign language education in the minority area of China. Further, it illustrates the implementation procedure of foreign language policy and language planning, providing a starting point for understanding the structure of the language context. In this chapter, the change and development of China's College English and College Japanese, and challenges of implementing it in a university context will be addressed, which aims to set the content and structure of foreign language learning reflection at different stages of FLPLP enactment for the following discussions. Specifically, the first section introduces the key research concepts and defines the features of FLPLP used in this study; then, the system levels of China's College English and Japanese change are discussed. Thereafter, this chapter moves on to report the realities of textbook usage, assessment aims and criteria, the teaching and learning model of China's College English and Japanese application in the institution, classroom and self-learning context.

2.2 The implementation context of language policy and language planning

Kaplan and Baldauf (2008) propose that the development of language policy and language planning involves the participation of a variety of actors or agents working in different contexts. Therefore, distinguishing between language policy, language planning, and its related terms of syllabus and curriculum is necessary to determine the proper description towards structure and sequence of language policy enactment in the different contexts. The relevance and limitations of China's foreign language policy and language planning research are analysed, to systemically explore the complex process of policy implementation in the multilingual context, and clarify the structure and content of language policy evaluation research.

2.2.1 The distinction between language policy and language planning, syllabus and curriculum

(1) The content and structure of language policy and language planning

The function of language policy has long been regarded as an essential part in describing and evaluating a country's language context. Language policy encompasses law, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve the planned language changes in a specific language situation (Everson, 2009). Christian (1988) proposes that language policy is used to resolve organised intervention in the usage of languages (language varieties). Language policy may be realised at several levels from very formal planning documents to informational discourses surrounding language, politics and society (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997 and 2005). The structure of language policy implementation trends to spread primarily from a national language context, and content of language policy seems to be interpreted in language usage with a formal format. However, the implementation procedure of language policy tries to enact the structure and content of policy from the general routine in macro language context to the more specific requirements in the micro language context. Language policy can be applied to many levels—federal, state, local, school, programme, and classroom, and either in codified (formalised, written) mode or just a matter of accepted practice. In most cases, government policies (federal, state, or local) may be codified in the form of laws or regulations. Policies at the level of school, programme or classroom may be set out in writing, or may not; they are still observable sociological facts (Donna, 1998). Different with the formal and macro multi-level implementation of language policy, language planning decisions obviously place great importance on determining what happens to any minority language or languages of one nation at the specific micro language context (Cobarrubias, 1983). It may involve resource assessment, complex decision-making, the assignment of different functions to different languages in one community, and the commitment of valuable resources. 'Language planning is authorised by the government, which makes long-term, sustained, and conscious efforts to change a language's function in society to solve communication problems' (Weinstein, 1980, p. 56). Language planning aims to distinguish deliberately with one

language or various languages, which means that it generally includes the formation of policy implementation procedures prescribing or influencing language education and the purposes of planning implementation. For some scholars, 'language policy refers to the combination of official decisions with the prevailing public practices of language education and use' (McGroatry, 1997, p.1), while others restrict the scope to procedural calculations, defining language planning as the matching of national language capacity to need (Brecht & Walton, 1993, p. 3). Based on the implemented structural procedure of language policy, the function of language planning seems to be to apply the routine of language policy into a regional institution.

From the content of language programme implementation, language planning is composed of corpus planning and status planning to describe language policy in a specific language context. The former involves 'activities of coining new terms, reforming spelling, and adopting a new script' (Cooper, 1989, p. 31), which aims to define or reform the standard language by introducing or changing its spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. The latter deals with the initial choice of language, including the attitude towards any alternative languages and the political significance of various choices, which have been linked to ideas of official recognition. The latter says much more about how the society understands the role and function of language (e.g., medium of instruction and official language) through laws and regulations (Kloss, 1969), and it is determined by the former during the process of standardization, which results in the so-called proper or correct variety, or the preferred or powerful variety. However, some scholars deny the proposal that language can ever be studied without considering the social environment (Page & Keller, 1985). The third major category of language planning refers to language acquisition planning proposed by Cooper (1989), who points out that this additional category is necessary because considerable planning energy is the primary and direct factor for language spread, mainly through education. Language spread can be treated as a way to accelerate new language acquisition or to promote a particular language to be the standard. It attempts to directly change or preserve the linguistic norm, the

social status, or the communicative function of a language through language planning and is usually executed by committees, organisations or linguists on behalf of official authorities with a deliberate goal according to a declared programme or a defined set of criteria. Another aim of language planning is to establish norms so that oral norms can connect with written standards. This description of language planning helps us to grasp the motivation underlying language planning and to identify the people who do the planning. Although language planning often aims to solve language problems or conflicts, it can also result in conflicts. In struggles for power and dominance between groups, language is often the surface focal point for deeper troubles. To avoid such problems, language policymakers, taking into account the interests and rights of all the ethnic minorities and language policies, can revitalise indigenous languages to protect ethnic minorities' cultures (Rubin & Jernudd, 1971; Liu, 2006). The formulation of a particular way to solve this problem determines which norm should be promoted and implemented through the educational system, which is to say, a language problem may cause a change of language policy, and may then lead to changes in language planning (Haugen, 1953, 1972; Kloss, 1969). Language planning is described as status planning on the content, participants of plan, role and prestigious of target language usage; from a corpus perspective, language planning mainly deals with the internal linguistic principles and relates more to teaching methods and strategies; turning to the acquisition planning, the language planning tends to focus on the implementation of language policy in a school language context.

(2) The relationship between language policy and language planning

Language policy can be considered as a branch of macro-sociolinguistics, also known as the linguistic sociology (Yu, 2016). Previous scholars focus on what could be done by the state to systematically promote linguistic change when referring to language planning (Cooper, 1989; Fishman et al., 1968; Fishman, 1971; Haugen, 1959, 1966; Kapaln and Baldauf, 1997). It seems that language planning implementation should be regarded as a deliberate effort to influence others' behaviour in the acquisition, structure and functional allocation of their language code (Cooper, 1998). Fettes (1997,

p. 14) suggests that the link between language policy and language planning is that 'language planning … must be linked to the critical evaluation of language policy; the former providing standards of rationality and effectiveness, the latter testing these ideas against the actual practice to promote the development of better … language planning models. Such a field would be better described as "language policy and planning", LPP'.

The designation of LPP is not only a reminder about the inextricable relationship between language policy and language planning but also a way to show the lack of agreement on the exact nature of that relationship. LPP also offers a unified concept to pursue a more comprehensive understanding of the complicated policy-planning relationship and its insertion in processes of social change (Ricento, 2000). Besides, opponents of post-structuralism have also challenged the idea that a community's speaking way can be planned and changed by authoritative agencies. The beliefs, practices, and event regulations can impact on people's approach to use language. Thus, naming this field itself has shifted the language policy, because it recognizes the different influencing forces of language planning, so some scholars have also preferred to speak about LPP (Homberger and Ricento, 1996; Homberger, 2006) or language policy and language planning (LPLP) (Wright, 2004), which suggests that these two terms are necessary to capture their distinctive roles, that is, one refers to the language changes implemented by the state or authoritative organizations, and the other means the communicative behaviors, beliefs or language attitudes, which form the idea that language should be managed and used in society. Wright (2004) proposes that language choices (LC) are included in formal language policy and the promotion of informal language strategies, both of which may result in language decisions to either expand or constrain most people's language choices. On the one hand, the government should assume the responsibility of establishing the language-planning programs; on the other hand, the influences of individuals should play a crucial part in forming LPP. Individuals and organisations should exert pressures on governments to embody the aspirations of their speech community, which can cause the linguistic

changes.

(3) Similarity among curriculum, syllabus and language planning

Over the meaning of curriculum and syllabus, there has been a considerable dispute of these two terms. Brumfit (1984) believes that syllabus is a teaching planning, which is designed by universities or schools and related closely to class hours. Syllabus refers to the specific contents of the course, but curriculum means the whole teaching requirements, aims and contents (Markee, 1997). In fact, both syllabus and curriculum are planning; syllabus is widely applied in the United Kingdom; the curriculum is used in the United States (White, 1998). Breen (2001) explains that the syllabus is just related to teaching and learning, which belongs to a part of the curriculum. Kaplan & Baldauf (2005) agree that curriculum mainly concerns the objective in language teaching and learning. The documents that specify the objectives of course teaching and learning are presented and analysed. The curriculum consists of teaching aims, teaching content, teaching methodology and evaluation (Lv, 2003). Morris (1996) offers an alternative framework to examine curriculum, which contains five elements, namely, aims/goals, objectives, content, teaching method and assessment. In this framework aims/goals are placed at the centre, which means the aims/goals of a curriculum determines the other four components. Aims/Goals here are considered as more general and influential than objectives. In other words, 'aims' are 'idealistic, long term and focus more on a planned intention' (Morris, 1996); and 'goals' are similar as they focus on the desired result but are more specific, while 'objective' is different in the sense that it emphasises the outcomes resulting from the effort which is 'specific and short term' (ibid, p. 11). To achieve the aims/goals, four elements, namely, objectives, content, teaching method and assessment are suggested in a curriculum *(See figure 2.1)*.

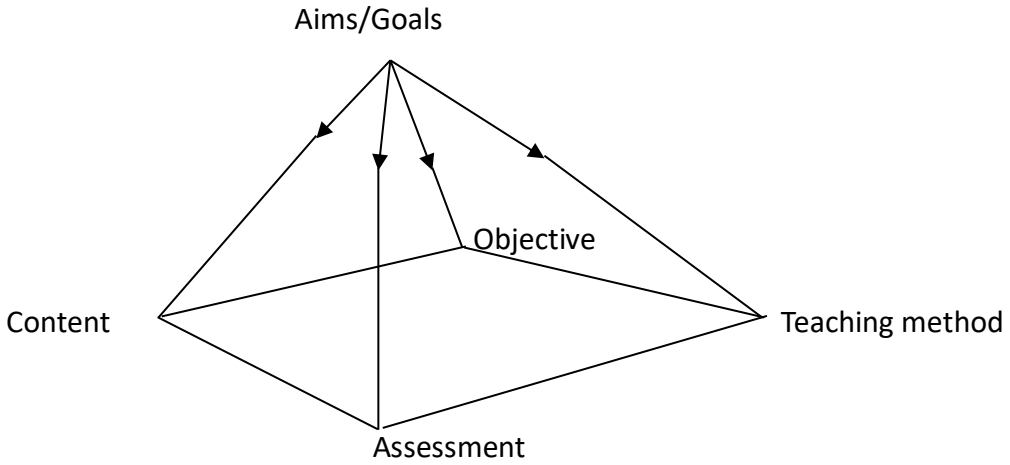


Figure 2.1 Framework to examine curriculum (Morris, 1996, p.11)

The design of curriculum or syllabus focuses not only on the teaching methodologies and contexts but also relates to policy, planning, implementation, assessment and evaluation, resource and management (Nunan, 1990). Language corpus planning is similar to the curriculum, which proposed specific requirements or aims of learning. However, language status and acquisition planning concern more the language learners' cognitive development process and language behaviour to evaluate the language planning context.

Based on the discussion of different approaches to content, classification and function of language planning, similarities and distinctions among syllabus, curriculum and language planning, the syllabus, curriculum are respectively defined as follows to guide the present research:

> *Syllabus is a specific outline or a brief statement of the main points of a course, outlining the objectives, the content, the process and materials to be used (e.g. textbooks, software) (Yu, 2016, p.10).*

Curriculum is regarded as a composite whole, consists with the long and short team purpose and outcomes of learning (goals/objectives), what students need to learn to achieve the goals and objectives (content), how students learn and how teachers help

them learn (learning and teaching methods), 'using what supporting materials (textbooks, software) and methods of assessment (assessment and testing), what means to evaluate the program (evaluation), and what kind of facilities to improve the project and the outcomes in a learning institution (administration)' (Yu, 2016, p. 10).

As noted above, language planning is regarded as the language policy implementation at the micro level, that is, what languages should be planned (content); who speaks the languages (participants); what role these languages play in the society (aims); what the prestigious status of these languages is (objectives); which choice is to be made regarding specific linguistic elements and whenever the language is used (learning and teaching methods); what happens and conflicts in local institutions (language context).

Thus, in order to explore the implementation of a top-down foreign language curriculum from university level to classroom and self-learning level in a specific university, it is necessary to explore goals, contents, teaching & learning models and assessment prescribed in the language context, and further, how students, teachers, and administrators explain their attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations toward this language context according to their cognition, language background, type of school, current and ideal learning goals and desires. Moreover, how content, teaching & learning models, textbook usage and assessment of curriculum, attitude, perceptions, beliefs, and motivations combine to make the curriculum work with more favourable evaluations. Therefore, an appropriate explanation of foreign language policy and language planning (FLPLP) is required to guide my research in exploring the content, structure and implementation context from participants' language cognitions and actions of a foreign language curriculum in a minority area of China.

2.2.2 Foreign language policy and language planning in China

Chinese research on language planning has focused on the following aspects: research on language planning theories abroad, such as Turkey, New Zealand, Singapore, Canada, Austria and other countries and areas, overseas language policy and the

process of language programming (Zou, 2011); a comparison study of foreign language policy between China and other countries (Xie, 2011), that is, China's foreign language education needs a long-term policy and planning to clarify the specific contents of foreign language teaching, and the policy enactment should take into account the opinions of students, teachers, parents and social interest groups to improve the feasibility, scientificity and democracy of policymaking, instead of top-down implementation unicity. The Chinese government attaches importance to language planning and policies. However, its attention to these issues tends to be unsystematic and non-consecutive (Shen, 2010). In the college English teaching context, Wei (2010) compares university foreign language policies among China, USA, Singapore and Japan, and suggests that China's College English should respect and give much more independent space for the local institution through adjustment in curriculum assessment, content, teaching model and textbook selection/usage; further, Chinese universities should provide more foreign language options due to integrative understandings on internationalization instead of teaching and learning English only; Chinese universities also need to emphasise teaching students' foreign language abilities which are related to students' learning goals for academic and employment achievement. Hu's (2009) studies on the formulation of China' foreign language policy, after analysing the data from official documents and interview data, notes that China's foreign language education policy implementation is deeply affected by five factors, namely, social, economic, educational, linguistic, that elements are concerned with the needs of national and international development. And political forces, which is mainly about the inherent law of foreign language application, are formed the framework of China's language planning activities, for example, China's foreign language planning and policies (Meng, 2016).

To-date, research on China's foreign language education in a university context does not offer any description of the general long-term goal in use and no short-term goal in foreign language education operation from students, teachers, and administrators' viewpoints. Although Chinese researchers realise the universities deserve more space

to adjust the routine of College English from the perspective of content, teaching & learning models, and textbook selection, even they suggest the provision of more foreign language options for students after comparing foreign education contexts with other countries. The comparison method tends to help us to understand the shortcomings of China's College English, but it is not useful for investigating the current status and reality of curriculum implementation. As above discussion on the content and structure of language planning, foreign language curriculum implementation seems to involve with the language context, the content of curriculum and enactment structure. Taking students, teachers, and administrators' cognitive thinking, conative action to find out the affective factors in each stage of FLPLP implementation may better describe the regional foreign language education situation.

There is still a lot of criticism of English language education in society, focused mainly on the low competence of Chinese minority speakers in applied English since most learners spend much time on it, however, they cannot speak English well; poor English scores in Chinese college/university entrance exam (GAOKAO), low English proficiency in spelling, reading and writing, low pass rate of national English exam Band 4. Therefore, scientific foreign language planning is necessary; it is possible that theoretically informed policies can improve the present status (Tan, 2017). The average passing rate of Collage Japanese Band 4 in Inner Mongolia is 23.5 percent from 1993 to 2002 (National Japanese Examinations Unit, 2003). However, foreign language learning errors, mistakes and difficulties are not mentioned to explore cause-effect of minority students' foreign language learning at the self-learning level. As regards research on classroom context; Chinese researchers appear to focus rather on the usage of English textbook; Lu (2014) investigates the status of English textbook usage problems and proposes suggestions in universities of Eastern China. Using questionnaire and interview methods she finds only 35.9 percent students feel satisfied with the English textbook, students do not like the text-dominated textbook and feel unhappy with teachers' supplementary learning materials. Lu stresses the best solution for students' dissatisfaction with the usage of English textbook is to

provide the right for teachers to adjust textbook usage. However, students' learning issues and dissatisfied feelings are not directly related to any particular reasons or influential factors. Trying to clarity FLPLP implementation in each context may, therefore, find the primary cause for minority students' negative cognitions in foreign language learning, and further, explain the relationship and procedure of FLPLP in different language contexts.

This aforementioned research discusses the shortcomings and disadvantages of foreign language education in China today, and all point out that foreign teaching at university must be guided by a compatible FLPLP. Having a unified and consecutive policy is viewed as one of the essential marks of successful foreign language courses. The content of LPLP covers language status, selection, and proportion of courses (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997), and the modifications in language form or language usage (Spolsky, B & Shohamy, E, 1999). The criteria and understanding of a successful or popular FLPLP implementation trends to understand the content of policy routine and its adjustments, and try to figures out the cause-effect procedure and sequence of FLPLP enactment at each context. Ricento (2000) characterises two stages of language planning development, 'first two-phase as primarily addressing practical language problem of new nations, at first with a sense of optimism and ideological neutrality, and later with an evolving awareness of the potential negative effects and inherent limitations of the modernization and development models within which early language planning efforts were situated' (pp. 197-203). The implementation of China's FLPLP seems like considering the positive/negative awareness of individuals who establish and participate in language programmes to interpret practically national language policy implementation at each level to understand a specific language context. Attitude, perception, beliefs and motivation seems to be regarded as the measurements to describe different language contexts and explain the gap between the specific requirements and aspirations of FLPLP.

2.3 Historical overview of China College English and Japanese at tertiary level

Earlier discussion on the implicit trilingual education model in a minority context is supported by national language policy in an explicit law on language use, and partially empowers the local schools to adjust the language requirements based on the local language context. MDU adjusts the routine of China's College English and Japanese, and provides three foreign language options (English, Japanese and Russian) for Mongolian students, and reduces the difficulty and over-frequency of assessment for Mongolian students who are learning Japanese, while MDU has to follow the rest of the requirements of College English and Japanese and apply them in the classroom and self-learning contexts. China's College English education, that is, 'English teaching for undergraduates who major in areas other than English, has experienced fluctuations in China due to the fall and rise of the political movements and the changes of economic policies since it was resumed in 1978' (Yu, 2016, p. 13). Analysis of College English and Japanese shows an understanding of the routine change and development of FLPLP in a university context, which provides the conditions for the minority universities to adjust requirements. The routine of College English and Japanese experienced four developed stages from 1978 to present involving the change of policy requirements and aims; criteria change of testing and assessment; textbook organisation and selection; teaching and learning models, which appears to be the contents and structure of FLPLP implementation from university to classroom and self-learning contexts.

2.3.1 China College English reform (1978-present)

College English education policies in China have been inextricably linked to political, economic, and social development in the country in the last 40 years. These policies have been shaped by the perceived goals and changing contexts of national development.

(1) College English Teaching Syllabus (draft) 1980

The first College English teaching planning was made in 1962; the planning requirements suggested 'College English is a practical curriculum, and it requires … at

least 240 class hours … students have to acquire 1400 words … students should be able to read English texts at a speed of 17 words per minute … students should read and translate English science articles with the help of dictionary ...' (Lv, 2003, p. 9). In 1977, China resumed the college entrance exam, which was abandoned during the Cultural Revolution. Even though an English test was included in the college entrance exam, the score for English was not included in the total score as English was something that few people knew. It was used only as a reference. By 1979, only 10% of the English score was included in the total score. From then on, the percentage increased gradually until 1983, when 100% of the English score was counted in the total score. Once entering a college or university, everyone had to take English as a compulsory course, no matter how good one's performance was on the English exam (Meng, 2016). Before 1980, there was no unified foreign language curriculum in China's higher education. All universities were required to formulate their own curriculum in language education. Foreign language policy makers and language teachers have little understanding about the objectives and requirements of college English education and opinions towards college English teaching were divergent. In 1980, experts from Peking University, Tsinghua University, and other prestigious universities worked together and formulated the Syllabus 1980 (draft). This syllabus could be regarded as the first officially published syllabus for college English teaching. However, this syllabus only stipulated the contents of grammar teaching. General description of teaching goals was not mentioned with the content being similar to the one published in 1962 (Lv, 2003). The syllabus points out that allowances should be made for students at different levels of language proficiency. Thus, it proposes different treatment in requirements. Upon entering college, students who could meet the basic requirements are allowed to move directly to the second stage of college English learning. These students were then given the opportunity to choose writing or translation as their selective course. Meanwhile, requirements for listening, speaking and writing were put forward in the Syllabus (draft) 1980. The syllabus lists reading for specific purposes as a stage.

(2) College English Teaching Syllabus 1985 and College English Teaching Syllabus 1986

In 1982, the State Education Commission made an attempt to develop their syllabus for college English teaching, based on the results of surveys on English learning needs from social and employment aspects, and were called to work on a new syllabus of college English published in 1985, which was designed for students majoring in science and engineering (Lv, 2003). The objectives of college English in this syllabus were set out as follows:

> *College English aims at developing in students a relatively high level of competence in reading, an intermediate level of competence in listening and translating and a basic competence in writing and speaking. After the completion of the course, students should be able to use the English they have learned as a means to obtain whatever information they need in their fields of specialisation and also as a solid foundation for further improvement of their command of the language. (The Revision Team of College English Syllabus, 1985, p.1)*

This syllabus is appropriate for scientific fields in that language context. It is not only convenient and practical but also very flexible for the teachers and students. One year later, another new syllabus was published. The new syllabus was for students majoring in both liberal arts and sciences. The objectives of college English teaching set in this syllabus was more or less the same as those previously published in 1985. The only difference was that the requirement of translating was omitted from the syllabus in 1986. The contents in Syllabus 1985 and Syllabus 1986 were expanded compared with that of the Syllabus (draft) 1980 and were much more complete and more detailed. Syllabus 1985 and Syllabus 1986 specified the targets of college English teaching, the teaching objectives, requirements, and testing. Furthermore, these listed four appendices, namely, vocabulary, grammatical summary, functional and notional category, and language skills.

These two syllabuses were implemented for about 15 years, with several shortcomings

gradually emerging. For example, the separation of natural science and liberal arts caused challenges in practical implementation. Moreover, the objectives in Syllabus 1985 and Syllabus 1986 were thought a decade later to be set too low. Thus, modifications and revisions were needed, with an urgent call for a new and unified curriculum.

(3) College English Syllabus 1999

Although Syllabus 1985 and Syllabus 1986 listed many micro-skills within the four language skills, skills in writing, listening and speaking were mostly neglected in instructional practices. College English learning was severally criticized as product-oriented and teacher-centred with too much attention on individually isolated phrases and structures (Meng, 2016). In May 1996, under the leadership of former State Educational Commission, the guiding Committee in charge of College Foreign Language Education, launched a programme named "Research and Practice of College English Course Content and System Reform". Scholars in the programme undertook surveys to analyse the social needs of students' English learning and their English proficiency. Results showed that college graduates hoped to improve their English abilities in relation to the development of the national economy. The Syllabus 1985 and Syllabus 1986 were mainly aimed at prestigious colleges and universities at that time. Many other 'non-key schools' couldn't meet the objectives and requirements of both syllabuses. Chinese colleges and universities were all in great need of a new college English teaching curriculum that could satisfy the various needs of learners in a wide range of teaching contexts. In 1999, College English Syllabus (Revision) was published. The objectives of college English teaching were set as follows:

> *College English aims at developing in students a relatively high level of competence in reading, an intermediate level of competence in listening, speaking, writing and translating. After the completion of the course, the students should be able to use the English they have learned as a means to communicate with others about information. College English teaching should help the students to lay a solid foundation of language, master good language learning approaches,*

improve their literacy and cultural qualities to meet the needs of social and economic development. (The Revision Team of College English Syllabus, 1999, p. 1)

The objectives in Syllabus 1999 are different from the previous two in that they go beyond a focus on acquiring the necessary skills of English listening, speaking, reading and writing to include the learning of the English language for communicative, social and economic purposes. It is also interesting to note that the requirement of translation ability is put back into the syllabus, having been removed from the syllabus 1986. Syllabus 1985 and Syllabus 1986 divided college English into six levels (bands). Another proposal of these two syllabuses are the foundation of a nationwide examination after the study of band 4 and band 6. This proposed assessment was not implemented until 1987. Statistics from the state college English centre showed that in 1987, more than 100,000 college students took College English Test 4. This number rose gradually in the following years. In 2004, more than 11,000,000 college students took CET 4 and CET 6 (Wu, 2005). This massive increase in number could be partly attributed to the College English Syllabus 1999 in which band 4 was set as a basic requirement for any undergraduate. According to College English Syllabus 1999, if students' level of language proficiency was below the basic requirement, college English teachers were required to adopt various measures to improve students' language ability so as to meet the basic requirement; if students' level of language proficiency passed at band 4, they are allowed to move to more advanced English courses (Tang, 2005).

(4) College English Curriculum Requirements 2004 (for trial implementation) and 2007

In 2002 and 2003, China's Ministry of Education initiated a new round of college English teaching reform. The higher education department in the Ministry of Education pointed out that college English teaching should be much more focused on developing students' comprehensive language ability; rather than highlighting only their language ability in reading, teachers should prioritize students' development in listening and

communication skills when their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are fully developed (Zhang, 2003). In 2004, College English Curriculum Requirements (for trial implementation) (CECR) were issued by China's Ministry of Education, providing guidelines for English instruction for non-English majors in colleges and universities. For the first time, the term "curriculum" was used to replace "syllabus" as the national guideline for English instruction on non-English majors. Curriculum designers began to treat college English curriculum as a general guideline given that institutions of higher education differ from each other in terms of regions, teacher resources and students' levels of language proficiency. With the curriculum requirements as a general guideline, colleges and universities could formulate their college English syllabuses tailored to their own needs (Yuan, et, al, 2015).

CECR (2004) offers several changes in the English language policy for Chinese universities. The document was designed ‘with a view to keeping up with the new developments of higher education in China, deepening the teaching reform, improving teaching quality, incorporating technology to support the teaching process and meeting the needs of the country and society for qualified personnel in the new era’ (Ministry of Education, 2004, p. 3). It is appended with a Computer- and Classroom-based Multimedia College English Teaching Model, Self-Assessment/Peer Assessment Form of Students' English Competence, and Reference Word List of CECR (for trial implementation), Reference Phrase List of CECR and Active Word List of CECR. The lists of lexical items comprise 185 pages (pp. 56-243).

The objectives of college English teaching in CECR 2004 (for Trial Implementation) and CECR 2007 were set as follows:

> *The objective of college English is to develop students' ability to use English in an all-around way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future work and social interactions they will be able to exchange information effectively through both spoken and written channels, and at the same time they will be able to enhance their ability to study*

independently and improve their cultural quality so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges. (CMoE, 2004, p. 5)

As China is a large country with conditions varying from region to region and from college to college, the teaching of college English should follow the principle of providing different guidance for different groups of students and instructing them in accordance with their aptitude so as to meet the specific needs of the individualised teaching. (CMoE, 2007, p. 5)

To address the various levels of English proficiency existing among college students, three levels are set for undergraduate college English teaching in the document, namely, basic, intermediate and high. All non-English major students are expected to meet one of the three levels of requirements. Non-English major students are expected to attain at least the basic level of requirements before graduation. Considering the specific circumstances of each institution of higher learning, this curriculum requirement puts forward expectations for colleges and universities, in that they are required to create favourable conditions for students' English learning. Meanwhile, students are encouraged to reach the intermediate or high level of English proficiency (Meng, 2016).

CECR 2007 consists of six parts: Character and Objective of College English, Teaching Requirements, Course Designing, Teaching Model, Evaluation, and Teaching Administration. The new requirement of CECR requires that a system of teaching administration should be established to be accountable for the whole process of college English teaching; that measures should be taken to strengthen the guidance for and supervision of the teaching process to ensure the achievement of the teaching objectives: establishing a system of teaching and teaching administration documentation, making efforts to promote the credit system and establishing a system of faculty management and development (CMoE, 2007, p. 27).

As regards, course designing, teaching model and assessment, more freedom is given

to different colleges and universities themselves, given that circumstances in individual colleges and universities vary. With the CECR guidelines, schools can set appropriate goals and systems for college English teaching according to their own situation. Further, CECR calls for extensive application of advanced information technology in teaching and learning, especially computer and web-based instruction. Students have more choices in their college English learning as they are provided with various favourable conditions and facilities. They have access to extensive learning materials that may make up for the limitations of the conventional classroom. Combined with multimedia and network, new teaching models are also introduced in colleges and universities.

Chinese national foreign language policy/College English policy requires all non-English majors' college/university students to learn English as a compulsory foreign language course during their first two years' study at the higher/tertiary educational level. With eight design and adjustments (1962, 1978, 1980, 1985, 1986, 1999, 2004 and 2007), this policy clarifies the aims of students' language ability and proficiency clearly after learning, further, it stresses the students' qualities of communicative, literacy and cultural levels which may be achieved with traditional and multimedia teaching models. The whole developed procedure of this policy is underpinned by the students' learning needs and understanding of language context, which helps students to adapt to social and economic development. The teachers and local colleges and universities could therefore adjust their teaching plans and curriculum requirements based on their own needs.

Richards (2001) argues that a sound educational programme should be based on an analysis of learners' needs. The top-down CECR is based on a situation analysis. It does not fully employ empirical research action for data collection. As for the English instruction to non-English major students, colleges and universities still have to follow the guidelines to formulate a scientific, systematic and individualised college English syllabus in the light of their specific circumstances. Although CECR takes the students' rights into consideration, the needs for English knowledge are decided by those people

who are strongly concerned with the long-term welfare of the students. CECR aims therefore to meet the needs of individual students. The three different levels (basic, intermedia and high) of requirements are set to provide equal opportunities for students from various regions and of different levels to experience English learning by setting individual goals. However, students are not consulted on their personal attitudes to English learning. Furthermore, policymakers, colleges, and universities do not obtain information on students' specific unrecognised needs according to their different demographic backgrounds.

Richards (2001) further points out that in developing goals for educational programmes, curriculum planners draw on their understanding both of the present and long-term needs of learners and society as well as the planners' beliefs and ideologies about schools, learners, and teachers. CECR describes its objectives in terms of requirements, which stress the economic and social needs of English teaching and learning. CECR highlights a learner-centred teaching model, which emphasises the learners' individual needs and focuses on individualised teaching, with the need for all courses to be fully individual-oriented. However, it also indicates the general requirements on vocabulary, listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation for three different levels of students. CECR allocates 'adequate' corresponding teaching hours and credits and describes learning outcomes at the various learning stages. However, it does gather schools, teachers and students' thoughts and opinions on the teaching time allocation, and further, the objectives of CECR do not cover non-language outcomes such as the meaningful and worthwhile aspects of students' learning experiences.

2.3.2 China College Japanese reform (1949-present)

Curriculum is regarded as a fundamental matter for the 'well-being and effectiveness of higher education' (Barnett & Coate, 2005, p.7), therefore the content of curriculum (e.g. learning experiences, contents, objectives, courses, etc.), is one of the most significant matters (Hyun, 2006). For College Japanese, Japanese teaching and learning

as a foreign language course in the universities were mainly applied in the northeast of China before 1949 (the founding year of the new China), because this area was a colony of Japan. There were also some universities in the south part of China which also provided Japanese courses, but Russian and English were still the main foreign language courses in Chinese universities during that time. From 1949 to 1965, Japanese as foreign language course was set up in 39 universities around China, though mostly focused around the northeast and Jiangsu-Zhejiang-Shanghai area (Fu, 2013). The aims of College Japanese Curriculum were used to make students learn the advanced technology knowledge from Japan and where from the major of chemistry during that period. However, there was no specific College Japanese Curriculum to guide the universities for Japanese teaching and learning. Instead, the teaching objectives and requirements were more likely to follow the first College English teaching planning in 1962 (Fu, 2013).

Foreign language policy reforms were coupled with the reform of the teaching percent arrangement of foreign languages. In March of 1964, the China State Council and Ministry of Higher Education highlighted the importance of foreign language teaching and learning at the context of colleges and universities -'Outlines of Foreign Language Education for Seven Years', which tended to abolish a traditional educational theory and replace it by decreasing the percentage of Russian teaching, while increasing the percentage of English education. These outlines focused on the students who majored in non-foreign languages, and the requirements were to foster stronger academic reading ability of students in and certain ability of basic conversations, some excellent students could achieve this ability within the high level (Fu, 1986; He, 1993). These outlines also clarified the requirements of teaching hours, contents and objectives for English and Russian teaching and learning. However, the College Japanese course still did not have independent teaching requirements, and had to apply the outline given for English in Japanese classes (Wei, 2010).

Two different Japanese courses shared the same requirements for the different

identified students in Chinese universities. Public Japanese course is designed for the students who learn non-foreign language majors, and students who are learning foreign languages, but are more suitable for the course of Japanese as a second foreign language. However, these two Japanese courses applied the same requirements, textbook selection and teaching strategies, which when tended to form the College Japanese Syllabus (Liu, 2009).

College English education has experienced fluctuations in China due to the fall and rise of political movements and the changes to economic policies since it resumed in 1978 (Yu, 2016). College English has witnessed noticeable development, and two relevant guideline documents have been formulated, specifically, the National College English Teaching Syllabus 1985 and 1986. The two syllabuses also played a part in guiding the Japanese teaching and learning at higher education.

In 1993, the first College Japanese syllabus – 'College Japanese (second foreign language) Teaching Syllabus' proposed the aims of teaching and learning Japanese at universities, which tried to improve students' basic translation, listening, writing and speaking abilities, and then took Japanese to understand the knowledge of their majors and use for their further study of Japanese (Wu, 2018).

The College Japanese Syllabus 1993 had ambiguity defined teaching aims, and ignored the specific teaching contents and requirements on syllabus application. The College foreign language teaching steering committee proposed College Japanese teaching requirements in 2006 (Chen and Zhao 2006). The requirement of 2006 followed the College Japanese Syllabus of 1993, College English Syllabus of 1999 and College English Curriculum Requirements of 2004, and clarified the identity of students who could learn Japanese as their foreign language, both undergraduate and postgraduate who majored in foreign languages. The flexible requirements suggested the universities could arrange 2 – 4 terms of teaching time according to the different teaching plans of universities. There were 4 Japanese proficiency levels for the students with each level

being defined by students' vocabulary, and being completed within 60 teaching hours. Teaching contents were full of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and daily communication and culture knowledge. The learner autonomy was also stressed to encourage students to learn independently. Teachers have to decide the teaching materials and methods by themselves (Chen and Zhao, 2006). *Figure 2.2* below shows the aims, contents and objectives of Japanese teaching requirements 2006.

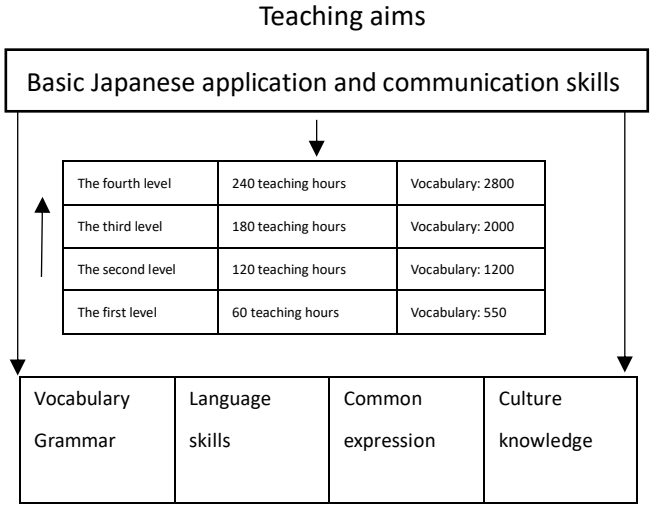


Figure 2.2 Basic requirement of College Japanese (Chen and Zhao, 2006, p. 26)

2.3.3 Assessment and Testing criteria

Information collected during the formative evaluation is to address the identified problems and improve the implementation of the programme, whereas summative assessment seeks to make decisions about the worth or value of various respects of the curriculum (Richards, 2001). In the foreign language context in China, formative assessment is seen as the supportive evaluation for the summative assessment (Meng, 2016). The aim of the present assessment system is limited by the students' scores in the tests. English test results represent the end of the assessment process as College English Tests (CET) become the primary learning outcome assessment method for non-English major colleges/universities students in China.

To reinforce the implementation of College English Teaching Syllabuses 1985 and 1986,

the College English testing system is adopted (Yang, 2003). In 1986, a team of experts gathered together to prepare the design and implementation of College English Tests. These tests were first called Band 4 and Band 6, referred to later as CET 4 and CET 6. CET is grounded in psychometrics to secure an objective, scientific and fair measure of whether undergraduates meet the requirements prescribed in the syllabuses (Yang & Weir, 2001). The first CET 4 was administered in 1987, and the first CET 6 was introduced in 1989. The CET format at that time consisted solely of paper-and-pencil tests. Items of grammar structure and reading were mostly in the form of multiple-choice questions and test scores were based on a 100-point scale, with 60 as the passing grade. During this period, CET was used exclusively as the assessment instrument of college English education, until the pass rate of CET 4 gradually became a criterion to evaluate and rank institutions of higher education. Further, many colleges and universities link the pass rate of CET with English teachers' rewards and promotion. Some even associate the CET scores with students' degrees and graduation (Wang, 2007). Consequently, students and teachers' attention is therefore directed towards the test rather than the actual process of English learning (Yang, 2003).

The test purpose of CET is to assess college students' English proficiency in China and to help achieve the objectives specified in CECR (National College English Testing Committee, 2006, p.3). CET consists of three tests: CET 4, CET 6, and CET-Spoken English Test (CET SET). The National College English Testing Committee (NCETC) organises and holds CET twice a year, usually at the end of each school term, acting on behalf of the Higher Education Department, Ministry of Education and each test lasts 145 minutes.

CET-Spoken English Test which lasts roughly 20 minutes is also held twice a year, usually a few weeks before the end of each school term. The CET report cards list the total scores with scores gained in the four sections of the test. Full marks of 710 consists of four sub-scores in listening comprehension and reading comprehension, each is contributing to 249 points (35%) and scores in close, writing, and translation

constituting 70 points and 142 points respectively (Yang & Jin, 2001; Kunnan, 2004; Meng, 2016).

As CET scores are linked to students' degrees, teachers' reward and promotion in many colleges and universities, exam-oriented teaching is common practice (Gu & Liu, 2005). CET seems to regard only the assessment method as a means of measuring students' English learning, although the generally accepted function of testing is to gain a fair indication of students' academic success. (Cheng & Curtis, 2010). However, passing the CET would be the leading English learning motivation for the college/university students, and will likely affect their attitudes towards college English learning and further affect their language learning needs and behaviours. The impact of CET on classroom context, therefore, suggests the teacher may be pushed towards a form of test-centred pedagogy method.

For checking the accomplishment of College Japanese Teaching Syllabus's requirements, the experts followed the outline of College English Test (CET) to design and implement the Japanese Language Test (CJT) Band 4 and Band 6 in 1993. These consisted of paper-and-pencil tests with multiple-choice questions and a writing test, and test scores were based on a 100-point scale, with 60 set as the passing grade. The CJT result is an outcome assessment method and graduation requirement for Japanese majored students. However, for the non-Japanese major students, passing the mid-term and final-term exams is the domain assessment and testing (National Japanese Examinations Unit, 2003).

2.3.4 Textbooks organisation and selection

For College English implementation in China, the function of the syllabus is not only to define the teaching process and objectives but also affects the compilation and selection of textbooks. Textbooks often undergo a changing process in curriculum development and adjustment. Once a new syllabus is issued, new requirements in the revised syllabus often lead to the revision of textbooks or the compilation of new

textbooks. *Table 2.1* lists the textbook used from 1980 to 2009:

Table 2.1 English Textbooks used from 1980 to 2005 (Meng, 2016)

Time	Syllabus	Textbooks Title	Publisher
1980-1985	College English Teaching Syllabus (draft) 1980	English (Shanghai Jiaotong University)	People's Education Press, 1980
1986-1998	College English Teaching Syllabus 1985 College English Teaching Syllabus 1986	College English (Fudan University, Peking University, etc.)	Shanghai Foreign language Education Press, 1986
		Modern English (Fudan University) College	Macmillan Publishers Ltd & Higher Education Press, 1986
		Core English (Shanghai Jiaotong University)	Higher Education Press, 1987
		New English Course (Tsinghua University)	Tsinghua University Press, 1987
1999 – present	College English Syllabus 1999 College English Curriculum Requirements 2004 (for trail implementation)	Twenty-first Century College English (Fudan University, Shanghai Jiaotong University	Fudan University Press, 1999
		New college English (Zhejiang University	Fudan University Press, 1999
		College English (new) (Fudan University, Peking University, etc.)	Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, 2002
		New Horizon college	Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 2003
		Experiencing English	Higher Education Press, 2004

		New Era Interactive English	Tsinghua University Press, 2004
		New perspective English learning system	Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, 2004
		New Standard College English	Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 2009

The College English Teaching Syllabus (draft) 1980 underpins the ‘English' textbook, which consists of four volumes, aimed at students who have learned English in high school and have acquired more than 700 words (Wang, 2001). As regards its organisation, in the first volume, every unit comprises six elements: text, word study, structure study, guided conversation, listening comprehension, and reading materials. Guided writing is added to the second volume. At the end of the second volume, structure study and guided conversation are deleted and replaced by a new section called `A guide to translation from English into Chinese' (Meng, 2016). In general, the compilation and selection of textbooks transfer the aims and requirements from the syllabus to the teaching contents; it is therefore the connection and development of language policy from the colleges/universities context to the classroom context. The contents of ‘English' responds to the Syllabus (1980) draft, which stresses the teaching objective of students' reading ability improvement.

Each textbook aims to improve students' integrated language skills; each unit therein is divided into several parts regarding different language skills. *Table 2.2* presents the design of each unit in the textbook.

Textbook	English (1980)	College English (1986)	New College English (1999)
Language skills	Reading first	Listening Speaking Reading	Listening Speaking Reading

		Writing Translation (reading first)	Writing Translation (emphasis on listening)
Item arrangement	Grammar-based	Topic-based (integrated course)	Topic-based
Design of activities	Grammar, Vocabulary guided, Conversation, Listening, Comprehension Guided writing Translation	Vocabulary, Word building Structure, Cloze Translation, Paragraph writing, Pair work, Group discussion, etc.	Question-answer, Word building, Translation, Blank-filling Pair work, Role-play, Group discussion, Story-telling, Debate, Speech, Simulated dialogue, Writing, etc.

Table 2.2 Comparison organisation and content of English textbooks. (Meng, 2016)

As can be seen from the above table, the textbook ‘English' (1980) takes reading as its primary concern whereas ‘College English' and ‘New College English' and ‘Experiencing English’ provide students with opportunities to develop multiple language skills. Most of the existing textbooks attempt to keep up with the teaching objective of developing students' comprehensive language abilities, especially listening and speaking. From the design and organisation perspective of ‘English’, the function of the textbook seems rather for teachers to explain the meaning and the usages of words and grammatical structures, with the exercise section used for language skills and abilities evaluation in and after class. Students follow the teachers' instruction and explanation of the vocabulary and grammar knowledge from the textbook. It seems that textbooks were more for the teachers rather than for the students' usage.

Different from the function of College English textbooks selection, which tried to match the requirements of the syllabus. There was no specific College Japanese Syllabus before 1993, so the College Japanese textbooks application was more originated and formed by the teachers’ lesson plans. The new lesson plans often lead

to new textbooks being issued (Yu, 2013). *Table 2.3* below lists the Japanese textbooks used from 1959 to present:

Time	Textbooks Title	Publisher
1959-1962	The first year textbook of College Japanese (Yellow Book)	Peking University Press, 1959
1962-1972	Japanese (Blue Book)	Peking University Press, 1962
1972-1977	Basic Japanese (Science students)	Hunan University Press, 1972
1977-1988	Technology Japanese	The Commercial Press, 1977
1988-2005	Standard Japanese	People's Education Press, 1988
2005-present	New Standard Japanese	People's Education Press, 2005

Table 2.3 Japanese Textbooks used from 1959 to present (by author)

The aims of each textbook were to try and promote popular Japanese science knowledge, improve students' Japanese translation skills by using reference books to understand the knowledge of their majors. From the textbook of Standard Japanese, language knowledge and culture understanding were both important for students' Japanese learning. This book was co-authored by Chinese and Japanese experts, which took into account Chinese people's thinking methods and values. The compilation of textbooks followed the sequence from easy to difficult and focused on pronunciation and vocabulary issues, which were more suitable for the Japanese beginner (Zhang, 2017). The two volumes of Standard Japanese textbooks consisted of 14 units taught over 36 classes. The structure of them was divided into 'basic text' -describing the language context; 'grammar explanation' -taking examples to interpret grammatical knowledge; 'expression and word expression' -stressing the sentence structures, grammatical items and relative expression of the 'basic text'; 'application text' -applying the language knowledge into reality; and 'exercises' -retaining knowledge learned (Zhang, 2017).

‘New Standard Japanese’ volume 1 and 2 became the main textbook for College Japanese courses. Compared with the old version, the revision book updated the number of units and closely followed the same structure. There are 12 units with 48 classes in the new version; it also deleted the part of ‘expression and word expression’ and kept ‘basic text’, ‘grammar expression’, ‘application text’ and ‘exercises’. The content of the textbooks focused more on conversation and role play methods to describe the realities of Japanese usage (Song, 2016). However, the application of this two textbooks could not cover students’ Japanese abilities and skill improvements for passing examinations; improving listening and writing; and understanding Japanese culture and literature. Instead, students have to take the library resources to find more additional books to achieve their goals (Song, 2016).

Almost all textbooks focus on the explanation of the grammatical rule. However, the students' interests, preferences, and perceptions in their experience of textbook usage are not taken into any serious consideration. Students' needs, education and linguistic background are not considered as necessary in the compilation of textbooks. Curriculum change and development stress the importance of the multimedia teaching model, to move away from the teacher-centred classroom context and encourage students' self-learning. Visuals like pictures, line drawings, and cartoons also universally appear in the new textbooks, with such elements being used for presentation and practice to attract students' attention or provide meaningful context and these forms one of the support of the language teaching method (Cunningsworth, 2002). However, the students' experiences on the actual application of multimedia and visuals in the textbooks, and to what extent the learning resources are easy, or difficulty to access should also be discussed and receive priority.

2.3.5 Teaching and learning models

The reforms of China’s College English Curriculum continuously stress the aim of improving students' English communicative competence. Brown (1987), based on

Canal and Swain's description (1980), summarised the four components of communicative competence as grammatical competence, which deals with 'sentence-level grammar'; sociolinguistic competence, which is related to socio-cultural rules of language and is not restricted to the literal meaning of utterances; discourse competence, which concerns the relationships between sentences; and strategic competence, which refers to the competence underlying our ability to make repairs, to cope with imperfect knowledge, and to sustain communication through 'paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style' (Savignon, 1998, p. 45).

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is characterized as a broad approach to teaching, rather than as a specific teaching method with a clearly defined set of classroom practices aiming to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching, and to develop procedures for the teaching of language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The representative classroom activities of CLT are games, information sharing activities, task-based activities, social interactions, and functional communication practice (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Through synthesizing various discussions (Littlewood, 1981, 2007; Maley, 1984; Prabhu, 1990; Nunan, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Brown, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Savignon, 2002; Brandl, 2008; Ellis, 2013), the main features of CLT can be summarised in *Table 2.4*.

Goals	Communicative competence; interaction and problem-solving
Activities	Roleplay, pair work, group work
Materials	Authentic materials: authentic language to solve a real problem, Integration of four skills.
Teaching content and focus	Fluency and pronunciation; communicative competence; integration of four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing)
Teacher's roles	Facilitator, guide and helper, coordinator, an ideas-person and a co-communicator; the needs analyst, the counsellor or the group process manager

Student's roles	Self-responsible for their learning; negotiator; participator; independent learner
Assessment	Language development as an ongoing process
Medium of instruction	Target language
Main features	Learner-centred, responsive to students' needs and interest, conversational interactions

Table 2.4 Summary of main features of CLT (Yu, 2016)

Burnaby and Sun (1989), in their research about the impact of language contexts on Chinese teachers' attitudes of CLT, argue that teachers perceive CLT as more appropriate to those planning to study or live in an English speaking country (ESL context), but not to those who plan to remain in China (EFL context). They contend that the traditional methods are thought to be more suitable to EFL students, given their specific needs and learning aims. Further, their study reveals that the pressure to teach for the grammar-focused examinations, the clash of two different teaching philosophies, large classes, lack of resources, and the low status associated with teaching language skills are all perceived as barriers to the successful application of CLT in China. Some other findings also resonate, namely, that both teachers and students demonstrate a preference for a grammar-based method and a resistance to a communicative approach (Hu, 2002; Rao, 2002).

However, Liao (2004) claims that CLT is the best methodology for China given the adoption of CLT as the government's position and the application of CLT may bring about a positive effect on English teaching and learning. Moreover, difficulties caused by the situational constraints (large class sizes, grammar-based tests) may be overcome, so he concludes that CLT is the best choice for Chinese teachers.

Contrary to Liao's absolutist view on the appropriateness of CLT for Chinese EFL classrooms, some researchers hold for an eclectic approach. Hu (2005), points out that rather than impose CLT, or any specific methodology on teachers, a more rational and

productive stance to take is to encourage teachers to adopt an eclectic approach, and draw on various methodological options at their disposal to meet the demands of their specific teaching situations. Therefore, he adds that it is necessary to encourage and help teachers to enhance their awareness of contextual influences, to build up their competence in analysing and overcoming contextual constraints, and to develop sound guidelines for making methodological choices (Yu, 2016).

Contextual and participatory factors need to be taken into consideration in College English teaching and learning in China. The form, development of Chinese College English has stimulated the change of course assessment and textbook arrangement. Further, the teachers' role is crucial to the delivery of the assessment innovation (Wall & Alderson, 1993). If the early need for teacher understanding and use is not met before a new assessment framework is implemented, no progress can be made in educational practice (Snow, 1989). Students, as the end users of the assessment policy (Higgins, Hartley & Skelton, 2002), also need to inform understanding about the assessment procedures and need guidance as to how (Fullan, 2004). There is no denying that college English education in China has made great efforts to meet the challenges brought by social transformation both at home and abroad. However, a new learning culture that involves new ways of learning and engaging with knowledge is needed for desirable learning outcomes (Shepard, 2000).

The College Japanese teaching model focused on the grammar knowledge teaching which followed the Japanese major teaching model and increased the learning difficulty for the non-language foreign language majored students (Yu, 2013). Here is the teaching contents and class arrangements of Jiangxi Normal College in 1957 *(see table 2.5).*

Table 2.5 Summary of teaching plan of College Japanese (Yu, 2013. P.62)

The number of week	Class hour	Date	Teaching contents
1st	1	Oct 9th	Pronunciation

	1	Oct 11th	Pronunciation
2nd	1	Oct 14th	Pronunciation
	2	Oct 1th, 18th	Pronunciation
3rd	1	Oct 21st	Pronunciation
	2	Oct 23rd, 25th	Pronunciation
4th	1	Oct 28th	Pronunciation
	2	Oct 30th, Nov 1st	Grammar in Subject; Objective; Predicate; Complement; Modifier; Pronoun
5th	1	Nov 4th	Numeral
	2	Nov 6th, 8th	Review and Test
6th	2	Nov 11th, 13th	Grammar in Nouns
	1	Nov 15th	Grammar in Nouns
7th	2	Nov 18th, Nov 20th	Grammar in Nouns
	1	Nov 22nd	Grammar in Nouns
8th	2	Nov 25th, Nov 27th	Grammar in Nouns
	1	Nov 29th	Grammar in Nouns
9th	2	Dec 2nd, Dec 4th	Grammar in Nouns
	1	Dec 6th	Grammar in Nouns
10th	2	Dec 9th, Dec 11th	Grammar in Verbs
	1	Dec 13th	Grammar in Verbs
11th	2	Dec 16th, 18th	Practice
	1	Dec 20th	Test
12th	2	Dec 23rd, Dec 25th	Grammar in Adjectives
	1	Dec 27th	Grammar in Adjectives
13th	1	Dec 30th	Grammar in Adjectives
	1	Jan 3rd	Grammar in Adjectives
14th	1	Jan 6th	Grammar in Adjectives
	2	Jan 8th, Jan 10th	Grammar in Adjectives
15th	1	Jan 13th	Grammar in Adjectives
	2	Jan 15th, Jan 17th	Grammar in Auxiliary Verbs
16th	1	Jan 20th	Grammar in Auxiliary Verbs
	2	Jan 22nd, Jan 24th	Grammar in Auxiliary

			Verbs
17th	1	Jan 27th	Grammar in Auxiliary Verbs
	2	Jan 29th, Jan 31st	Grammar in Auxiliary Verbs
18th	1	Feb 3rd	Review
	2	Feb 5th, Feb 7th	Test

Zhang (2018) finds students learning interests could not be stimulated by the traditional College Japanese teaching method without any culture knowledge explanations and grammar teaching would not make students confirm their motivations of Japanese learning. However, there is no specific grammar system teaching model for College Japanese course, and rather the teachers get the rights to design their own teaching strategies (Chen and Zhao, 2006).

2.3.6 Foreign language policy enactment in Chinese minority areas

There is no specific curriculum for minority foreign languages in China, as the minority colleges and universities still have to follow the *China College English and College Japanese Curriculum* to adjust and implement the requirements based on their own language context.

The College English Curriculum (2004) allows schools to spend 16% to 20% of their class time on school-based courses, knowledge about the local environment and the things relevant to students' lives. The College Japanese gave the rights of textbook selection and teaching model decision to teachers. At present, there are mainly three kinds of the curriculum in China. The first is the national curriculum, which means that it is compulsory for everyone, but the school can decide how much time they spend on one subject per week according to their priorities; the second is the area curriculum, which implies that one region may adopt a specific curriculum and this curriculum is appropriate for this regional area; the third is the school-based curriculum, meaning that the school may decide whether they want to try a project by using a particular kind of curriculum (Cobbey, 2007). Local schools in minority areas have the right to

decide which kind of programme and curriculum are best for their students, and language policy-makers, and education officials have started to pay more attention to the importance of the curriculum in multilingual education programmes (Cobbey, 2007). The unique foreign language teaching and learning context for Chinese minority students will be created by the regional education institution, based on the local language and social situations.

The implementation of Chinese FLPLP seems to be a flexible adjustment in the teaching content of national language policy for minority regions at the school level. More dynamic and multidimensional understandings of language policy from influences on individuals could explain the changing process of a language's features and usage from the past to the present. From an ethnographic perspective, some researchers explore the implementation of language policy and its significance on language behaviours, identities, social status, and struggle for the power of individuals as the main factors influencing language use. Similarly, teachers' daily activity in implementing language policy also shows the impact of language use on communicative practices and language attitudes (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). Foreign language teaching in the classroom becomes easier for teachers to enact or implement functionally since curriculum authorities or education ministries have taken the decisions. The language usage, interaction status, and even the textbook usage together describe the classroom context, which is not entirely autonomous and divorced from the official requirement, but sufficiently independent and distinctive to be understood as a factor of language policy implementation.

Stephen (2000) proposes that institutionalisation of a minority language policy may be a critical aspect in making a minority language acceptable in the social, cultural and linguistic domains or context both formally and informally. However, the foreign language policy for minorities also establishes provisions for multilingual education. Minority foreign language education activity affects each participant's view on language policy interpretation and therefore, provides support for improvement in the

multilingualism of the minority. Minority students' experiences of foreign language policy interpretation at the institutional level could be used to remedy the problems of language policy implementation which in turn, may have an impact on equal course access and success in promoting a more holistic educational policy *(See, Figure 2.3).*

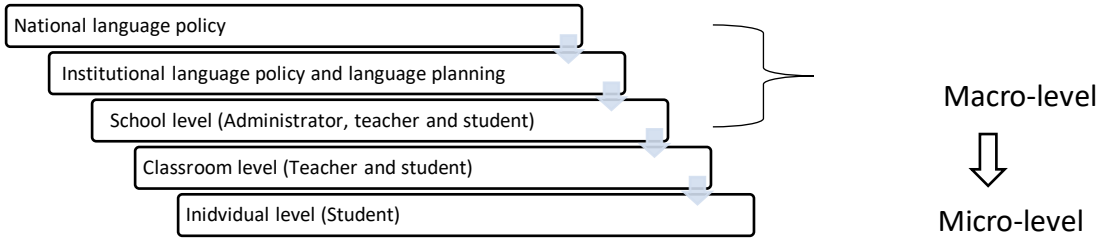


Figure 2.3 The contextual process of language policy implementation with different influential individuals (by author)

The national language policy goals of China are three-fold: to enhance literacy, to assure internal stability, and to strengthen the nation with the acquisition of scientific knowledge and economic progress, so as to withstand foreign aggression (Lam, 2007). Such a policy encourages and requires trilingualism *(see figure 2.4)*: competence in Chinese mandarin and a foreign language, as well as a local/home Chinese dialect, if Chinese mandarin is not normally spoken in the learner's local/home (for the Han Chinese) or a minority language (for the minorities) (Lam, 2007).



Figure 2.4 The structure of national language policy in China (by author)

The foreign language policy request both Han Chinese (majority) learners and minority learners to mostly learn English as their foreign language. Both groups of students felt their competence in foreign language (mostly English) was not good enough at the

point of completing secondary school (Lam, 2005). The minority learners facing the greatest linguistic challenge are those from small ethnic minorities living among the Han Chinese, such as in eastern Inner Mongolia, North Xingjiang, Yanbian, because, in addition to or in lieu of learning their own minority language (Mongolian, Uygur, Korean) used at home, they usually have to first learn Chinese mandarin for everyday communication in their locale or even for classroom interaction in their early years before they are taught in Putonghua, and have to learn English as their foreign language at school (Lam, 2007). Among the ethnic minorities (106,430,000 people constituting about 8.4% of the total population in China) (National Bureau of Statistics of the People's Republic of China, 2001), 55 groups of whom are officially recognised, over 80 to 120 languages are spoken (State Language Commission, 1995: 159; Zhou, 2003). The Chinese constitution supports minority language rights, yet the reality nowadays is very complex and greatly depends on the stance taken by local authorities, which vary from promotion to permission to tolerance (Zhou, 2005).

The multi-layer of language context of minority areas in China, such as foreign language policy and language planning at the eastern Mongolian university illustrate its curriculum-inflected building blocks. The understanding of Japanese teaching context for Mongolian students, emphasised the significance of taking into account the context in which a foreign language policy and language planning is located. Japanese curriculum at the eastern Mongolian University took the teaching aims, objectives, contents, assessment and teaching model from syllabuses of College English and College Japanese. The development procedures of Japanese Curriculum for Mongolian students is described *by figure 2.5*:

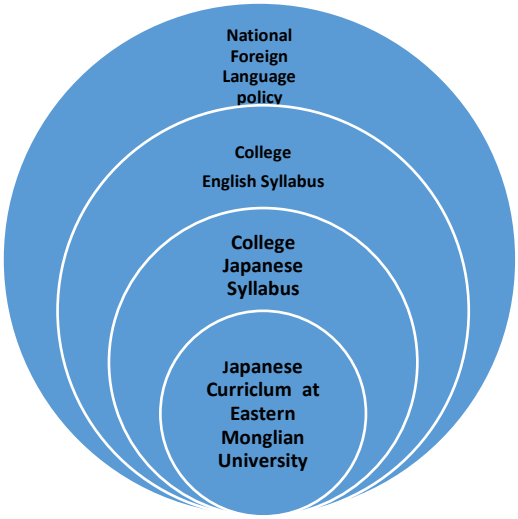


Figure 2.5 Description of Japanese Curriculum development procedure (by author)

Language choice for minority students in China is considered a desirable educational objective with all the targets of competence in languages must be achievable to learn. The operational principles tend to (1) Provide minority learners with the choice to receive basic education in their mother tongue or Chinese mandarin, the official language, whenever resources permit; (2) Provide all learners with the choice to study an additional language (which could be either English, another foreign language, or even a minority language in China) as a subject at specific points in the educational system; (3) Create a special educational stream or a group of institutions to enable learners to become bilingual or multilingual to ensure that a certain percentage of the population in China will be highly competent in Chinese mandarin and another foreign language to meet China's national language policy needs to communicate with the rest of the world (Lam, 2007).

2.4 Summary

This chapter has explained the differences and relations among language policy, language planning, curriculum and syllabus for forming the contents and structure of FLPLP at the university level in a minority area in China. The historic review of China's College English and Japanese clarifies the change of curriculum requirements and objectives in linguistic and non-linguistic perspectives; the main concerns are for

students' individual needs of instrumental learning; learning materials organization and selection and assessment criteria; teaching and learning model, thus, it is of great significance to stimulate local schools to set up their goals and requirements, and provide the contents evaluation for participants' self-reflection towards FLPLP implementation at classroom and self-learning contexts. The measurements of participants' language cognitions and behaviours of FLPLP enactment in different language contexts will be the main focus of the next chapter.

Chapter Three: Literature Review: Language learners' attitude and motivation

3.1 Introduction

Language attitude and motivation have been a principal concern in the L2 context for many years. To understand the nature and the complex process of foreign language policy and language planning (FLPLP) implementation from participants' understanding, it is necessary to generate a theoretical framework to explore the contents, cause-effect sequence, affective factors of participants' language cognitions and behaviours in different language contexts, which is the primary focus of this chapter.

This chapter firstly illustrates the theories of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs, which are discussed to provide the content of participants' cognitive understanding towards different language contexts. Thereafter, theories of motivation in an L2 context are presented, functioning as a bridge connecting language learner attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and their language behaviours. Then, this chapter moves on to review multilingual participants' language comparisons in learning difficulties, mistakes and errors in the self-learning context. Finally, an initial model of a completed procedure of foreign language policy and language planning enactment in different language contexts though participants' understanding is designed, which serves as the initial theoretical framework for study upon which to design the research methodology.

3.2 The content and structure of language attitude

In this section, the nature of attitude, the content of language attitude, and the understanding, measurements and determinants of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs are explored in order to build the conceptual basis for further discussion of theories of language learners' cognitions toward FLPLP implementation

in different language contexts. Similar to FLPLP enactment at different stages, language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs determine learners' cognitive understandings of language learning in different contexts. The separate explanation of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs may therefore facilitate a clearer analysis of the content and cause-effect sequence between language cognitions and behaviours in different language contexts.

3.2.1 The nature of attitude

The nature of attitude can be defined as an expression of like or dislike, with attitude as a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour (Baker, 1992). Attitude seems to embody an awareness different from its current meaning, which may affect the action or decision. For Allport (1935) 'attitude is a mental or neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individuals' response to all objects and situations with which is related' (cited by Baker, 1992, p. 11). Attitude affects how we view the world, what we think, and what we do. This expression on the nature of attitude takes people's cognitions and experience towards specific objects and contexts to explore the influential factors of their behaviours. Palikara, Lindsay and Dockrell (2009) believe that attitude research is evaluating the time and effort in understanding how people's attitudes form, how their attitudes influence people's daily lives, and how their attitudes change over time. Research into attitude tends to focus more on the content of attitude; the relationship between attitude and behaviour; influential factors related to attitude.

For Ajzen (1988), the content of attitude is a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution or event' (p.4). Similarly, Eagly & Chaiken (1993, p. 1) explain 'attitude as an association in memory between a given object and a given summary evaluation of the object'. Attitude is formed by people's categorisation of the stimulus of an object along an evaluative dimension of the person, object or issue with an enduring positive or negative feeling. Bem (1968) stresses the

relationship between attitude and behaviour, namely, that attitude is self-description or self-perception, and individuals come to recognise their attitudes by observing their behaviour. Attitude is therefore explained through inspection of one's inspection of one's own action. Festinger (1957) suggests attitude refers to an imbalanced state of beliefs and further, that inconsistent beliefs cause negative feelings which people predictably attempt to reduce. This suggests that one person with contradictory attitudes should be motivated to change his or her attitude to achieve consensus. Individual attitude is therefore interpreted by their own behavioural reflection, which further affects behaviour. However, Wicker (1969) reviewing earlier studies on exploring the relationship between attitude and behaviour concludes that attitude is a relatively weak predictor of behaviour, and the results have made many social psychologists begin to question the value of attitude (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Elms, 1975). If attitude cannot predict people's behaviour, then the construct is of limited use. To this criticism, by paying considerable attention to the exploration of when and how attitude would predict behaviour, that is, finding out the sequence model at different stages and analyzing the direct/indirect cause-effect relationship of attitude and behaviour, might better describe individual cognition and behaviour processes, not just predict behaviour. Lindsay et al. (2010) proposes that attitude can have numerous functions and needs for individuals. One of the most important features is the object appraisal function, that is, the capacity of attitude to serve as energy–saving device, which can make judgments easier and faster. Moreover, attitude may also help individuals express their values, identify with people they like, and protect people from negative feedback. Individual attitude is related to other variables such as age, gender and language attainment. Such a relationship tends to be independent of each other (Baker, 1992).

Based on the explanations of the content and function of attitude, the relationship between attitude and behaviour, affective factors of attitude, attitude research all stress the notion that showing your attitude means exercising an evaluative judgment of an object, which comes from self-evaluation of our behaviour in the current context.

According to Fasold (1984) and (2009), attitude encompasses three components including the cognitive (belief, knowledge, and perception), affective (feeling and emotions), and conative (action). Indeed, most theorists of attitude insist that evaluation is the predominant aspect of attitude, that is to say, showing an attitude includes deciding whether you like a particular issue, object, or person, institution or not, why you receive this awareness, and whether it will affect attitude and behaviour or not. Ajzen (1988) summarises this pattern and explains it in *Figure 3.1*:

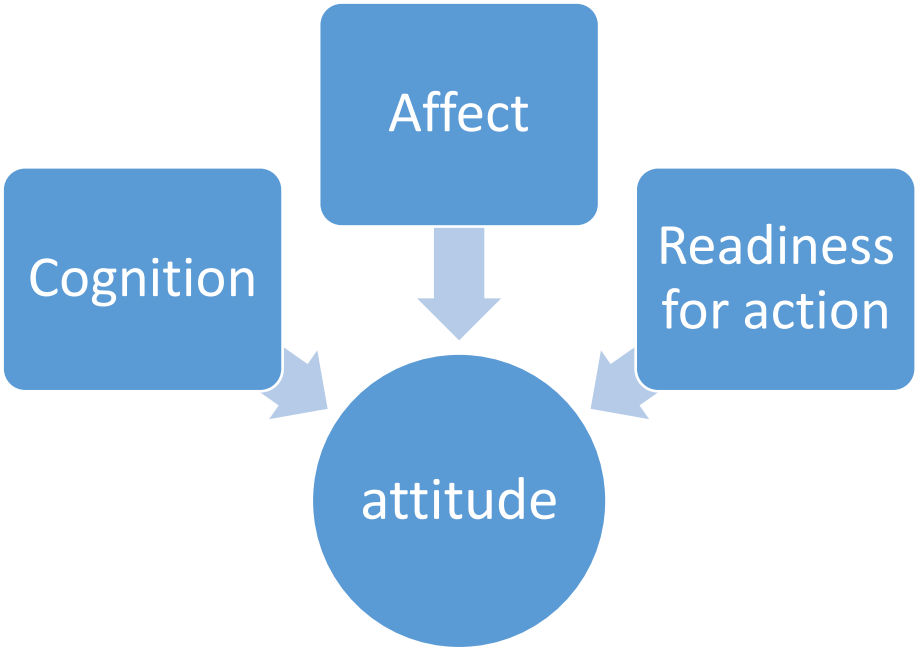


Figure 3.1 The components of attitude (Ajzen, 1988)

The hierarchical model of attitude offers the following account of the way in what content of attitude, and which and how attitude affects behaviour. The actual or symbolic content of an object evaluation is generally with favourable or unfavourable reaction. The nature of attitude tends to predispose cognitive, affective and conative responses to the object, responses whose evaluative tone is consistent with the overall attitude (Ajzen, 1988).

3.2.2 The content of language attitude

Language attitude narrows down the nature of attitude to the research of the language context, and language attitude is used as an umbrella term, which consists of a variety

of specific attitudes. Baker (1992) summarises the main attitude research that focuses on attitude to language variation, dialect, and speech style; learning a new language; a specific minority language; language groups, communities and minorities; language lessons; the usages of a specific language; language preference and attitude of parents to language learning. To the bilingual or multilingual student, a new foreign language learning context is unpacked by their attitudinal interest to target language learning for reasons of favorability and unfavourability. Attitude to German, French and English (Brendan, 2010) starts from investigating students' enjoyment and difficulties of target language learning, and then delving into their cognitive evaluations of curriculum, lessons, teacher, culture, the function of learning and peer attitudes.

In the last section, FLPLP interprets the language context, content, participant, objective and aim to describe the routine of language policy implementation. The importance of attitude in FLPLP provides an indicator of language learners' thoughts and beliefs, preferences and desires of target language learning; attitude also is regarded as a social indicator changing beliefs and the chances of success in policy implementation (Baker, 1992). A survey of attitude to French in Canada, attitude to Spanish in the USA, attitude to English in Japan might reveal the possibilities and problems of second languages within each country. E.G. Lewis (1981) observes that the policy for language, especially in the system of education, has to take account the attitudes of those likely to be affected. 'In the long run, no policy will succeed which does not do one of three things: conform to the expressed attitudes of those involved; persuade those to express negative attitudes about the rightness of the policy or seek to remove the cause of disagreement. In any case knowledge about attitudes is fundamental to the formulation of a policy as well as to success in its implementation' (p. 262). In the context of FLPLP, language attitude is used for understanding the content of enactment with participants' positive or negative awareness and finding out the cause-effect model of their negative cognitions, which improves their positive experience of target language learning. As Marsh (1982) argues, 'the key to the correct use of survey data to provide corroborative evidence of a causal process is in the

adoption of a model' (p.72). At any level, information on attitude may be necessary in attempting to represent the 'views of the people democratically'. Language attitude is most often measured at an individual level, or may be elicited from the common attitudes of a group or community, that is, language attitude research in FLPLP may aid understanding of policy implementation status and procedure.

Actually, there are few studies which take students' attitudes to investigate the completed language policy implementation procedure. From the importance of attitude in language policy implementation, language attitude is good for understanding the criteria of successful FLPLP with participants' positive views towards current language context and finding out the reasons for their disagreements. Attitude changes continuously with the change of language context, understating the participants' specific attitudes at different stages of FLPLP implementation, which, in turn, are used to figure out the reasons for attitude change.

3.2.3 The structure of language learner attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs

The last section reviews language attitudes as the opinions that speakers of different languages or language varieties hold about others' languages or their own language. Language attitude interprets participants' attitude towards the language context of FLPLP implementation. The two terms of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs, examine students' evaluations about target language learning and themselves as language learners, together with the consequences of these evaluations on learning outcomes (Wesely, 2012). Language learner attitude, perception and belief are students' cognitions about FLPLP enactment at different stages that relate to the language learning context and interaction between the learner and the context.

Attitude to multilingualism has recently received considerable attention from both first and second language researchers, and it has frequently been reported to be one of the most important and effective factors in second language learning. Most researchers exploring language attitudes conclude that attitude significantly influences learning

and that it should, therefore, be considered as an essential component of second language learning pedagogy (Inal et al., 2003). Understanding language learners is a crucial point for examining both observable and unobservable evidence about language learning. For example, a specific subset of language learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs about language learning are unobservable, so researchers have to ask language learners what they think and suppose that these thoughts are pertinent and essential to understanding how languages are learned and taught (Wesely, 2012). Wesely (2012) also summarises three general orientations of research into language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs. The first group of studies focuses more on the learners as the agents, and how the learners' static or largely unchanging attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs correlate with their own demographic or identity characteristics (i.e., "trait" or "learner" studies); the second mainly pays attention to how the learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs are affected by their learning situation (i.e., "state" or "environment" studies); and the third stresses the interaction between learners and their learning environment (i.e., "dynamic" or "complexity" studies). In the target language learning context, students appear to find out the sequence of cause-effect between cognition and language context by reviewing their ethnicity and language background and looking at self in different language contexts.

Many researchers have noted the distinction between trait and state influences on language learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs (Barcelos, 2003a; Dörnyei, 2009a, 2009b; MacIntyre, 2007). Barcelos (2003a, 2003b) proposes orientation to characterise those studies which focus on the dynamic, continuously negotiated, embedded and interconnected nature of learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs.

(1) Origins of language learners' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs

Most of the inquiry into learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs began in the 1970s and 1980s, and meanwhile, other studies were done to define and validate some key concepts to do further research (Wesely, 2012). Bartley (1970) correlates attitude with

attrition. Similarly, Gardner (1985) explored the attitude-dependent socio-educational model of language learning, and Horwitz (1988) operationalising the target construct, did a survey of its primary identified components, and then validated it. Some essential instruments such as Foreign Language Attitude Scale (FLAS) (Bartley, 1970), Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985), Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al., 1986), and Beliefs and Attitudes Language Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1988) were created, validated, or used in these studies. At the same time, other scholars (Spolsky, 1989; Skehan, 1989) mainly focused on the differences among individual learners, and their research also defined these concepts by using these tools. However, there was still some research about language learners' attitude, perspectives and beliefs in the 1990s, such as high-profile qualitative research (Norton, 1995) and survey research (Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1994). This review of the literature, therefore, is positioned in part to assess the learners' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs by survey-based research. The combination of survey and interview methods tends to present the content of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs in a target language learning context, and explain the sequence of FLPLP enactment and cause-effect that relate to language learning.

(2) The distinction of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs

Language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs together impact the FLPLP implementation at each level. There are mainly two different targets in the literature review about learners' attitude, that is, the attitude towards the learning environment (usually including the instructors and instructional techniques) (Gardner, 2005), and the attitude towards the target community (Yashima, 2009). For the target community, Yashima (2009) proposes the idea of "international posture", which refers to how students regard themselves as 'connected to the international community, with concerns for international affairs and … a readiness to interact with people (from the target culture)' (Yashima, 2009, p. 146).

Language learner perceptions, like language attitude, have been commonly associated with two areas in the literature, that is, the perception of learners and the perception of the learning surroundings (Wesely, 2012). The former refers to how learners understand themselves and their learning (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1999); while the latter means how students experience and understand aspects of the classroom such as the instructor's behaviour (Brown, 2009). Although some researchers pay more attention to one perceptual target or the other, most insist that these two types of perceptions are interrelated (Yastibas and Cepik, 2015). Different from language learner attitudes towards general language context of FLPLP, language learner perceptions more likely stress the students' cognitions on the learning procedure in the classroom context, and try to find the relationship between learners' awareness and teaching effects.

Few studies distinguished learners' perceptions from learners' beliefs, and it has been assumed to be more overarching and pervasive than learners' perceptions, as the literature tends to pay more attention to specific experiences (Yastibas and Cepik, 2015). The learners' beliefs contained the contents of learners' attitudes and perceptions. The concept of learners' beliefs refers to how learners think about themselves, about their learning surroundings and the target community. Learners' beliefs about themselves include beliefs about the learners' self-efficacy, or their 'judgments about their ability to organise and execute the curriculum of action required to master academic tasks' (Mills et al., 2007, p. 417; Bandura, 1997; Graham, 2006). It also encompasses more external targets, for example, Barcelos and Kalaja (2003) propose that learners' beliefs include students' 'opinions and ideas about learning a second/foreign language task' (p. 231). Horwitz (1988) regards learners' beliefs as 'students' opinion on various issues and controversies related to language learning' (p. 284). The content descriptions of language learner beliefs tend to summarise learners' beliefs as not just about the learning environment, but also about the target community, language and culture. Students' self-evaluate their learning difficulties, mistakes or errors through the gap between their language abilities

achievements and task requirements may affect their target language learning. The language learners' beliefs seemed to investigate their cognitions on the language context during the self-learning stage in multilingual language comparisons.

The investigation of language learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs in these studies mainly explore three areas, that is, how learners rate themselves as language learners, how they look at the language learning process, or how they look at the target community. Actually, the function of all three terms is similar to that of language learners' understanding of language context, and the relationship between language context and self-learning, but the more important reason for discussing them separately is that it may be used for classifying different language contexts clearly. Language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs explain the learners' evaluation at three stages of target language learning, that is, general impression about curriculum; reflection on classroom context; comparison between self-learning and curriculum requirement, which similarly fits the three levels of FLPLP implementation from university to classroom and self-learning context. The combination of these two terms is better to describe participants' cognitions and behaviours of foreign language education in content, structure, sequence and cause-effect model (affective factor).

3.2.4 Measurement of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs

Most language learner attitude measures historically involve direct or explicit indicators of attitude (Krosnick, Judd & Wittenbrink, 2005). These measures usually refer to self-report questionnaires in which subjects answer direct questions about their options, such as Foreign Language Attitude Scale (FLAS) (Bartley, 1970), Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985), Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al., 1986), and Beliefs and Attitudes Language Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1988).

The research on language learner attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs could arise from investigating whether the foreign language curriculum affects or does not affect the

attitudes, perceptions and beliefs of learners in that language programme. With some researchers indicating that there is no change (Gardner et al., 2004) or negative change (McKenzie, 2008), Heining-Boynton & Haitema (2007) find that learners' early elementary language learning experience may influence their positive attitudes later in life, and further, Nikolov (2001) claims there is a negative relationship between the previous language learning experience and current attitude. Another cluster of studies tries to explain how specific teaching practices are reflected (or not) in language learner attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs in that language programme. Interventions in this kind of research produced positive results. Dewey (2004) suggests that if instructors share their beliefs with their students on a specific instructional technique, the students' beliefs tend to mirror those of their instructor after the class has been completed. Inquiry-based programme (Altstaedter & Jones, 2009), and project-based learning (Mills, 2009) also enhance learner attitudes and self-efficacy.

The measurement of language learner attitudes is rarely likely to reveal their attitudes perfectly (Potter & Wetherall, 1987). Baker (1992) summaries three main reasons for this: 'firstly, people may respond to an attitude test in a way that makes them appear more prestigious, better and real. Consciously and unconsciously people tend to give socially desirable answers and project themselves in the best light. Then, people may be affected in their responses to an attitude test by the researcher and the perceived purpose of the research. Ethnic identity, gender, status, age, the language in its verbal and non-verbal forms, and social status of the researcher may each affect how an individual responds to an attitude test. Thirdly, a good attitude test needs to encompass the full range of issues of ideas involved in the topic. The initial item pool must cover the fullest range of possible attitudes in terms of topic, complexity and favorability and unfavorability. An item analysis on the item pool (to exclude the more unreliable items) must be executed on a representative and not atypical sample of people' (p. 19). From the challenges of language learner attitudes measurement, making sure of reliable data and validity in the research, the researchers tend to make it clear to the participant about the difference between actual language attitude and

ideal language attitude and try to collect these two kinds of attitudes separately. Language attitude research would try to describe a whole sequence of FLPLP implementation – multiple contexts, which involves multiple variables, interactions between variables, the causality, and bi-directional cause-effect links. The importance of a systematic approach to language attitude investigation tends to understand the contextual effects in relation to individual attributes. Students' language abilities, aptitudes, personality and motivation, the social nature of attitude formation and expression does require the explanation to include variation in social experience.

Bourhis et at. (1973) finds that bilingual speakers in Wales received positive evaluations from non-Welsh speakers and Welsh speakers alike.The Implicit Association Test (IAT; Greenwald et al., 1998) is one of the indirect measurements of attitude. In the IAT study, participants are asked to classify adjectives and attitude objects on their computers, then they are instructed to respond as quickly as possible, and the computer records the reaction time. IAT seems to stress that the self-report method is the major way of obtaining students' attitude. As regards other survey method, researchers consider gender differences might affect students' language learning; females exhibit more positive attitudes toward language learning (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2016). There are three different types of school in North Wales and Mid Wales which tends to describe the language context of Wales. First, over 70% of the population speak Welsh, while being a 'natural' Welsh school; Second, English medium school being situated in the context where 1 in 10 people speak Welch; Third, designated school, students are educated through the medium of Welsh but most of them derive from Welsh and English speaking home (Baker, 1985). Jones et, at. (2001) find that girls had more favourable attitudes to Welsh than boys; Baker (1988) suggests that among 10 and 15 years old students, attitudes to Welsh become less favourable; Roberts (1985 and 1987) finds that designated bilingual secondary schools in Wales contains a relatively strong and united sense of commitment and motivation amongst their teachers for Welsh language and Welsh cultural activities; Gardner (1985a) says that the higher the achievement, proficiency, and ability in a language, the more

favourable the attitude; Sharp et al. (1973) realizes that Welsh speaking population density in the neighbourhood is related to language attitude. The higher number of Welsh speakers in the neighbourhood, the more favourable the attitude on Welsh language. Baker (1985) suggests that being involved in an active participatory Welsh culture is important if attitude to Welsh is to remain favourable. Based on this research, language learner attitudes are affected by participants' gender, age, type of school, language ability, language and cultural background. Mackey and Gass (2012) summarise Koroms and Csizér's (2008) investigation into attitudes, selves, and motivated learning behaviour of learning English as a foreign language to propose the general structure of measurement of language learner attitudes. The function of this particular questionnaire of language attitude research seeks to find out any possible differences among different learner groups who studied English in the same language context, and also tries to text the main constructs of Dörnyei's L2 motivation self-system, namely the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self, and explores the relationship of these variables with more traditional motivational and attitudinal constructs such as integrativeness and instrumentality. This research employs 27 closed questions to understand students' attitudes toward feelings about English speaking countries, people and culture; external incentives; personal goals and academic achievements. Baker (1992) believes that two components of language attitudes have been located by research: an instrumental orientation and an integrative orientation. Instrumental attitude reflects 'pragmatic, utilitarian motives. It is characterised by a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language' (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 14). Instrumental attitude might understand students' vocational reasons, status, achievement, personal success, self-enhancement, self-actualisation or basic security and survival for learning a second language, or preserving a minority language (McClelland, 1961; Baker, 1992). 'An instrumental attitude to a language is mostly self-oriented and individualistic and would seem to have conceptual overlap with the need for achievement. Thus, an integrative attitude to a particular language may concern attachment to, or identification with a language group and their cultural activities (Baker, 1976; 1992, p. 32). Motivation in L2 learning

as the origins of language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs, has a close connection with 'the affective characteristics of learners, and refers to the learning direction and scope of learners regarding their learning choices, intensity, and duration' (Dörnyei, 2009a, p. 231). Gardner (2005) proves that motivation was a way to understand learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs, and it offered 'one parsimonious way of accounting for individual differences in second language acquisition' (p. 21). The students' instrumental and integrative motivations help to understand the content of language attitudes, perceptions and beliefs, while the sequence of cause-effect in students' language cognition and behaviour, and affective attitude seem unable to be investigated simply through survey methods of motivation. Baker (1992) proposes that document analysis, content analysis, interviews, case studies, autobiographies and matched guise technique are also well-established alternatives for the attitude research.

3.2.5 Determinants of language learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs

(1) Language context

The language learners' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs seem to be naturally related to the language context differences, and the content and cause-effect sequence of their understanding towards target language learning is constantly changing with different language contexts evaluation. According to Rifkin, learner beliefs about foreign language learning are at least as diverse as the 'languages, levels, and institutions in which the learners are studying and that teachers and researchers cannot assume that beliefs identified in one group of learners are representative of the beliefs of learners of different languages, at different levels, or at different kinds of institutions' (2000, p. 407). Attitudes toward FLPLP are formed, enacted and changed through the interaction of individual attributes and language context at a different stage. Students' different language attitudes, perceptions and beliefs of FLPLP implementation tend to be affected by their different understandings about the FLPLP at a different level. Rifkin's (2000) large-scale study on learners' beliefs, which finds that learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs cannot always be analysed

independently. The studies with a state or environmental orientation features have examined how learning contexts influence some learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs. By collecting and comparing learners' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs in different environments, the role that environment plays in learners' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs can be understood, and this naturally suggests that a comparative framework should be adopted, in which participants draw and compare two or more learning settings. That seems more sufficient to describe the procedure of FLPLP enactment and find the cause-effect sequence between language learner attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and language contexts.

Horwitz (1999) uses 'Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory' (BALLI) to investigate the influence of culture and environment on language learners' beliefs, she finds that U.S. Japanese learners' beliefs were different from those of any other FL learners, that is, the former need a longer time to learn a foreign language, have a lower evaluation for their language ability, depend more on lexical and grammatical instruction, and have stronger beliefs that their language knowledge is helpful for them to get a good job. Horwitz (1987, 1999) organizes students' beliefs of foreign language learning into five categories: 'the difficulty of language learning (general difficulty of language learning; relative difficulty of the target language; optimism about language learning; estimates of time it will take to learning a language), foreign language aptitude (child superiority; general aptitude; personal aptitude), the nature of language learning (language study compared to other subjects; primacy of vocabulary learning; primacy of grammar study; primacy of translation), learning and communication strategies (importance of accent; beliefs about guessing), and motivations and expectations (job expectation, perceived importance of specific target language)' (pp. 560-569). The research suggests that students' beliefs on language context, the difficulty of target language learning, and learning motivation should be considered as the source of variation in students' beliefs of foreign language learning. Clayton (2006) asked U.S. university students to rank their reasons for choosing a language in a questionnaire, and the results showed that learners' general reasons for learning languages

correlated with the languages that they ended up taking; for instance, learners who largely expressed a desire to fulfil the requirement would select Spanish, while others who are interested in communication would choose Hebrew, Portuguese, Italian, Japanese, Chinese or Korean. Learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs have a relation to the classroom teaching of different languages, which are important issues for many stakeholders in FL education in the United States. Students beliefs on target language learning tend to reflect their cognitions about the relation between their learning and current language context, while their attitudes toward the previous context also slightly affect their target language learning. Gardner et al. (2004) finds the invariant attitudes of learners among different sections of the same Canadian university French classes, and it was clear from the survey-based studies of Brown (2009) and Kondo-Brown (2001) in U.S. university that students in early stages of language instruction had slightly less positive attitudes to language study than students at more advanced levels. The different language attitude in the course of FL classes is not uniformly positive, and some studies indicate that there is no change (Gardner et al., 2004) or there is negative change (Worth, 2008). Similarly, some longitudinal studies have explored changes over many years, and such research results show that early elementary experiences with language learning can have a positive (Heining-Boynton & Haitema, 2007) or a negative) influence on later life (Nikolov, 2001).

Summarising language attitude studies with language context orientations, Yastibas and Cepik (2015) make a direct commentary on the way language educators teach, the programme and structure FL classes, and connections with the way learners understand and process their language learning experiences. Learners' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs have been acknowledged and addressed in FL programmes, which cause the emergence of a theme, so it is necessary to incorporate these attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs into how teachers plan their classes. In the language context of a summer university-level Spanish immersion programme, Liskin-Gasparo (1998) explores learners' perceptions of their linguistic ability and learning experiences,

and through a case study, demonstrates explicitly how contextual factors in the learning environment connect with learners' perceptions of their progress and performance. Allen (2010) and Yager (1998) find that learners get conflicting and ambiguous beliefs about this special language programme. For example, these learners assessed this immersion language context as the best way to learn the language, but they also explain their belief that formal grammar and vocabulary learning is the only way to achieve accurate and fluent language competency. To bring these conflicting beliefs into consonance, learners constantly re-imagine and re-interpret their experiences as language learners. Williams & Burden (1999) ask early adolescent language learners in England about how they know they can do well in their French class in a qualitative study and explained in detail how learners emphasised both their own perceptions of their success and the perceptions of their instructors and classmates as influences on their own impressions. Ogulnick (2000) finds that learners share their 'linguistic autobiographies', and describe their own language learning experiences in social, cultural, and political contexts. Bartram (2010) investigates students' attitudes to learning German, French and English. The structure and content of language attitude towards a specific language are listed in *Figure 3.2.*

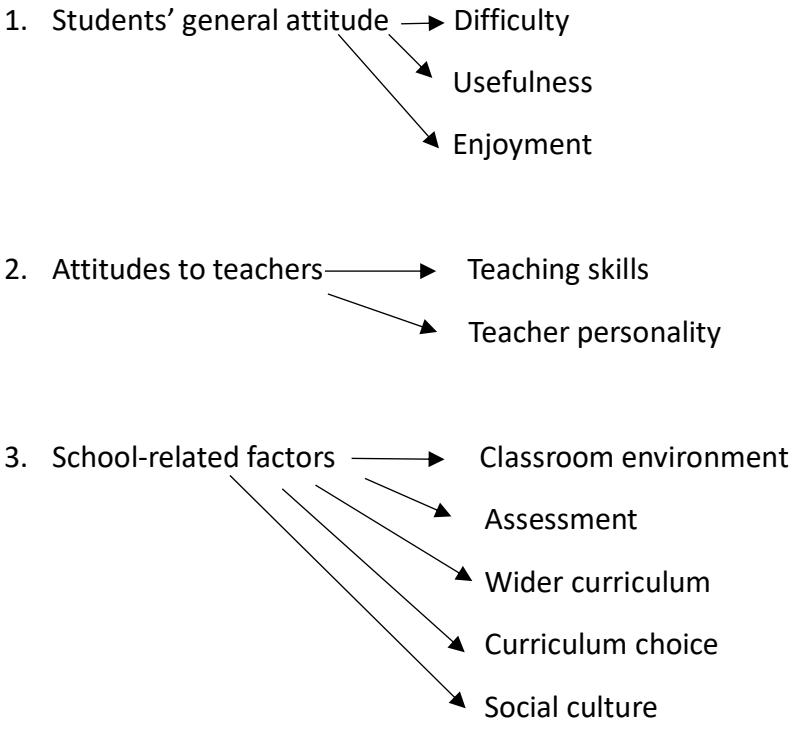


Figure 3.2 The structure and content of language attitude research (summarised by author)

In Bartram's language attitude research, the findings of students' attitudes to a foreign language are presented and provide language-specific attitude detail. The language attitude is formed by three sections: it opens with a general examination of attitudes, follows by a more detailed review of educational, and finally sociocultural and context dimensions. The nature of language learning attitudes within different language context analysis seems to identify students' enjoyment and difficulties of target language learning. However, the similarity between the language acquired and the target language is also the key issue in language attitude regard. 'Difficulty is not always associated with a lack of enjoyment, and this needs to be borne in mind when examining the language attitude, where difficulty emerged a prominent theme' (Bartram, 2010, p. 161).

(2) Learner characteristics

The language learners' characteristics with the bilingual or multilingual background and their viewpoints of target language learning seem to be fused or can exist in tandem. Baker (1992) finds the attitudes of bilingual students on language context in Welch, is that two languages can co-exist in a positive, helpful and mutually reciprocating beneficial manner. Baker (1992) also summarise the integrated viewpoint on bilingualism in terms of Welsh and English language statements: Speaking both Welsh and English is important; better than speaking one language, makes people clever; helps with finding employment; helps someone to benefit from two cultures; important be read in two languages. Multiplication rather than division. The minority students' attitudes that one plus one make more than two, the Welch bilingual students believe that there are additive outcomes of a partnership between two languages. There is a case study of minority language learners of German (Dressler, 2010) and an interview with Mongolian bilinguals of Chinese (Wu, 2004), the results of which indicate that the ways in which some university students view themselves as minority learners have a strong relationship with the way they felt about their own linguistic experience and investment. A qualitative study supported the relationship

between minority identity and linguistic and cultural investment. Bearse & de Jong (2008) compare Spanish L1 students and English L1 students in a two-way high-school language immersion programme and find that the former valued Spanish as a significant connection with their families and identities. In all the above studies, minority learners' beliefs about what is valuable in language learning related to their own identities as minority learners and their self-concept. Other kinds of learners' characteristics, especially those who identify learners with traditionally underrepresented populations in foreign language learning, have largely been ignored in recent research. Moore (2005) finds the reasons why the enrolment of African-Americans in a language class is relatively low in an exploratory way and found that these students' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs about language learning are mostly positive, and that their low motivation is caused by a lack of systematic access and encouragement rather than other attitudinal factors.

(3) Attitude vs its related term - motivation

Within the field of language attitudes, the terms attitude and motivation often appear without discussion of the extent of overlap and difference. Both attitudes and motives refer to latent dispositions affecting the directionality of behaviour, but not to external behaviour itself (Shaw & Wright, 1967). Newcomb (1950) distinguishes the difference between attitude and motive, that is, motives have an existing drive state, attitude does not, although attitudes may produce drives, while attitudes are object-specific, motives are goal specific. Whether these are merely fine semantic discriminations or real distinctions for which a discriminating terminology is required, is a moot point.

The more critical difference seems to lie in the terms representing two different psychological traditions. Both attitude and motivation are a complex and dynamic processes in language learning, which keep changing with the change of language context. The participants' attitudes in the specific language context are used for evaluations on the implementation of language policy and language planning requirements, which helps to find out the criteria of popular or successful language

policy and language planning. Motivation, however, takes participants' desires and goals to measure the status of their task completion. Attitude and motivation also consider the participants' cognitive understandings on previous and current learning experiences through the self-determination method that affected their language learning behaviour. Language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs clarify much more the learners' actual and ideal cognitive understandings in different language learning procedures and contexts. It combines learners' specific desires and goals from macro to micro level of language policy and language planning implementation involved in learners' evaluations on the language context of school, classroom, and self-learning. Language learners' attitude, perception and belief refer to the language cognitions about positive or negative views towards language policy implementation, and how attitudes relate to the causes and effect. It also cares about the language learners' motivation on cognitive and action aspects to explore learners' goals, desires, reasons and decisions of their language behaviours.

3.3 Motivation in an L2 context

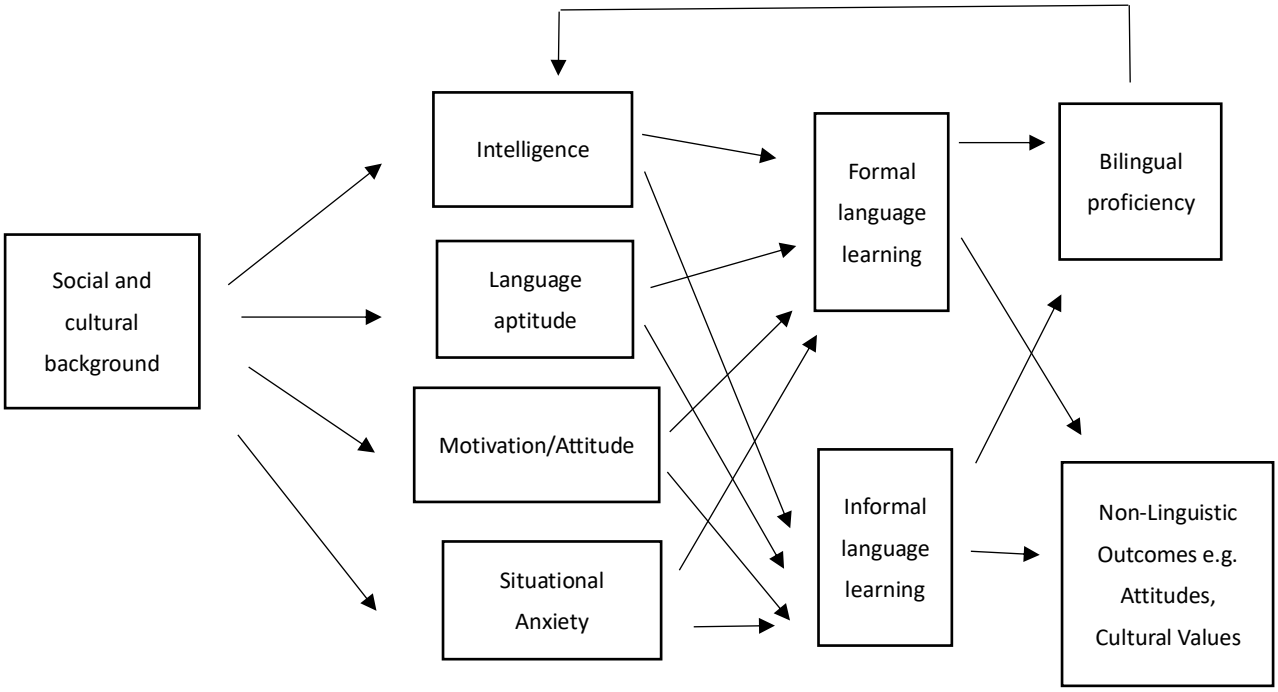
Three theories of motivation in an L2 context, namely, Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (SEM) (1985), Dörnyei's cognitive-suited and process-oriented motivations in L2 context (1994a), and Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (LMSS) (2009) are reviewed and discussed in this section. All three theories explained the content and cause-effect sequence of bilingual learners' motivation on target language learning in different language context. Gardner's model 'lies not only in its inclusiveness, but also in that it has been empirically tested using advanced, sophisticated causal modelling techniques' (Baker, 1992, p. 40). Gardner's SEM seems to focus on the cause-effect procedure of language learners' motivation. While, Dörnyei's cognitive-suited and process-oriented motivations more likely stress the relationship between learners' language cognitions and behaviours in a different language context. Dörnyei's LMSS investigates language learners' self-images toward the learning process to find the influential factors of their language learning motivation. Thus, theories of motivation would provide rational theoretical support for this present study of what and how

participants' motivations are involved in the FLPLP implementation from university to classroom and self-learning level in a Mongolian University in China.

3.3.1 Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

Motivation in second language learning interprets language context evaluation that is described as language learners' desire and satisfaction, and motivation is a dynamic process which keeps changing across the language settings and situation. Gardner as the pioneer of motivation research in an L2 context, defines motivation as 'the extent to which individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity' (1985, p.11). Gardner, Day and MacIntyre (1992) believe that motivation as 'the desire to achieve a goal, effort expended in this direction and satisfaction with the task' (p.22). Hoffman (2000) considers motivation as 'the set of factors that activate, direct and main behaviour, usually toward some goals' (p. 413). Second language learning motivation seems to investigate language learners' personal cognitive abilities as well as their previous learning experience, which affected their language learning behaviour. Weiten (2008, p.377) describes motivation as goal-directed behaviour and 'motives are the needs, wants, interests, and desires that propel a person in certain directions.' Based on the understanding of the structural causes of achievement in an L2 context, Gardner (1985) examines a variety of contexts of second language learning models, which helps to form the four stages of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (SEM). *(See Figure 3.3)*

Figure 3.3 Gardner's socio-educational model (1985a)



First, the SEM begins with social and cultural milieu. Language learners tend to transmit beliefs on language learning and culture from their community to the new language context. Baker (1992) realises that in some Canadian communities, opposite beliefs about French/English bilingualism and biculturalism exist, thus allowing for the establishment, evolution and extension of the bilingual context and education. In many white communities in England, the transmitted beliefs are that bilingualism is unnecessary, difficult to achieve and, if achieved, it is at the expense of other areas of achievement. The beliefs from the social group and type of language group (majority or minority) seem to affect language learners' attitudes and motivations on target language learning. The second stage is individual differences, which comprises intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety. Students' individual differences are affected by their social and cultural beliefs. Gardner (1985a) lists these four variables given that 'intelligence is assumed to play a role because it determines how well or how quickly individuals understand the nature of any learning task or any explanations provided. Language aptitude concerns the degrees of talent specific to learning any languages, motivation concerns effort, desire and effect, and

situational anxiety is viewed as important because it would have an inhibiting effect on the individual's performance, thus interfering with acquisition' (pp. 147-148). Language proficiency also regards that individual differences would affect students' formal and informal language learning. Gardner (1985) believes that 'motivation in the present context refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language' (p. 10). Gardner (2001) explains that there are three social dimensions in second language learning motivation of SEM, that is, effort (effort expended to learn L2), desire (the wish to achieve the desired L2), and attitude (enjoyment of the L2 learning). The bilingual speakers in Wales express sixfold conceptual distinction between dimensions of language attitude (E. Glyn Lewis, 1975, summarised by Baker, 1992, p. 31):

(1) General approve, e.g. 'I like speaking Welsh'.
(2) Commitment to Practice, e.g. 'I want to maintain Welsh to enable Wales to develop'.
(3) National Ethnic Tradition, e.g. 'We owe it to our forefathers to preserve Welsh'.
(4) Economic and Social Communication Importance, e.g. 'Welsh offers advantage in seeking good job opportunities'.
(5) Family and Local Considerations, e.g. 'Welsh is important in family life'.
(6) Personal, Ideological Consideration, e.g. 'Welsh provides a range fo aesthetic experiences in literature'.

The third stage of SEM concerns the context of where the language is acquired. Gardner (1979, 1983, 1985a) makes a distinction between formal and informal language context of L2 learning. The formal context is the classroom where students learn linguistic knowledge and achieve functionally bilingual, while the informal context is where target language learning is not the primary aim. The entertainment needs and extended language skills may be regarded as the outcomes of L2 learning under an informal context. Baker (1992) finds that formal and informal contexts may on occasions overlap. The completed description of the language context of students' L2 contains both formal and informal context. The fourth stage of SEM suggests two final L2 learning outcomes. One outcome concerns bilingual proficiency (such as

fluency, vocabulary and pronunciation); another outcome refers to non-linguistic outcomes (such as attitudes, self-concept, cultural values and beliefs). The students' learning experience and desires from formal and informal contexts affect their attitudes and motivations and affect the continued experience in the classroom context or another language context. SEM seems to dichotomously divide into instrumental and integrative motivations. Instrumental orientation refers to a person's desire to learn an L2 because of pragmatic or utilitarian reasons. For example, learners might learn a language to get a good job, promotion in a job, good status in society, and so on. Integrative motivation is related to the person's desire to communicate or at most identify with the target language community. Integrative orientation is a combination of three subcomponents, namely integrativeness, attitude toward the learning situation and motivation (Shahbaz and Liu, 2012), which is similar to the components of language attitude with instrumental and integrative attitudes. Dörnyei (2001), McGroarty (2001) and Lamb (2004) realise that the growing importance of English as an international language has a strong influence on L2 learning and teaching in English as a foreign language context. Clément's notion of linguistic self –confidence (1980) is also considered to be of great importance in societies where people from-multi-ethnic groups live together. It stresses the importance of contact with the people of the L2 community and suggests that this contact is the major motivational force to learn an L2.

Gardner's SEM shows clearly about the cause-effect sequence of students' attitude towards L2 learning in different language contexts, and further, suggests that variables are interactive and language teaching and learning is cyclical. As Gardner (1985a) suggests 'attitude variables are important in that they serve to maintain levels of motivation and that they are not implicated directly in achievement' (p. 158). The investigation on motivation in second language context is complex and dynamic; the SEM model should not be seen as all-encompassing. Gardner (1988) also argues that 'the model was never intended to be one that would explain all, or even most, of the variance in second language learning because this would ignore the complexity of

individuals as well as the language learning task. It was intended simply as a useful heuristic that could explain existing data, suggest possible processes that might be operation in second language learning, and indicate further directions for research' (p. 102).

Gardner (1985 and 1990) combines his SEM and proposes three elements of language learning motivation, 1) a desire to learn the language; 2) effort expended towards learning the language; 3) favourable attitudes towards learning the language, which developed into the main factors of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), regarded as one of the main research methods of measuring a number of attributes associated with the learners' motivations for second language learning. 'The majority of the subtests in the AMTB are designed to measure three primary concepts: motivation, integrativeness, and attitude towards the learning situation' (Masgoret, Bernaus and Gardner, 2001, p. 283). Motivational intensity refers to the language learners' desire to learn the language. Integrativeness reflects the individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups and is measured using three subscales: degree of integrative orientation, attitudes toward the target language group, and interest in foreign languages. The third component, attitudes toward the learning situation, refers to the students' reaction to formal instruction and includes two measures: evaluation of the language instructor and evaluation of the language course. Additional variables are often included in the AMTB based on the context of the study and research questions being addressed, such as language anxiety which is used for measuring language learners' language class and language use anxiety (Masgoret & Bernaus and Gardner, 2001). Based on the several main research findings of AMTB studies (Gardner and MacIntype, 1993; Tennant & Gardner, 1999) which focused more on the role of each variable under the formal classroom context, they tried to figure out the relationship between these variables and target language learning achieving within foreign language programme. ATMB uses the questionnaire to investigate the factor patterns with students' favourable attitudes toward target language learning. However, it seems to be limited in

identifying understanding of the reasons for students' specific motivation and attitude to target language learning.

3.3.2 Dörnyei's motivation research in an L2 context

(1) Cognitive-suited and process-oriented motivations in an L2 context

Dörnyei's (1994a) responses to Crooks and Schmidt's (1991) approach to examine motivation at multiple levels, proposes motivation at three levels:

a) Language Level
b) Learner level
c) Learning situation level

The language level covers different aspects of the L2 like culture, community, and pragmatic and utilitarian benefits attached to it. The learner level entails the distinctive features of the individual that the person brings to the learning process. The learning situation is related to specific motives in the language learning classroom setting like the course, teacher and group-specific components (Shahbaz and Liu, 2012). Dörnyei (1994a) argues that all three levels have a special role in determining the motivation to learn L2 and all of them can have a significant impact on motivation in isolation. The major contribution to the theory is focused on creating conditions where people could motivate themselves. Dörnyei obtains students' cognitions on self-learning and classroom context, and instrumental motivations to determine the procedure of their language learning experience in an L2 context by students' self-determination. However, Noel (2001a) interprets students' language learning motivation in the L2 context as the natural enjoyment and useful learning aspects; she differentiates the concept into intrinsic and extrinsic motivations at various levels in L2 educational settings. In her opinion, intrinsic motivation may be divided into three subcomponents namely: knowledge (a pleasure to learn new things in life or L2); accomplishment (satisfaction to successfully complete goals or tasks); stimulation (the arousal of pleasure in doing the activity itself). While extrinsic motivation is also categorised into three categories and refers to the three stages of self-regulation in a continuous process of learning, external regulation suggests that the learner is motivated to learn

a task target language in the L2 learning context, because of the factors that are external to the individual like benefits or cost of doing the action. Introjected regulation refers to the motivation to perform a task because of external pressure, but at the same time, the individual also considers that task important. Identified regulation means to engage in a task because the learners value the goal personally; individuals who learn a language because they think it is important for their educational development to fall under this category. After stressing the students' different cognitions in three different motivational levels in an L2 context, Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) process model also adds another facet to second language learning motivation context. They consider students' actions of language learning motivation in an L2 context. The model offers a broadened picture of L2 motivation through a sequence of discrete actions. They divided the L2 motivation into two major dimensions:

1. Action Sequence,
2. Motivation influences.

The action sequence is related to a behavioural process where wishes and hopes change into goals, further into intentions which in turn initiate the action and hopefully the completion of goals. Motivational influences are the underlying forces that help to ignite the support to continue the behavioural process. They divided the motivated behaviour process into three main phases: 1) preactional phase, 2) actional phase, and 3) post-actional phase. William and Burden (1997) also noticed the importance of students' language behaviour in L2 motivation. They divided the motivational process of learning an L2 into three stages:

1. Reasons for doing something,
2. Deciding to do something,
3. Sustaining the effort or persisting.

William and Burden further argue, 'it is important to emphasise here that motivation is more than simple arousing interest. It also involves sustaining interest and investing time and energy into putting the necessary effort to achieve certain goals' (ibid, p. 121). Both language learners' cognitions and behaviours of target language learning in L2

context tend to affect their learning motivation. The dynamic process of motivational factors cannot be entirely undertaken with quantitative research approaches of L2 motivation research in language context aspects (Ushioda, 2001). The motivations in L2 context that take place within an individual during the learning process should be carefully observed and studied in detail to fully understand the picture of L2 learning motivation with cognitive-situated and process-oriented motivation. Ushioda (1996) asserts that 'a more introspective type of research approach is needed to explore qualitative developments in motivational experience over time, as well as to identify the contextual factors perceived to be in dynamic interplay with motivation' (p. 240).

(2) Dörnyei's L2 Motivation Self System (LMSS)

In 2005, Dörnyei proposes the outline of the new basic approach to conceptualising language learning motivation in an L2 context within a self-framework – 'L2 Motivational Self System'. The model combines two significant theoretical developments, one taking place in the L2 field, another in the area of cognitions. Dörnyei (2009) believes that L2 motivation research had been centred for several decades around integrativeness/integrative motivation, while, LMSS begins with 'self', which stresses language learners' identity and self-reflection about target language learning experience in an L2 context. The LMSS adopts Higgins' (1985, 1987) ideal self and the ought self-theory, Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, and Gardner's (2001) Socio-Educational Model of Second language acquisition, and then appears to describe much more clearly the content of learners' motivation in an L2 context. Dörnyei (2009) finds that the LMSS is made up of the following three components:

a) Ideal L2 Self, which is the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self': if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator to learning the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. Traditional integrative and internalized instrumental motives would typically belonging to this component.
b) Ought-to L2 Self, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to

possess to meet expectations to avoid possible negative outcomes. This dimension corresponds to Higgins's ought self and thus to the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalized) types of instrumental motives.

c) L2 Learning Experience, which concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). This component is conceptualized at a different level from the two self-guides and future research will hopefully elaborate on the self-aspects of this bottom-up process (p. 29).

LMSS tries to find self-guides that directly impact of students' learning environment. Based on the earlier discussion of the procedure of FLPLP implementation, and explanations about language learner attitudes, perceptions and beliefs in different language contexts, students' self-reflection of target language learning seems likely to evaluate the language context from university, classroom to self-learning stage. LMSS tries to take students ideal self and ought to self for describing L2 learning context from curriculum to classroom and self-learning. Ryan (2008) discusses the content of LMSS and the beliefs that the students' motivation in an L2 context does not simply mention everything. The factors of students' motivational process combine their self-images, which strongly motivates them to learn the target language. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggest the prerequisites of LMSS:

1- The learner should have a desired self-image.
2- This future self-image should be considerably different from current self
3- This desired future self-image should be elaborate and vivid
4- The learner should see future self-images as plausible and achievable
5- The desired future image should not be taken as comfortably certain.
6- This future self-image should be in harmony with social expectations and it should not clash with expectations of family, friends and peers. It should not violate social norms
7- This desired self-image should be consistently regularly activated

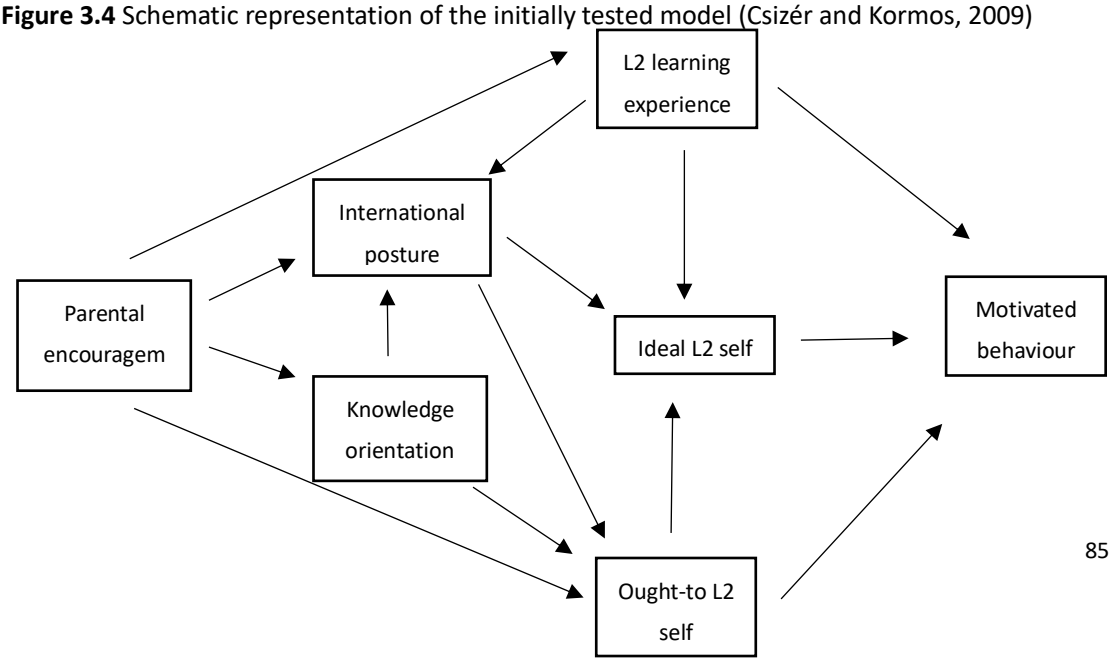
8- The learner should apply desired efforts and strategies to achieve this self
9- The learner should be aware of negative consequences of failing to achieve desired self (p. 84).
10- The contents of students' self-desires on target language learning would be considerable, achievable, consistent, and in harmony with the expectations of external incentives, and these ideal desires tend to be achieved by students' efforts, strategies and awareness of learning difficulties.

Jiang, Liu, Quan and Ma (2013) investigate the foreign language context of Gansu province where located in northwest China. English is the only option of foreign language for 325 Han (majority learners) and 567 minority leaners within 4 ethnic nationalities, Tibetan, Hui (first language: Chinese), Yugu, Dongxiang are questioned variables affecting English learning, motivation accounts for the purposes and degree of self-initiation in English learning. Language context without any language choice of minority students for the English learning indicates that minority learners are (1) Lower in motivation: the minority students face, first of all, with the task of learning both their own mother tongues and Chinese as their second language. The extra undertaking of learning the mainstream language may affect foreign language learning motivation. (2) Weaker in cultural awareness than their majority peers, the cultural and humanistic value of the English learning as to its instrumental significance for minority students, and their learning is negatively affected by transfer from their L2, Chinese, to the target language. Language context for minority students tend to affect students' motivation in target language learning.

Magid (2011) evaluates 1,164 English learners in China and Britain within quantitative and qualitative validity to Dörnyei's (2009) LMSS. He realises that there are four contents of Chinese social culture to understand LMSS in the English learning context of China: face, responsibility, family and pressure. Further, instrumental English learning is always associated with the desire to gain face and preventional instrumentality involved the regulation of responsibilities, duties, and obligations in

order to not lose face. Students' strong sense of responsibility toward their family stimulates a positive correlation between both instrumentality promotion and the Ideal L2 Self as well as instrumentality-promotion and the Ought to L2 Self. Magid also designs an intervention programme for Chinese students who learn English in England. The research results show that the change of language context makes these students become highly motivated English learners, when compared with their previous learning motivation in China. These students start to exert extra efforts to achieve an ideal L2 self and avoid ought-out L2 self. Yashima (2009) examines the ideal L2 self in the Japanese EFL context. The Japanese students' ideal English learning reveals how they relate themselves to the world and tend to be motivated to study and communicate in English as they probably visualize 'English using selves' clearly. Csizér and Kormos (2009) conduct research on Hungarian students' English learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behaviour. They take the LMSS to describe English language context in Hungary and assume a model which shows that the parents' encouragement tends to affect students learning achievements, and then finally affects their motivated effort and behaviour in English learning *(See Figure 3.4)*. Dörnyei (2005, 2009) defines students' learning achievements as effort expanded to achieve a goal desire to learning language, and the importance attached to the task of learning. He also explains that the antecedent of LMSS ought-to L2 self-dimension supposedly contains extrinsic motivational force, another component of ideal L2 self-involving integrativeness.

Figure 3.4 Schematic representation of the initially tested model (Csizér and Kormos, 2009)



Csizér and Kormos (2009) postulate 'ideal L2 self, which proposes that L2 learning experience, international posture and ought-to L2 self will have an influence on students' wish to become competent speakers of English'; they also assume that 'there is positive experience concerning L2 learning which will help the formation of students' images of themselves as competent language users, and other extrinsic motivational variables such as the international position of English and the respondents' ought-to L2 selves will also contribute to the process of developing salient L2 selves' (p. 100-101). The research finds that the English language context usually is transferred to classroom context by Hungarian students. Students' motivated English behaviour is partly determined by their ideal L2 self, and importantly relates to the language learning experience, and the role of ought-to L2 self seems to have a marginal, weak effect on students' learning behaviour. 'The possible self needs to be associated with relevant procedural knowledge. The desired end-state will have an impact on behaviour only if the individual can personalise it by building a bridge of self-representations between one's current self and the hoped-for self' (Dörnyei, 2005, p.117).

Both Gardner and Dörnyei's types of research on students' language learning motivation combine with the intrinsic/extrinsic, integrative/instrumental motivations newly developed approaches to understand the content and process of motivations in a second language context. These approaches try to take into account the social as well as complex and dynamic processes involved in L2 learning. Learning an L2 is such a complex phenomenon that it is hard for any single model to describe all related issues. L2 motivation involves dynamic and complex processes of genetic, cognitions, cultural, linguistic and behavioural patterns of individuals and at the same time the highly intricate relationship among these variables. The students' identity and self-reflection of target language learning experience raises many concerns, and scholars design new relational perspectives to take into account the changes that take place during a long time of evolving L2 learning. Ushioda (2009) stresses the importance of

students' self-consideration on language learning in an L2 context and proposes a 'person-in-context relational view of motivation' which emphasises the real individual dealing with the reality of L2 learning. Students' ideal or imaged language learning tends to be regarded as an important component of motivation research. Ushioda (2009) believes that the complexity of motivation of L2 learning is involved with the content of motivation, students' self-reflection and language context, which forms an 'organic whole' for true understanding of the motivation of language learning in an L2 context. She asserts that learning an L2 is just one part of the identity that individuals have living in society and we need to bring together all others' aspects to develop a true understanding of second language learning motivation, further, she clarifies,

> *'I mean a focus on real persons, rather than on learners as theoretical abstractions; a focus on the agency of the person as a thinking, feeling human being, with an identity, a personality, a unique history and background, a person with goals, motives and intentions; a focus on the interaction between this self-reflective intentional agent, and the fluid and complex system of social relations, activities, experiences and multiple micro- and macro-contexts in which the person is embedded, moves and is inherently part of' (Ushioda, 2009, p. 220).*

The rational motivation research in L2 context tends to describe the content of motivation in a different language context, the cause-effect sequence between motivation and motived language behaviour, which is based on students' current and ideal self-determination of target language learning experience. The focus of L2 motivation inquiry also tends to care about language context both at micro-level and macro-level for understanding individual thinking with all its complexities.

Another study attempts to understand students' self-reflection to account for how appraisals function in the learning process. For example, Boekaerts and Niemivirta (2000) claim that appraisals (either primary or secondary) are the key indicators of individual responsiveness to learning situations. Primary appraisal refers to learners'

emotional reactions to the situation, and the personal significance of the present learning is estimated in terms of their well-being. Secondary appraisal refers to the learner's mental representation of the objective characteristics of a learning situation; here the prerequisites for dealing with the situation and how learners handle a task under present conditions are in focus (Boekaerts, 1997). For example, students may engage in tasks not only because performances are in themselves enjoyable (i.e., primary appraisal), but also because they recognise that the present activities will lead to improvements in their L2 skills (i.e., secondary appraisal). Thus, the primary appraisal usually occurs as a natural response to the learning context, whereas secondary appraisal plays a greater part in learning by encouraging learners to connect the task at hand to their specific learning goals. Action control, involving learners' conscious efforts to regulate their own learning, needs to operate for effective performance and learning in response to their appraisals of the on-going performance. Walters & Bozkurt (2009) claims that students need to react with deliberate and purposeful attempts to influence their level of task motivation by setting purposeful goals as part of their overall motivation self-regulation. He also finds that college students faced with difficult tasks indicate that they would break them down and make them more manageable to situate their efforts in completing them.

Although all of these discussions from scholars describe the theoretical content and cause-effect sequence of language learner' cognitions toward different language context, there is no clear description or evidence from the real language learning to make it understandable for a completed language context process, which is based on students' self-language attitude, motivation and behaviour. The complexity of complex dynamic systems theory for second language context about attitude and motivation is well echoed by Dörnyei (2013, p. 1-5) when he remarks,

> *'while approaching second language acquisition from a complex dynamic systems perspective makes a lot of intuitive sense, it is difficult for a number of reasons to operationalize such a dynamic approach in research terms, we cannot follow our*

established research practices in an unquestioning manner, and we are unlikely to get much help from other disciplines in the social or cognitive sciences either, because dynamic systems research is such a new and uncharted territory that there are simply no tried and tested research methodological templates available'.

There is the fact that flawed theoretical frameworks may push researchers to include perspectives from dynamic systems theory for a better understanding, however, it is then hard to ignore that as regards language attitude and motivation, FLPLP implementation context is related to the most complicated species on earth and we could not really expect any single model or framework of L2 context research to explain everything in detail about learners' cognitions and behaviours. To summarise, all the theories mentioned above develop an understanding of second language learning attitude, motivation and FLPLP. All these three terms classify the foreign language policy implementation context clearly, and propose the structural and influential factor which tends to affect bilingual learners' target language learning experiences. The language learner attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations in an L2 context and FLPLP enactment at different level interpret students' self-understandings about language cognition and behaviour from university, to the classroom and to self-learning stage. These three terms are similar in implementation structure descriptions that help to describe the dynamic, complex and completed of the real language context of target language learning from their self-reflection.

3.4 Students' comparisons on languages' similarities and differences in the multilingual context

In the multilingual context, the L3 acquisition is determined by the number of variables involved and their multiple interactions, make L3 acquisition a highly complex phenomenon (Sanz, 2000). The language comparisons that cross the multilingual interaction in linguistic tends to reveal language learners' positive or negative outcomes and its reasons during the context of target language learning. The bilingual students' language comparisons are interpreted by their perception of linguistic

distance, and interlanguage transfer (Wang, 2015). Odlin (1989) believes that language learning motivation, human awareness of language, and individual variation (such as language proficiency) affect language transfer. Thus, it is of paramount significance to examine the multilingual learners' cognitions and behaviours at the self-learning stage.

3.4.1 The content of the comparison

In an attempt to capture and understand the interaction and competition between more than two linguistic systems, the learners' linguistic comparisons with learning difficulties and errors on the similarities and differences between their first language and target language, which seems to improve or affect their target language learning. Ringbom (1987) investigates the English learners in Finland, and he finds that the learners' beliefs of language similarities, a typological closeness between English and Swedish would make native Swedish speakers (L2 Finnish) feel English learning is much easier than the native Finnish speakers (L2 Swedish). **'**Ought-to L2' of Dörnyei's LLSM (2009) stresses that students try to avoid possible negative learning outcomes in an L2 context. The reinterpretation of students' integrative motivation from a self-perspective sees it overlapping with instrumental motivation as the L2 learner struggles to become ideal and or ought self (Dörnyei, 2005). Lyons (2009) investigates imagined identity and the L2 self in the French foreign legion, and finds that 'ought self as their L2 focus is on avoiding failure in all their dealing with the language (sample statements include 'you had better learn…French, or you are in trouble'; after being shouted at enough, you have to learn the language'). The sharp contrast with the visualized ideal self which is reflected in the role of models identified the Legionnaires, who are predominantly English L1 speakers with five to seven years' service in the Legion and perceived as being L2 proficient spoke French 'like native' and is good enough at the language 'to put the French to shame' (p. 251). The comparison of French proficiency or accent between English and French speakers seems to stimulate English legionnaires' French learning motivation in the context of the French legion.

Not only do language comparisons occur in one language with different language

backgrounds but they also exist in the same language background with different target language learning. ‘Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), which aims to identify similarities and differences across culture groups (Horwitz, 1999). Horwitz (1985, 1987, 1988 and 1999) believes that learners' strategies and motivations are integral elements in the design and implementation of effective language instruction. Language learners as individuals approach language learning in their own unique way, and learners' beliefs have the potential to influence both their experiences and actions. The 34 discrete items which comprise the BALLI questionnaire, discusses similarities and differences in learner beliefs. The discussion is organised by the BALLI categories outlined by Horwitz (1987). ‘The difficulty of language learning,' ‘foreign language aptitude,' ‘the nature of language learning,' learning and communication strategies, and ‘motivation and expectation'(Levine, 2003, p. 346). Park (1995) and Truitt (1995) stress the comparisons of learners should share a similar cultural background and the same nationality. The BALLI is an effort to identify cultural differences in learners' beliefs, the learners' comparisons on the two languages suggest their beliefs may vary based on age, stage of learning and professional status (Horwitz, 1999). Contextual differences in the language learning situation as well as specific classroom practices, learning styles, educational experiences or other outside influences, are also essential to affect learners' beliefs on target language learning.

According to the abilities to recognise and imitate foreign accents and based on common beliefs about cross-linguistic similarities and differences (Odlin, 1989), a widespread assumption appears in the literature that language transfer is a vital feature of SLA. It is clear that many elements of learners’ linguistic behaviour are closely or greatly different from the actual properties of the second language, according to the similarities and differences predicted by contrastive analysis (Guiora, 1972). Language transfer attempts to better understand the nature of language acquisition in any context; therefore, it attracts people’s interest in exploring the common features of all languages that are language universals. Positive language transfer could be described as ‘the application of at least partially correct perceptions

or assumptions of cross-linguistic similarity. While, the negative transfer is the absence of positive transfer, leading to subsequent wrong assumptions about cross-linguistic similarities between L1 and L2' (Ringbom, 2007, p. 30- 31). The contrastive analysis could provide valuable empirical results on the merit of universal theories, and the issue of language transfer is likely to become prominent in such research. The prerequisite of contrastive language analysis is that two or more languages contact or mix with each other. In the contact situation, languages may show some language mixings, that is, the characteristics of two or more languages may merge with each other in any verbal communication. If the mixture does occur, one possible form it can take is native language influence. Another kind of mixing is borrowing from a second language into the native language or the words, phrases, and sentences of two or more languages will interchange systematically (Gregg, 1984; Odlin, 1986). The utterances of multilingual learners often show language mixing, even though they do not know the terms such as transfer. For instance, people know their own group from others no matter where they are, so there is no doubt that the names of languages frequently designate ethnic groups. Therefore, any kinds of borrowings and mixings are regarded as a 'linguistic intrusion'. Sometimes they are popular with people, but sometimes not. Multilingual learners who are in the same community often have similar unfavourable attitudes towards mixings (Page and Keller, 1985). Odlin (1989) finds that multilingual learners believe some languages are easier to learn than others. For instance, many English-speaking college students insisted that East Asian languages (e.g., Chinese) are more difficult than the European languages (e.g., French). As there are significant similarities between English and French, the latter is often thought of as an "easy" language. Language transfer is also evident in the imitation of foreigners. Although second language learners can make their accents plausible, their grammatical features seem to be typical of their L1.

3.4.2 Learning difficulties and errors in the target language

Behavioural theories of the second language (L2) learning focus on the concept of 'difficulty', that is, the amount of effort required in SLA. The degree of difficulty is

regarded as similar to or different from a native-language pattern. When the two languages are identical, positive transfer of the native-language pattern will promote language learning easily; while when they were different, the negative transfer will occur so that learning difficulties appear, and errors are made. According to behaviourist language-learning theories, the chief learning difficulty comes from the interference of prior knowledge with new knowledge acquisition (Kellerman, 1983). In such cases, learners have to forget old habits to learn new knowledge. Such errors or 'bad habits' are regarded as damaging to successful language learning as the acquisition of correct target-language habits would be prevented. Brooks (1960) proposes a common view that 'like sin, the error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence to be expected' (p. 58). Language errors seem to be like interpreting learners' understanding of the syntactic rule of the TL in the language acquisition process (Taylor, 1975). For error analysis, the mistakes are now viewed in a much more positive manner, as 'windows' through which one may observe students' language learning processes and strategies (Metcalfe, 2017). Students' language comparison between similarities and differences is committed to the dominance of their linguistic habits, and perception of learning difficulties through their beliefs about language distance; while language errors tend to take from both linguistic and non-linguistic factors to embody a change to a more humanistic view of the language situation.

In the trilingual context, Ringbom (2007) investigates English learners' perceptions in the Finnish context. Upon analysing the results of native Swedish speakers (L2 Finnish) and native Finnish speakers (L2 Swedish) in written English compositions, Ringbom finds that Swedish speakers have a great advantage in learning English. From the outset, they could rely on their L1 for essential facilitation of learning. This advantage also could apply to the learning French (Elo, 1993), and German (Sajavaara & Takala, 2000). Swedes make a much smaller number of errors at various levels. The essential reasons for differences between Swedes and Finns must be sought in the linguistic differences between Finnish and Swedish (Ringbom, 1987), Swedish speakers are

familiar with and do not have to spend effort on learning the functions and use of such grammatical categories as articles and prepositions. Finnish speakers will have difficulties in establishing cross-linguistic one-to-one equivalences to their L1. The structural similarities between English and Finnish are insignificant compared with those between Swedish and English. On the functions of each language in the trilingual context, Williams and Hammarberg (1998) postulate that 'L1 and L2 may play essentially different roles in L3 acquisition' (p. 303). In particular, third-language learners unconsciously assign two roles—the instrumental role and the default supplier role—to their previously learned languages. The instrumental role is appointed to the language (L1 or L2) with which the speaker identifies and with which the interlocutor associates the speaker, both linguistically and culturally (Wang, 2013). Hammarberg (2001) also finds that the function of L1 is mostly for pragmatically functional language shifts and asides (instrumental role) and her L2 for lexical construction attempts in the L3. Minority Tibetan students are relatively poor in their L2 (Chinese) competence, and most English teachers are from the Han majority with little knowledge of the learners' mother tongue; thus, English classes are mainly conducted in Chinese. The disparity between the competence of learners and teachers in three languages prevents them from full communication and interaction in class, and as a result constrains the development of English competence. The failure very often arises when the instrumental language in class cannot be fully accepted by learners, and the teachers' relative incompetence in the learners' mother tongue makes impossible effective decoding of meaning in class. Most learners identify more similarities between their L1 and L3 (English) than between their L1 and L2, while their L2 Chinese is regarded as rather different either from their mother language or from English. Using Chinese as the only interlanguage in class does no good for facilitating learning of the target foreign language. Meanwhile, the interference of Chinese makes their cognition an indirect process in which three linguistic codes are involved, which trends to create learning difficulties and errors for Tibetan students' English learning in the class context (Jiang, Liu, Quan and MA, 2007).

3.4.3 Influences of students' comparisons

The study of language transfer seems to naturally provide a detailed consideration of cross-linguistic similarities and differences, which affects target language learning. However, the learner's individual belief is also one of important characteristics of language transfer and trends to affect their language comparisons. Odlin (1989) defines that structural language transfer discussion focuses on semantics, syntax, and pronunciation on cross-linguistic differences in language structure and the consequences for the process of acquisition. All studies on transfer have to provide a discourse considered in detail, and a purely structural analysis of discourse is not enough to explain cross-linguistic influences. Nonstructural factors related to transfer includes not only discourse but also pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. In the multilingual context, students' beliefs on their TL learning situation at the self-learning stage, tend to consist of their language cognitions of comparisons, and language behaviour of mistakes and errors that are based on the learning experience with structural and non-structural language transfer. Multilingual learners' beliefs are affected by their TL motivations, multilingual awareness and language proficiency.

(1) Highly motived learners

The language learners with highly motived and linguistic structural differences between first and target language tend to learn target language faster and the low motived learners with structural similarities. Odlin (1989), in comparing the learning motivations of Chinese and English students' Spanish learning situations, finds that there are fewer structural differences between Spanish and English, which provides Spanish speakers with advantages in learning English, yet highly motivated Chinese learners may learn English faster and better than Spanish speakers with low motivation. Class size may be an important, influential factor. For example, sixty Spanish-speaking students in an English class will not receive as much individual attention as four Chinese speakers in another English class, but individual awareness is significant for students in SLA. Factors such as motivation and class size have an obvious potential to influence acquisition no matter what native or target languages are involved, which

connects with the previous discussion about motivation, while, the other factors which are not structural could interact with the transfer, such as their linguistic awareness in a foreign language context.

(2) Multilingual awareness

Multilingual learners' awareness (consciously or unconsciously) on language comparison, may mean that transfer is more likely to occur. When awareness is conscious, people frequently give a name to the object of their awareness, the designation that people give may be imprecise from the standpoint of the descriptive linguist (Odlin, 1986). A person who learns a new language may have already known more than one language (Vildomec, 1963); therefore, the importance of trilingual and other multilingual situations cannot be neglected in studies on transfer. Language distance has been discussed above as one of the essential effects in multilingual cases. Studies on trilingualism indicate that transfer will occur easily when there are more similar linguistic structures in the two languages. However, studies on language awareness show that the importance of language distance depends very much on the perceptions of that distance by learners. Todd (1983) briefly describes the language context of West Africa, where speakers' use of English is often influenced by knowledge of French as a second language. Herschensohn and Gess (2018) find that, in the same language context, language transfer is explained by learners' grammaticality judgment of French sentences, and the results show that English would have a notable influence on their French acquisition. Singleton (1987) believes that the similarity between English and French has an especially strong impact on learners' judgment. The L2 knowledge is considered a useful language ability that is closely related to the third language. Singleton and Little (1984) find that the similarity between L2 and L3 could provide considerable help in the reading of L3. Kellerman (1977, 1978) finds that Dutch and English vocabulary provides interesting evidence for the importance of judgments about language similarity. In light of the evidence on lexical transfer, Dutch students learning English (and English students learning Dutch) will find the acquisition of vocabulary somewhat easier since the two languages have

many cognates. In another related study, Mori (1999) investigates the relationship between language learners' beliefs and their strategies of dealing with new words, and explores more specifically whether there is any connection between the native English-speaking college students' beliefs about reading Japanese and their inferring ability from the component Kanji characters and the related contextual information. The results show that correlations to language learners' lexical inference strategies at least partially reflect their general learning beliefs and their beliefs about language learning in particular. A kanji character is often considered a "word" with Chinese character (Atsuji 1993, Packard 2000). L2 Japanese students reflect upon their own kanji learning different perspectives and hold different views on the effectiveness of learning. Kanji learning certainly involves much time and effort. Noguchi et, al.(2002) reports that her kanji learning experience in an introductory course at a U.S. college is disappointing despite the instructor's effort because characters are taught unsystematically, which made her feel that she has no foundation for learning kanji. The negative attitudes toward kanji learning tend to result from lack of students' linguistic awareness investigation towards language comparison between their L1 and Japanese. Students' linguistic awareness tends to be based on their linguistic comparisons about all acquired languages. Their self-cogitative beliefs about target language learning difficulties in abilities and skills achievements would affect their language behaviour and decision.

(3) Language proficiency

The learners' language proficiency are unpacked by their native language ability and target language ability, which tends to affect their language cognitions and behaviours toward dealing with positive or negative language transfer. Odlin (1989) believes that a high degree of language proficiency in one's native language can increase the positive transfer in recognising cognate vocabulary. Low-proficiency of target language learners depends more on language transfer (Taylor, 1975). Some useful evidence on this topic comes from the results of a translation test given to Spanish-speaking students at an American university. It is more likely for students in less advanced

classes to make errors in translation influenced by the Spanish language, while students in more advanced classes make more errors in translation by overgeneralization. Taylor (1975) argues that the obvious differences in dependence on language transfer mainly indicate the differences in basic knowledge that both of these two kinds of learners have to work with. Learners with more advanced proficiency know much more about the target language so that they may make analogies more often from that information. The study by Taylor (1975) on word order transfer discussed earlier indicates that it is possible for low-proficiency learners to use transfer in the basic word order in the target language. Moreover, in phonology, studies by Major (1986) and others suggest that transfer is especially prevalent in the earlier stages of proficiency. More importantly, just as in the study of error analysis, learners in Taylor's research only used negative transfer. When there are facilitating effects of cross-linguistic similarities (e.g., cognate words), it seems to be more possible that positive transfer will also occur for the advanced learners just as much as the beginner learners of a second language. Another question is whether or not Taylor's claim is correct that negative transfer only occurs when learners have a certain level of proficiency (Kellerman, 1984).

Hammarberg (2005) and Wrembel (2010) both find proficiency in the L3 to largely influence the phonological structure of the L3 learner’s production. Their studies revealed that learners at the beginning stages of L3 development transferred distinguishable phonological features of the L2 into L3 production. In contrast, phonological features of their native languages were more apparent as learners became more proficient in the third language. The significance of L2 proficiency is elucidated in Tremblay’s (2006) study. Focusing on the acquisition and production of L3 vocabulary, Tremblay finds that L2 proficiency does in fact affect the degree to which L2 is activated during L3 production. Therefore, she claims that a certain level of proficiency in the second language must be reached for it to be influential in the third (Wang, 2015). In a trilingual context, language transfer tends to occur at the beginning stage of L3 learning, the students’ mistakes and errors in L3 usage are

affected by the L2, when the L2 is used for L3 learning.

3.4.4 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework *(see figure 3.5)* origins have clear implementation structure of FLPLP milieu. The policy process is not merely developing the rules and texts for individuals or organisations to follow (Singh et al., 2013), but the language policy and language planning also involves multidimensional activities existing in the language contexts. In China, foreign language education at the university is structured in a hierarchical manner. The analysis of FLPLP tends to investigate the enactment of institution, classroom and self-learning contexts to form a complete impression on foreign education in higher education. The figure below summaries the adaptation of the Gardner's socio-educational model, Dörnyei's motivation research of cognitive-suited and process-oriented motivations and L2 Motivation Self System, and language comparions which tends to propose the contents, cause-effect procedure and influential factors of students' language cognition and action towards target language learning in different language contexts.

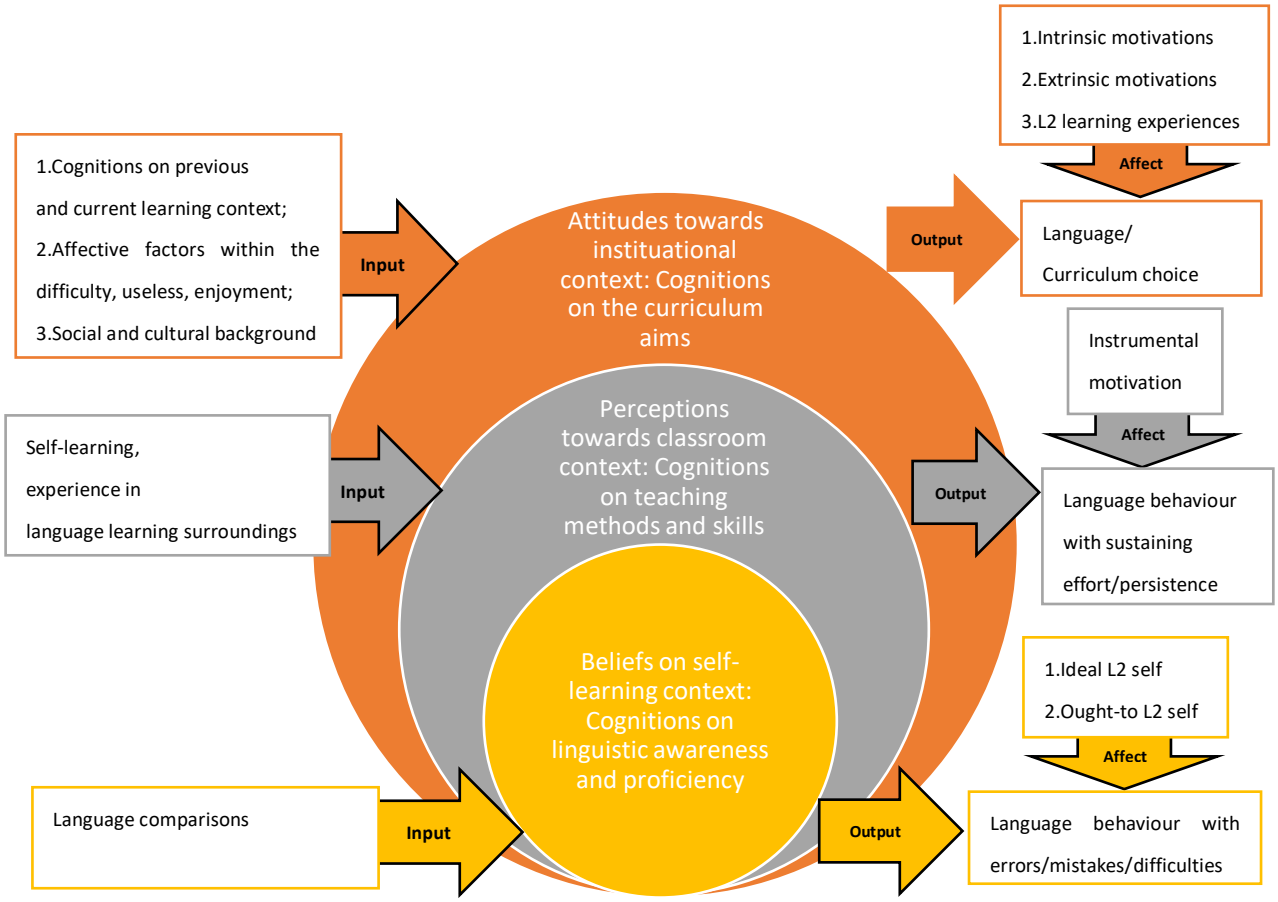


Figure 3.5 Theoretical Framework diagram (by author)

By extension, when a student participant explains his/her Japanese learning at the east Mongolian university, he/she will use a sequence for explaining why and how to learn Japanese. A summary of input factors which try to understand the sources of the students' different language cognitions toward different language context, and then form the specific contents of language cognition. A spectrum of different language cognitions and learning motivations are grouped together according to each language action as well as each output and affective factor.

The combination of language attitude and university context tries to explain participants' language cognitions towards the evaluation of the specific language requirement, which is offered by the institution. The assessments are consist of participants' cognitions on previous and current learning contexts, affective factors within the difficulty, usefulness and enjoyment, and their social and cultural

backgrounds. Participants' language attitudes tend to be interpreted by their cognitions on the curriculum aims. The participants' language cognitions towards the university context affect their foreign language decision. A student's foreign language choice is also influenced by the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of L3 learning, and their L2 learning experience. The mixture between language perception and classroom context refers to how participants understand themselves and their self-learning experience in the classroom. The evaluations unpack their language perceptions in instructional techniques. Their perceptions towards classroom context make their language behaviour with sustaining effort or persistence on specific teaching techniques. with the aim of students' language actions with dealing with the L3 learning difficulties is to achieve their instrumental motivation. The integration between language belief, and self-learning context tends to explain participants' self-efficacy of target language learning individually, and is interpreted by their comparisons on all the languages they have learned or acquired. Language beliefs try to explain their language cognitions on linguistic awareness or proficiency. The beliefs on self-learning affect their target language learning with learning difficulties. The aim of students' language actions with dealing with the L3 learning difficulties is to achieve their instrumental motivation; students' language comparisons tend to describe the status of ideal and ought to L3.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the main aspects involved in language learner attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, motivations, FLPLP and how those aspects interact to initiate some new perspectives in the description on language learners' cognitive understanding towards each language context of FLPLP implementation. For understanding the content and cause-effect sequence of language learners' attitude behaviour and motivation in a foreign language learning context, Gardner's (1985) Socio-Educational Model, Dörnyei's (1994a) cognitive-suited and process-oriented motivations in L2 context are used. Dörnyei's (2009) theory of Ideal Motivation Self System is also used for presenting language learners' self-guides toward language

context with their learning desires, efforts and experience, which forms a framework for describing and understanding the bilingual Mongolian students' language cognitions, actions and motivations toward Japanese learning from school to classroom and self-learning context. Concerning the complexity and procedure of FLPLP enactment from language learners, teachers and administrators' considerations, a combination of these theories tends to be appropriated to conceptualise and provide a rationale research structure and components for exploring the contents, sequence and importance of participants' understanding towards the FLPLP implementation. Further, the literature concerning the enactment procedure of FLPLP at university context is also reviewed, particularly in the context of foreign language education in China; the limitations in the literature are identified. In light of these arguments, an initial model *(See figure 3.5)* of factors explaining the contents and cause-effect sequence language learners' attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations toward FLPLP implementation has been described, which serves as the structural and conceptual framework. The participants' language cognations, actions and motivation towards the target language learning are distinguished by FLPLP enactment at different language context, but are united for describing a completed picture of foreign language learning and teaching at multilingual context, it provides the theoretical support for the design of research methodology, methods, and guidance for the data collection and data analysis, which will be the major focus in the next chapter.

Chapter Four: Methodology and Research Design

4.1 Introduction

This section aims to provide a rationale for the research design employed to address research questions appropriately. The methodology and methods are informed by the literature covered in the previous chapters. The research aims and questions are briefly restated, to describe a completed foreign language policy and language planning implementation in a minority region of China through students', teachers' and administrators' perspectives. Quantitative and qualitative methodologies are contrasted, leading to a discussion of the functions of different paradigms or the combinations, which applied in the critical realist research context. The importance of the validity and reliability in the methods safeguards the quality and practicality of the research. The multiple qualitative research methods are drawn upon including the examination of Chinese college/university foreign language policy; student questionnaire; semi-structured interview. The procedure and content of conducted interviews are introduced and explained. Finally, how the data analysis was carried out, and key ethical considerations are given.

There is a significant gap in the literature on FLPLP implementation with regards to its outcomes explored through students' thoughts and perspectives. The research locates itself in this space to investigate bilingual Mongolian university students' foreign language choice, and how their language learning experiences in different language contexts impact on their target foreign language cognitions and behaviours.

The research aims to understand the motivations behind bilingual Mongolian university students' foreign language choice and clarify their attitudes, perceptions, beliefs on the FLPLP implementation at the institution, classroom to self-learning levels. The main research question is in two parts:

Why do Year 1 and Year 2 bilingual Mongolian university students choose to study

Japanese at an Eastern Mongolian University? How does the foreign language policy and language planning implement in the language context of an Eastern Mongolian University from university to classroom and self-learning level? In order to achieve this, a congruent qualitative case study design is discussed and employed. The purpose is to explore students' language learning attitudes, perceptions and beliefs concerning the language context, their characteristics, language background and motivations during the study at an eastern Mongolian university in China.

4.2 The relevance of ontology and epistemology

The views of social science that researchers mentioned represent of looking at social reality and are constructed on correspondingly different in interpreting it (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018). How the theories of knowledge are seen (ontology) and how we understand its production (epistemology) shape a research project. According to Crotty (1998), a researcher's assumptions about knowledge, knowledge production and social reality inform the theoretical perspective of research. Likewise, the theoretical perspective informs the methodology, which, in turn, then informs the selection of methods.

Ontology is a theory of being and is concerned with problems of what exists and further, refers to the claims that a particular paradigm makes about reality or truth (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989). It tends to seek to provide a definitive and exhaustive classification of entities in all spheres of being and refer to the different ways of constructing reality. In this study, a detailed case is presented explicitly from the views of participants who have different identities and the same context using different research methods. Ontology as the tendency, investigates characteristics and experiences of the common physical and perceptual sense of participants about one minority institutional foreign language policy in one Eastern Mongolian University.

Epistemology is a theory of knowledge established from the texts of critical theory, in particular, critical pedagogy and related pedagogies (Marsh & Furlong, 2002;

Kinchelow and McLaren, 2002). It investigates the possibility, limits, origin, structure, methods, and truthfulness of knowledge and how knowledge can be acquired, validated and applied (Kitcher, 2002). It is on the basis that different research methods are used to identify why participants chose to study Japanese at university and how participants' learning experiences, needs, and problems explain their language transfer. With such depth of theory and literature, a critical theoretical perspective is adopted in my study, which is considered appropriate for the type and focus of the study, and what one hopes to learn from the research (Sayer, 2000). This perspective guides the study's view of the implementation and development of a minority institutional foreign language policy, how it works, and how it should be applied in the future. Being concerned with participants' attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions, motivations and experiences in foreign language learning, teaching and managing, it is essential to understand the contents, cause-effect sequences and influential factors of their language behaviours decisions as regards their language cognitions. It also generates new knowledge and contrition to FLPLP implementation in the field of language context research. Accordingly, a discussion of the research design follows in the next section.

4.3 Methodology

This section discusses research traditions, focusing on the rationale of combining qualitative research with quantitative data, and provides an account of qualitative research forms and how it has influenced the selection of research methods.

Why my study is qualitative research with quantitative data?

Numerous definitions of qualitative are given in the literature (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Cohen et al., 2007; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000; Bryman, 2004; Silverman, 2011). Creswell's (1997) succinct description is, ‘qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants and conducts the study in a natural setting'(p.15).

From this, qualitative research is an overarching concept comprising various forms of inquiry, which include case study, ethnography, ground theory, biography and so forth (Denscombe, 2007). Such forms of inquiry enable us to interpret and understand the realities of the setting and the people (Freebody, 2003). This means that if researchers want to study people in real life, it is essential to understand participants in their own context and the way they operate therein (Gillham, 2001). Qualitative research is based on the individuals' construct of reality when they interact within their social worlds and an understanding that there are multiple realities that the researcher has to recognise and make sense of (Denzin and Lincoln, 2001). Thus, qualitative research requires investigators to have an extensive amount of data. It is useful for my study to get the breadth and depth of data from participants, which give a deeper understanding of the participants' view to answer the research questions.

Qualitative data takes the form of words (spoken or written) with research methods such as interview, documents, and observation. Qualitative data, however, can be produced by other means. For example, the use of open-ended questions as part of a survey questionnaire can produce answers that can be treated as qualitative data. The kind of research method used, then, does not provide the defining characteristic of qualitative data. It is the nature of the data produced, that is the crucial issue (Denscombe, 2007). In my study, the questionnaire as a 'pioneer' of research methods, is used to collect data of students' fundamental beliefs on Japanese learning, and provides a model for using the interview to obtain robust and mature data.

Quantitative research implies using numerical data as the evidence base; the majority of project researchers collect numerical data using numerical and statistical procedures for testing hypotheses or forecasting outcomes. Further, 'quantitative data take the form of numbers. They are associated primarily with strategies of research such as surveys and experiments and with research methods such as questionnaires and observation' (Denscombe, 2007, p. 254; Newby, 2010). The focus of this study is not the identifications and explanations of an existed theory pattern. The aim of using

questionnaire is to get the demographic information, general views and motivations for Japanese learning from the students, which prepares for understanding the contents and cause-effect sequence of their current and further language learning cognitions and behaviours. As the content analysis of the questionnaire method produces numerical data, the kind of research method used, then, is not the crucial thing when it comes to defining quantitative data. It is the nature of the data that the way produces that is the critical issue (Denscombe, 2007). Furthermore, the form of quantitative data is scientific; such statistical data provides analyses with an aura of scientific respectability. Analyses appear to be based on objective laws rather than the values of the researcher; the statistical data of significance also give researchers additional credibility in terms of the interpretations they make and the confidence they have in their findings (Newby, 2010). The large volume of students' questionnaire data in this research can provide adequate main reasons for and problems of Japanese learning. Moreover, the display format of such data with clear tables and charts can also provide a succinct and effective way of communicating the questionnaire findings alongside the data from the other research methods.

The main principle of qualitative is its theoretical base, which makes it rich, pluralistic and diverse (Lamnek, 1998). The function of qualitative studies theory is used as a broad explanation; theoretical orientation for a study; or at the endpoint for a study, which is an inductive process of building from the data to broad themes to a generalised model or theory (Punch, 1998). Qualitative researchers have to look for broad patterns, generalisations, or theories from themes or categories. This requires analysis of the qualitative data with conclusions drawn from the research, firmly rooted therein (Creswell, 2002). The theoretical framework of my research (in the literature review chapter) summarises the general theories to past experiences and literature, and further, provides theoretical warrant into qualitative data analysis.

Qualitative data and analysis are particular strengths associated with qualitative research, in that the descriptions and theories such research generates are grounded

in reality; there are richness and detail to the data; there is also tolerance of ambiguity and contradictions and the prospect of alternative explanations (Denscombe, 2007). However, the qualitative data might be less representative; interpretation is bound up with the 'self' of the researcher: qualitative research recognises more openly than quantitative research that the researcher's own identity, background, and beliefs have a role in the creation and analysis of data; there is a possibility of decontextualizing the meaning and the danger of oversimplifying the explanation (Miller and Brewer, 2002). Qualitative inquiry is not considered 'scientific' as it is not based on quantifiable 'research' that is more synonymous with 'experiments' (Richards, 2006). Thus, qualitative research is an experiment to examine the theoretical framework and quantitative data, which helps qualitative inquiry to be more scientific. Bryman (2004) combines quantitative and qualitative triangulation: this rationale refers to the ability to use qualitative and quantitative strategies to triangulated findings to achieve greater validity. This kind of combination allows my analysis to arrive at more rigorous findings.

This study qualifies as qualitative research, which is accompanied by quantitative data. It facilitates a more comprehensive account of my area of inquiry. Quantitative form data enables me to spot general trends in terms of students' views of the Japanese learning experience. Qualitative data may provide insights into the reasons underlying findings generated by quantitative form data. The research data on learning experiences are collected through 'a set of interpretative data,… which turn the world into a series of representations, which can be gathered and captured through a range of methods using a selection of tools and instruments to do so' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011, p. 3).

4.4 Research Design

Research design is the logic which connects the data to be collected (and the conclusions to be drawn) to the initial questions of study (Yin, 2014). The design in this study was informed by the literature surveyed, and the role of the theory was geared

towards analytic generalisation in contrast to statistical generalisation which generalises results from empirical studies (Yin, 2014). Analytic generalisation of a theoretical framework on language learners' attitude, perception, belief and motivation on the implementation of FLPLP can be applied in defining new research for the foreign language learning and teaching context of bilingual Mongolian university students' Japanese learning. The research aim is primarily to investigate reasons for bilingual Mongolian students' language decision for choosing to learn Japanese as their foreign language course at university and giving up further, continued English. Students, teachers and administrators' experiences of students' language decisions implemented in the classroom and self-learning contexts may have impacted on Japanese teaching and learning.

Components of the research design

Figure 4.1 below illustrates the basic comments of the case study research design. The main research questions are in two parts focusing on the why and how:

1. Why do Year 1 and Year 2 bilingual Mongolian university students choose to study Japanese at an Eastern Mongolian University?

1.1 How do instrumental factors affect these students' trilingual acquisition?

1.2 How do language factors affect these students' trilingual acquisition?

1.3 How do cultural and historical factors affect these students' trilingual acquisition?

2. How does the foreign language policy and language planning implement in the language context of an Eastern Mongolian University from university to classroom and self-learning level?

2.1 What are these students', teachers' and administrators' attitudes toward foreign language policy and language planning (FLPLP)?

2.2 What are these students' and teachers' perceptions of the teaching effects?

2.3 What are these students' beliefs toward influential factors of language comparisons?

Interview and questionnaire data are the main sources of evidence, although other sources of data also informed the research, namely relevant government policy documents. Each pattern of the data represented one context of FLPLP implementation at an Eastern Mongolian University in China. The other components are the combination of complementary theories underpinned by the analytical dualism of structure and agency for interpreting the data to address the questions.

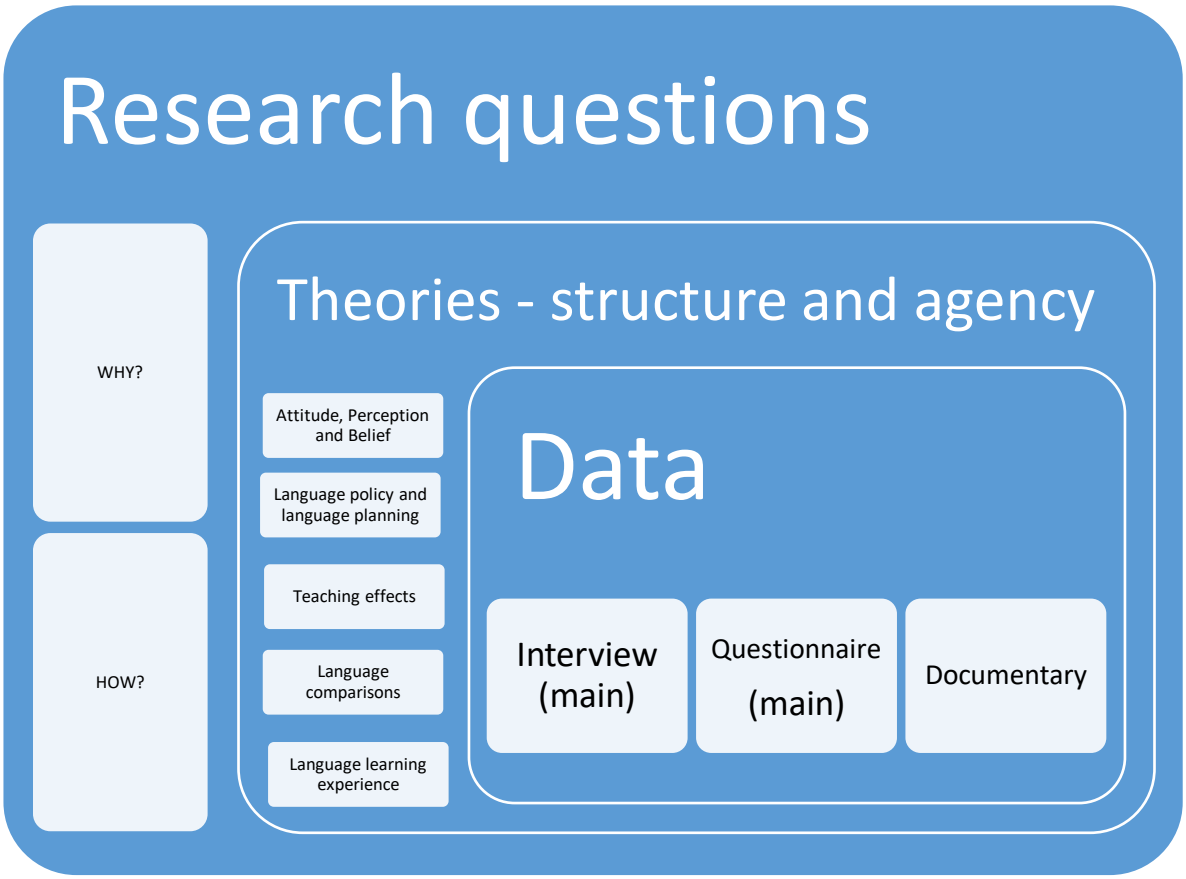


Figure 4.1: Components of the research design (by the author)

The design of *Figure 4.1* is based on the theoretical framework in the last chapter (section 3.5). The theoretical framework describes a completed procedure of FLPLP implementation from different implement levels, influential factors of language behaviour and decisions, learning attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and motivations on target language learning. In the language context of MDU, bilingual Mongolian university students decided to learn Japanese. Answering the key research questions

involved seeking:

1. The factors influencing the students' choice of learning Japanese as a foreign language at university.
2. The students', teachers' and administrators' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs on a minority foreign language policy and language planning implementation in different contexts from their language learning, teaching and managing experiences.

4.5 Case study research

4.5.1 Why a case study approach?

A case study is a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle. It involves both a type of research methodology and a type of data of an instance in action and focuses on the one (or just a few) instances of a particular phenomenon with a view to providing an in-depth account of events, relationships, experiences or processes occurring in that particularly small-scale research (Nisbet and Watt, 1984; Adelman et al., 1980; Denscombe 2007; Duff, 2012). 'A case study provides a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 289).

The significant features of case studies tend to meet the needs of exploring individual bilingual Mongolian students, Japanese teachers, and administrators' attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and motivations on the implementation on FLPLP and to evaluate the impacts of the policy, specifically, through 16 participants to understand how an FLPLP is perceived and enacted from university to classroom and self-learning level. The following reasons explain the appropriateness of a case study in the present research:

Firstly, while Bassey (1999) defines the case study as a single instance of a bounded system, such as a child, a clique, a class, a school, a community, Nisbet and Watt (1984) believe that case studies catch unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger

scale data; these unique features might hold the key to understanding the situation, as Merriam (1998) observes ‘the single most defining characteristic of case study research lies in delimiting the object of study, the case' (p.27). However, Yin (2009) disagrees with these restricted definitions, arguing that the boundary line between phenomenon and its context is blurred, and it is essential to set the rich descriptions and details of the case in a context. The bilingual Mongolian university students' understandings towards the FLPLP implementation at three different contexts are not only clearly explained by the relationship between their language cognitions, behaviours and contexts, but also impacted by the complex effect on different contexts. The case study allows the researcher to ‘observe effects in real contexts, recognising that context is a powerful determinant of cause and effect' (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 22). Case studies are differentiated from other research methodologies when a researcher purposely intends to cover contextual conditions, particularly, when the researcher wants to explore a phenomenon with detailed and complex interactions and a process within a social context (Hartley, 1994; Yin, 2012).

Secondly, Yin (2014) proposes three main conditions for a case study: 1) the research questions focus on the ‘why' and ‘how' such as the present research. Yin (2012 and 2014) distinguishes three types of case study based on research questions: descriptive (narrating accounts, covering background and description of the case), exploratory (‘hat) and explanatory (how/why). Further, a case study is considered highly appropriate as a strategy when research questions focus on explanation, when ‘how' and ‘why' questions are the subject of a study and can be separated from both survey and experiment as alternative strategies (Yin, 2003). The ‘how' and ‘why' research questions can establish cause and effect and seek answers over a period rather than frequency or incidence (Duff, 2008). This research sought to understand a group of bilingual Mongolian university students' Japanese learning motivations and attitudes under a specific natural language context and foreign language policy. 2) The researcher has little to no control over behavioural events, which is indeed this research. I did not know the participants, and they are recruited independently. For

the researchers, an inevitable trade-off is involved between the number of cases and the degree of likelihood that details may be obtainable, which trends to relate with the sensitivity of the study to contextual and personal factors, and compares with the degree of control the researcher has over these. At the same time, these are typically open to criticism on account of the researcher's influence on a small number of cases (Hammersley, 1992). 3) The focus of the study is a contemporary rather than historical phenomenon, allowing for depth in understanding phenomena. Case studies have the advantage over historical studies, in that they are contemporary and allow for depth in understanding phenomena (Angrosino, 2007; Yin, 2009). For example, it takes time to explore the features or issues of the participants' attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and motivations on FLPLP implementation in real language contexts.

Thirdly, case study research is a potentially powerful and practical form of inquiry phenomenon and builds a theory that leads to important insights in the field of language education (Hatch, 1978). It focuses on a small number of research participants: language learners and teachers typically. The individuals' behaviours, performance, knowledge, and perspectives are studied to address timely questions regarding language acquisition, attrition, interaction, motivation, identity, and other topics (Duff, 2008). The bilingual Mongolian university students' views on institutional foreign language policy implementation seem to measure by the influential factors of their target language learning experience and motivation, and language contexts.

Finally, the embedded multiple-case design was adopted, in which different sub-units may be involved in each of the various cases, and a range of instruments. Compared with the single-case study, for comparative purposes, the multiple-case study is worth more, having double the amount of data and considered to provide more persuasive evidence considered (Campbell, 1975; Yin, 2014). Further, with qualitative multiple-case study research combined with other research methods, it is probably pretesting and post-testing attitudes and motivation of participants, offering possibilities for capturing both linguistic and social experience aspects of language acquisition (Duff,

2012). Case studies require many variables operating in a single case, and to set the implications of these variables, more than one research method is usually needed for data collection (Yin, 2014). This research blended the numerical data of the questionnaire, and qualitative data of semi-structured interview and document review, to explain, describe, illustrate and enlighten the case for understanding students' positive and negative attitudes towards target language learning in linguistic and language context perspectives.

The case study attempts to generalise from findings to the wider population from which the sample was drawn, which can help researchers to understand other similar cases, phenomena, and situations. However, 'the generalisation only from sample to population/ universe is simply incorrect, irrelevant, inappropriate and inapplicable in respect of case study' (Yin, 2003, 2009, p. 43). This research represents the whole population of Eastern bilingual Mongolian university students who are learning Japanese, but it does not claim to represent the whole population of Mongolian bilingual university students. The intended generalisation might be to the Mongolian students and perhaps other minority students in China with similar characteristics in a similar foreign language learning context. Another goal might be to induce general principles based on the findings of Mongolian students' Japanese learning experience and apply them to models of acculturation or socialisation; this is also called analytical and theoretical generalisation (Duff, 2006, 2008 and 2012).

4.5.2 Selecting the case (participants)

A key issue in case study research is the selection of information (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011), and it is especially important for the researchers to consider the kinds and numbers of participants, they wish to study closely as the criteria and rationale for selecting participants will affect the kinds of descriptions and inferences, so a small-scale pilot study choosing one or two participants who meet the general target criteria is necessary before conducting the whole case study. This also gives researchers 'more options for sampling, for reporting on the findings, and/or noting similarities and

differences across cases' (Duff, 2012, p. 105). In my study, the target research participants are similar in demographic and identity information. The variables of the small-scale pilot study were chosen by grade (students), randomness (lecturers) and unicity (administrators).

4.5.3 What is the case in my study?

Participant selection was based on enrollment at the one Eastern Mongolian University in China. This university was anonymised for MDU in my research. MDU was founded in 1958, and it is one of the earliest comprehensive universities established in the ethnic regions of China. It is also the only comprehensive university for nationalities under the direct administration of the State of Ethnic Affairs and Inner Mongolia government. MDU is the biggest university in the Eastern part of Inner Mongolia, and it is the only minority university in Inner Mongolia, China. Further, it is one of the earliest universities in Inner Mongolia to conduct Mongolian multilingual language education and research. As one of the 13 higher education institutes for ethnic groups in China, MDU is committed to innovation in higher education for ethnic groups, with its wide-ranging academic system covering 11 disciplines. MDU consists of 25 colleges and two independent departments for general education: Foreign Language Teaching Department and the Department of Physical. The Foreign language teaching department is part of the school of foreign languages, which affords all non-language majors' students' foreign language teaching and managing in MDU. There are 3 Japanese lecturers who teach 353 Mongolian students (155 in Year 1 and 198 in Year 2) and 14 Han students (8 in Year 1 and 6 in Year 2) as at 2014/15 academic year. There is a one-course director who manages the daily teaching and learning work of this language department. According to the China College English Curriculum Requirements, the general minority students (non-language majors) have to take a foreign language course in their first two years' university study (Gao, 2010). The first language of the students in my research is Mongolian, who started to learn a second language (Chinese) at primary school and foreign language (English) at secondary school. Finally, they chose to learn Japanese (a third language) as their foreign

language at university. These full-time bilingual Mongolian university students are collectively called ‘students' in my research. The number of students who select the Japanese language as their foreign language course in the MDU amounts to 1,398, including 935 Mongolian students during the 2009/2010 academic year (Wu, 2009). This means that Mongolian students prefer to learn the Japanese language at MDU instead of English at the higher education stage.

4.6 Research Methods

This subsection describes the research methods used. It also provides the purpose, rationale, strategy and procedure for employing questionnaire, semi-structured interviews and documentary. Then, a brief overview of the relationship between the specific research methods used in this study and relevant research questions are given.

4.6.1 Questionnaire

(1) Purpose

The questionnaire is a widely used and useful research instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher in qualitative research (Wilson and Mclean, 1994). The questionnaire in practical work is written information forms containing sets of questions which the respondent completes and returns to the researcher. The questionnaire tends to seek factual information, simply requiring respondents to reveal straightforward information (background and biographical information, knowledge and behavioural information); opinions, attitudes, views, beliefs, values, and preference, etc. may also be investigated using a questionnaire and requires respondents to reveal information about feelings, and to express values and judgments about things (Punch, 1998; Denscombe, 2007). In my study, a structured questionnaire with closed questions was used to collect students' demographic information and their general attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs of Japanese learning. Further, with questionnaires, structured and numerical data about opinions survey from a larger number of participants than other methods of data collection may be

gained within a given timeframe (Cohen, Mansion, and Morrison, 2001).

(2) Rationale

Closed questions and open questions are two broad categories of question that the researcher can use to collect data (Newby, 2010). Denscombe (2007) proposes that the answers' structure of closed questions are allowing the answers which fit into categories that have been established in advance by the researcher. It presents the respondent with a pre-determined selection of responses. Closed questions offer more straightforward answers, and the responses are faster to code. However, the researcher needs to make sure of adequate coverage of the range of possible responses because the respondents cannot add any explanations to the categories. Further, 'if a closed and structured questionnaire is used, enabling patterns to be observed and comparisons to be made, then the questionnaire will need to be piloted and refined so that the final version contains as full a range of possible responses as can be reasonably foreseen' (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011. p. 381). The researcher can benefit from the many potential advantages of questionnaires, which are: economical; easier to arrange; supply standardised and pre-coded answers, receive accurate data; provide anonymity; allow wider sampling and provide more time to consider answers. However, there are potential disadvantages of questionnaires: researchers need to avoid poor response rate; incomplete or poorly completed and untrue responses (Bryman, 2004; Denscombe, 2007).

Specifically, in the present study, data obtained from the questionnaire is used to clarify students' specific attitudes and motivations for their language cognitions and behaviours, when choosing to learn Japanese instead of English at an eastern Mongolian University. Their general views assisted me in addressing the first research question, that is, 'Why do Year 1 and Year 2 bilingual Mongolian university students choose to study Japanese at an Eastern Mongolian University?'. Another purpose of the questionnaire is to develop the sub research questions 2.2 and 2.3, that is, 'What are these students' perception of the teaching effects? And 'What are these students'

beliefs towards the influential factors of language comparisons?'. The responses on general understandings on the usage of learning materials, teaching language, classroom contexts, learning difficulties, mistakes and errors of target language learning, are used for exploring more in-depth reasons and specific influential factors through the method of the semi-structured interview.

(3) Strategy

There are 28 closed questions in the students' questionnaire, which was adapted and based on the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, Horwitz, 1985) and design and analyse a specific questionnaire in language acquisition (Dornyei and Csizer, edited by Mackey and Gass, 2012) in students' general attitudes of foreign language learning aspect.

Mackey and Gass (2012) surmise that surveys on foreign language learning can target a wide variety of language-related issues and allow researchers to make inferences about larger L2 learning populations; this obviously facilitates decision making and policy formation in an informed and principled manner. Further, the survey can inform on language learners' intended language behaviour, that is, 'how students plan to respond to certain language learning situations (e.g., how much effort they are willing to invest in L2 learning); people's opinions and attitudes concerning specific L2s and the language learning process in general (e.g., how much they like certain aspects of learning a foreign language); participants' feelings (e.g., anxiety about language use) and beliefs about certain L2-related issues (e.g., the optimal age or method of learning an L2); learners' knowledge of certain issues in second language acquisition (SLA). (e.g., their awareness of different varieties of English); various background information and biodata from the students (e.g., facts about their language learning history)' (ibid. p.75).

The 28 specific questions of my study formed the main survey investigation on second language acquisition which was informed by Mackey and Gass (2012) and these were

divided into five parts to describe students' demographic information, previous and current language choice, their views on teaching materials and Japanese classes, their views on the Japanese learning experience, and their reasons for learning Japanese. The specific individual questions were referenced from the survey research of Kormos and Csizer (2009) on the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: attitude, selves and motivated learning behaviour. The pilot study of the student questionnaire was conducted with five students with the same demographic identity as target student participants. Based on their detailed responses, the near-final version of the questionnaire was agreed, and the answers provide detailed feedback for structured revision. The structure of the student questionnaire was revised by changing the sequence. The final version of the students' questionnaire started with students' demographic information to their general attitude. This is to avoid creating a mood-set or a mindset early on in the questionnaire; it is also important to commence the questionnaire with non-threatening questions that respondents can readily answer. After that, it might be possible to move towards more personalised questions. (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Further, a pilot study of the questionnaire principally is to increase the validity, reliability, and practicability of the research (Oppenheim, 1992; Morrison, 1993; Wilson and McLean, 1994).

(4) Procedure

Before starting to collect students' questionnaire data, basic information (student number, class number, class time) of the bilingual Mongolian students who were learning Japanese during 2014/2015 academic year was collected from the course director. There were 353 students (155 Year 1 students and 199 Year 2 students) arranged into eight classes for learning Japanese. The course director also helped me to contact three Japanese teachers and obtain their permission for distributing a questionnaire in class. The questionnaire was distributed to the Japanese teachers before class time, and collected from them after class. Due to students' absence and public holidays, the questionnaire was distributed to each Japanese class six times over three weeks; this was done to increase the response rate, accurate completion and

truthful answers. Finally, 337 students' valid questionnaires were received, with a return rate of 95.5%. In my study, the questionnaire data was gathered using Likert scale closed-ended items; the questionnaire data was input into Excel, which was used for storage and analysis. Coding of questionnaire data was straightforward: each predetermined response option was assigned a number (e.g. 'strongly agree' = 5 'agree' =4, 'uncertain'=3, 'disagree'=2, 'strongly disagrees'=1). The percentage of each predetermined response in each question was calculated by the Excel and results were showed in tables.

4.6.2 Interviews

(1) Purpose

The interview is a flexible research tool to collect relevant psychological features and behaviour data with research objects, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard (Cohen et at., 2001). The interview may serve three purposes. 'First, it may be used as the principal means of gathering information having a direct bearing on the research objectives. Second, it may be used to test hypotheses or to suggest new ones; or as an illuminating device to help identify variables and relationships. And third, the interview may be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 411). As one of the research methods in my study, the interview is used to go deeper into the attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and motivations of respondents based on their demographic information and general views in the questionnaire, and their reasons for responding as they do.

The interviews were employed to obtain qualitative data and compensate for the limitations of questionnaires. Tuckman (1972) compares the relative merits of interview and questionnaire, as illustrated in the next *Table*.

Table 4.1: Summary of relative merits of interviews versus questionnaire

Consideration	Interview	Questionnaire
1.Personal need to collect data	Requires interviewers	Requires a secretary
3.Opportunities for response-keying (Personalization)	Extensive	Limited
3.Opportunities for asking	Extensive	Limited
4.Opportunities for probing	Possible	Difficult
5.Typically, the number of respondents who can be reached	Limited	Extensive
6.Rate of return	Good	Poor
7.Overall reliability	Quite limited	Fair

Adapted from Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p.412).

This table reveals that the direct interaction between the interview and questionnaire is a source of both the advantages and disadvantages of the research technique. The one advantage is that the interview allows researchers to go deeper than the other methods of data collection. However, a disadvantage is that the interview is prone to subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer. The advantage of the questionnaire could solve the limitation of the interview; for instance, the questionnaire tends to be more reliable and encourages greater honesty because of its anonymity. Further, the questionnaire may present a challenge to people of limited literacy. Moreover, the interview can be conducted at an appropriate speed whereas questionnaires are often filled out hurriedly (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011).

In this study, the questionnaire is used initially to collect the demographic information and general views of all students who chose Japanese as a foreign language at an Eastern Mongolian University, and thereafter the interview is used to explore in more depth based on the gathered questionnaire data.

(2) Rationale

How is the new researcher to understand and use the range of various types of the interview? Kvale (1996) claims that ‘a major difference appears to lie in the degree of structure in the interview, which, itself, reflects and purposes of the interview, for example, to generate numbers of respondents' feelings about given issue or to indicate unique, alternative feelings about a particular matter '(p. 126-127).

In the literature, three categories of interviews are generally identified, namely, unstructured, semi-structured and structured interview. Specifically, the structured interview is used when the researcher is aware of what he/she does not know and therefore is in a position to frame questions that will supply the knowledge required; there is a complete pre-prepared script, whereas the unstructured or semi-structured interview there is an incomplete script, whereby the researcher may have prepared some questions beforehand, and these are used when the researcher is not aware of what he/she does not know, and therefore relies on the respondents to tell them, therefore, simultaneously, the interviewee may raise issues relevant to them during the process (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Fontana, 2000; Cohen et al., 2001). A semi-structured interview is adopted in my study because it involves the interviewer deciding in advance what broad topics should be covered and what main questions should be asked (Miller and Brewer, 2003). Miller and Brewer indicate that ‘flexibility plays a key part in structuring and interaction, the interviewer mays ask certain major questions the same way each time but may alter their sequence and probe for more information' (2003, p. 167).

Interviews with the students, teachers, and administrators employed in my study were individual interviews. Compared with the limitation of interaction within a group, the participants may find it quite difficult to articulate the reasons for their opinions by exposing their backgrounds and values in a group setting (Newby, 2010). The individual interview can uncover opinions and views expressed throughout the interview stemming from one source, namely, the interviewee; the researcher therefore only has one person's ideas to grasp and interpret, and one person to guide through the

interview agenda, thus, it makes the process of the interview easier to control (Denscombe, 2007). Further, the individual interview also acts as an instrument to test the data of the questionnaire, building on this, by gaining detail on individual experiences, choices and personal biographies (Bauer and Gaskell, 2000).

Qualitative interviewing is particularly useful as a research method for accessing individuals' attitudes and values – things that cannot necessarily be observed or accommodated in a formal questionnaire (Byrne, 2004). However, interviews do not appear to give us direct access to the facts or to events (Silverman, 2012). In my study, all participants' attitudes and values towards the implementation of FLPLP were collected and interpreted by multiple research methods. The aim of interview questions is described as the further exploration of participants' general impression of FLPLP implementation, based upon the questionnaire data. In order to find the influential factors of Japanese learning, teaching and managing in the language context of MDU, the interview questions unpack students' Japanese learning experience in the usage of the textbook, teaching language, learning difficulties, mistakes errors, and the reasons for their language choice. The interview questions also examine each connection of the theoretical framework for describing the whole Japanese context of MDU and answering the research questions.

(3) Issues in interviewing minority people

A new researcher needs to pay more attention to the interview questions of policy evaluation that might be sensitive for the participants. They might be reluctant to talk about their judgments of someone else's work. As Lee (1993) points out, a sensitive question 'potentially poses a substantial threat to those who are involved or have been involved in it' (p.4). Whitty and Edwards (1994) argue that it is sometimes necessary for researchers to indicate that they are 'on the same side' as those being researched. Indeed, they report that 'we were questioned often about our own view, and there were times when to be viewed suspiciously from one side proved helpful in gaining access to the other' (p.22).

The interviewer also needs to consider the situation of ‘not all the methods of interviewing set out so far will apply to interview marginalised people, … i.e., those whose first language is a minority language' (Barron, 1999, p.14). In the interviews, all ten students and 2 of the 3 administrators' first language is Mongolian in my study. Greater use of informal, open-ended interview questions may be needed, which follow the train of thought of the respondent, using context-appropriate language speed to make them feel safe, secure, supported, close to the interviewer; as if they are telling their stories in their own words and recounting their subjective experiences and feelings, a non-judgmental and non-evaluative stance may also be needed by the interviewer, with built-in opportunities for minority respondents to state their in-depth views (Swain et al., 1998, Barron, 1999)

Concerning the interview time, location and language used, these choices are left to the participants to promote more valid information at a time and in a place convenient to them. Further, all participants were made aware that their information and answers will be handled in strict confidential that presents in the face-to-face interview. Most of the interviews were conducted in the classrooms and Mongolian restaurants, wherever participants felt comfortable and free to articulate their views. Each interview lasted about one hour and was conducted in Chinese (Mandarin). With the agreement of the participants, all interviews were audio-taped, and notes were taken simultaneously and summarised afterward.

(4) Interview guide

Although there is no formal schedule of questions to be asked word-for-word in a set order in a semi-structured interview (Catherine and Symon, 1994), the researcher has ‘a list of question on fairly specific topics to be covered, referred to as an interview guide' (Bryman, 2004, p.321). The interview guide is a vital part of the research process and needs detailed attention. A good interview guide will create an easy and comfortable framework for a discussion and communication, and provides a logical

and plausible progression through the issues in focus. Finally, it acts as a preliminary model for the analysis of the transcripts (Bauer and Gaskell, 2000).

The content of the interview guide in my study comprises four leading questions, but they are not directly used with the participants. The specific interview questions around these would present themselves clearly. The interview guide provides the freedom for the interviewer to clarify interviewee's understanding and to ask follow-up questions for exploring their viewpoints, to determine knowledge or to open up other explanatory answers to questions that were not foreseen when the research questions were determined (Newby, 2010)

Catherine and Symon (1994) state that the interview guide 'lists topics the interviewer should attempt to cover in the course of the interview' (p. 19). The application of interview guide may be modified through use: adding probes or even whole topics which had originally not been included. However, the interview guide also may have emerged spontaneously in the interviews, which are incomprehensible to participants or consistently fail to elicit responses in any way relevant to the research question(s) (Catherine and Symon, 1994).

In this study, the interview guide unpacks and details the questions from the student questionnaire that were based on the literature of the theoretical framework, as displayed in *Figure 4.2.*

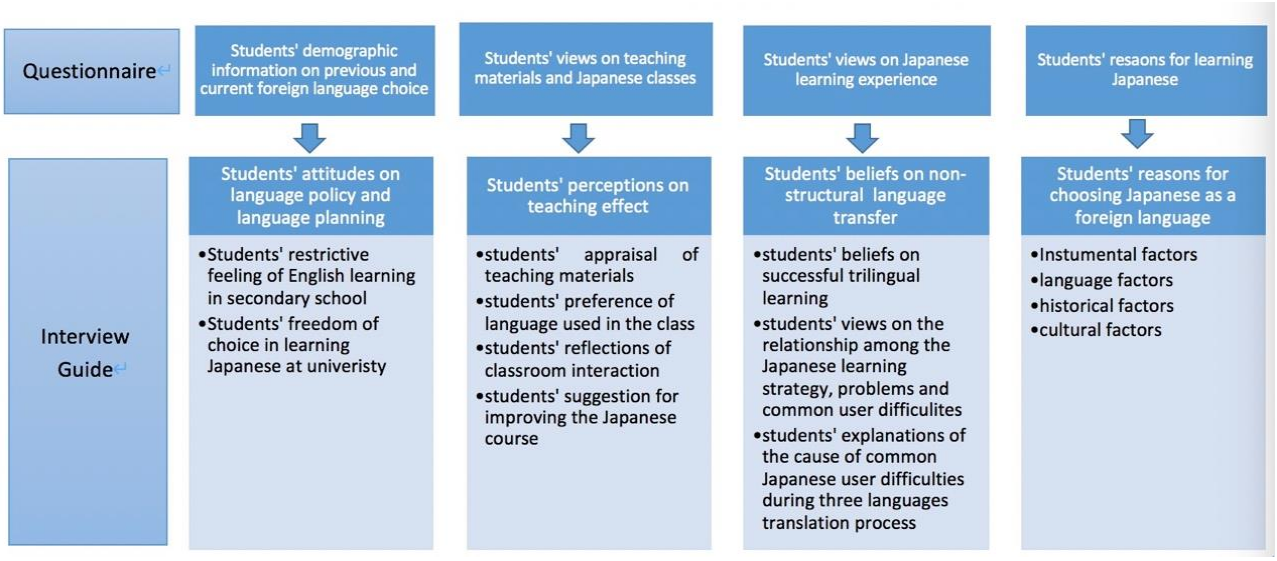


Figure 4.2. Origin and development of interview guide (by author)

(5) The changes in the interview question

Any changes in the interview guide should be fully documented with the rationale given that such issues arising may lead to a modification of the guide for subsequent interviews. The interviewer needs to make full use of his or her social scientific imagination to recognise when issues beyond prior planning and expectation arise in the discussion, which may be significant. The interview pilot discussions may lead to modification of the guide for subsequent interviews (Bauer and Gaskell, 2000). After the interviewed pilot, changes were made to my specific interview questions with respect to terminology simplification and asking format. Further, direct and specific interview questions may cause participants to give honest answers and further explanations. As a series of interviews progress, some topics or questions which were initially considered central in the design phase may turn out to be uninteresting, or misunderstanding, either for conceptual reasons or because respondents have little if anything to say about them (Bauer and Gaskell, 2000).

'The interview is a flexible tool for data collection, … the order of the interview may be controlled whilst still giving space for spontaneity, and the interviewer can press not only for complete answers but for responses about complex and deep issues' (Cohen,

Manion, and Morrison, 2011, p.409). Although three kinds of the individual face-to-face semi-structured interview were adopted in my study, however, how to measure the gap among three categories of interview participants' answers? Another research method, in this case, documentary, would fill this gap.

4.6.3 Documentary

(1) Purpose

The purpose of analysing documents is to understand the language context in the eastern part of Inner Mongolia, China, and also to address the sub research question 2.2, that is, 'What are these students' perception of the teaching effects?' To answer this question involves collecting and analysing data produced from the interpretation of documents and records relevant to a particular study (Payne and Payne, 2004). Cohen et al. (2011), suggest that documents may include public records, such as government documents, political records, syllabuses, and textbooks, and also private documents, i.e., school records, personal journals, memoirs and teaching logs.

(2) Rationale

The documentary research method is intended to provide access to, and facilitate insights into the form of the documents with an overall picture of the aims, objectives, and procedures of the works and to prepare their audit and inspection for educational institutions (Atkinson and Coffey, 2004; Bryman, 2004). Further, this method explains the current structures, relationships, and behaviours in the context of previous, recent and longer-term trends of the documents (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). Denscombe (2007) compares the types of official records with personal documents, whereby the official ones might include government publications and official statistics; newspapers and magazines; records of meetings; letters and memos; diaries; website pages and the internet. However, Atkinson and Coffey (2004) indicate all the techniques and resources that are employed for creating versions of reality and self-representations. And the function of institutional documents, are documentary records that embody individual actions, interactions, and encounters.

In my study, the primary national documents of the China College English on institutional minority foreign language policy aspect, as the basis for historical and documentary and a complementary instrument to explore the interpretation of national language policy in the regional, institutional and classroom level. The authoritative, objective and factual documentary sources of information on institutional Mongolian university foreign language policy also delivers different attitudes for each participant, each with a distinct identity (students, teachers, and administrators). It attempts to analyse how language documents affect minority language institution's (Eastern Inner Mongolia University) trilingual acquisition mode. In conjunction with other data of this study, obtained through questionnaires and interviews, the documentary is very important in triangulation (Punch, 1998). All the participants' explanations on the changes and adjustment of institutional foreign language policy from the interviews, which illuminates the past, patterns of continuity and the origins of current structures and relationships in the language documents.

(3) Selection of documents

The documents utilised in the present study included the national College English Syllabuses 1980, 1985, 1986, 1999, and the revised College English Curriculum 2004 and 2007, the College English textbooks, the CET organisation, University and department-level rules and regulations to enact the national policy intent, and teaching and learning plans. The documents from College English, such as the syllabuses, textbooks and the CET organization, helped me to explore the implementation of FLPLP in the classroom context (research question 2.2) within the whole scope in terms of what to teach (teaching materials and focus), how to teach (teaching methods) and how to assess (testing and assessment).

(4) The procedure of document collection

Data from documents on College English were collected at the relevant different levels, including institutional regulations, the teaching effects and students' self-learning,

through analyzing the change of College English in respect to curriculum aims and goals, textbook compilation and selection, assessment criteria, teaching and learning model, to describe and examine the holistic and real foreign language teaching and learning context in China.

According to the analysis of the relationship and difference between language policy and language planning, and descriptions of College English reform in Chapter 2, foreign language policy of China's College English requires all non-English majors' college/university students to learn English as a compulsory foreign language course during their first two years' study at higher/tertiary educational level from national level. The national foreign language policy also offers the flexible space and flexibility of curriculum requirement and planning adjustments for the regional educational institutions. In this study, the adjustable foreign language planning of the MDU provides three foreign languages' (Japanese, English, Russian) options for bilingual Mongolian students as their compulsory foreign language course at university. However, the regional language planning still follows the national guidelines such as the requirement of the length of learning and teaching hours. FLPLP not only describes the difference at implementation level between foreign language policy (national) and language planning (regional), but also stresses the implementation relationship that language planning formulates regional requirements under the national guidelines. In the language context of MDU, bilingual Mongolian students' understanding on FLPLP tended rather to explain their attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivation of the language planning implementation, the teachers and administrators' understandings were more focused on the relationship between language policy and language planning.

Multiple data collection methods were employed to obtain a multi-perspective picture of reality. The specific research methods used in this study are summarised in *Table 4.2* on the basis of the relevant research questions.

Table 4.2 Methods used in this study on the basis of the research questions

Research questions	Questionnaire	Interviews	Analysis of documents
1.1 How do Instrumental factors affect these students' trilingual acquisition?	√	√	
1.2 How do language factors affect these students' trilingual acquisition?	√	√	
1.3 How do cultural and historical factors affect these students' trilingual acquisition?	√	√	
2.1 What are these students', teachers' and administrators' attitudes toward foreign language policy and language planning (FLPLP)?		√	
2.2 What is these students' and teachers' perceptions of the teaching effects?	√	√	√
2.3 What is these students' belief toward non-structural influential factor of language transfer?	√	√	

4.7 Sampling

The researcher often needs to obtain data from a smaller group or subset of the total population in such a way that the knowledge and results gained represent the entire population under study. This smaller group or subset is the sample. The decisions and sampling strategy from researchers have to be made about five key factors: '1. The sample size; 2. the representativeness and parameters of the sample; 3. Access to the sample; 4. the sampling strategy to be used; 5. the kind of research that is being undertaken' (e.g., quantitative/qualitative/mixed methods) (Yates, 2004; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011, p. 143). Patton (2002) summarises the sampling strategy and states that 'qualitative inquiry typically focuses in depth on relatively small

samples, even single cases, selected purposefully, quantitative methods typically depend on larger samples selected randomly' (p.230).

Kuzel (1992) discusses the differences of sampling between qualitative and quantitative research; he finds that in quantitative research, the sample trends to represent some larger population and tries to gerneralise the research findings; in qualitative inquiry, sampling is driven by the desire to illuminate the questions under study and to increase the scope or range of data exposed – 'to uncover multiple realities…, quantitative sampling concerns itself with representativeness, and qualitative sampling with information-richness' (p.33).

The qualitative probability sampling takes smaller subset data in-depth in order to indicate the broader case by using researchers' experience and mathematical formulae. In this study, the first sampling decision is when to prepare and conduct a pilot study of the student questionnaire and participant interview. 353 students have opted to study Japanese at the Eastern Mongolian University, and three lecturers, 1-course leader, one Dean, and one Chancellor appropriately organise and coordinate daily teaching tasks and the curriculum operation. The specific information of participants is described in *Table 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5*.

Table 4.3: Student'' demographic information (by author)

Students' demographic information				
Grade	Number	Percentage	Class number	Class size
Year 1	155	43.9%	4	45,28,35,47
Year 2	199	56.1%	4	56,35,55,52

Table 4.4: Lecturers' demographic information (by author)

Lecturers' demographic information				
Surname	Sex	Ethnicity	Teaching grade	Class number
Sun	Male	Han	Year 1 and	Two Year 1 classes and two

			Year2	Year 2 classes
Wang	Female	Mongolian	Year 1	One Year 1 class
Zhao	Female	Mongolian	Year 1 and Year 2	One Year 1 class and two Year 2 classes

Table 4.5: Administrators' demographic information (by author)

Administrators		
Identity	Sex	Ethnicity
Course director	Female	Han
Dean	Male	Mongolian
Chancellor	Female	Mongolian

The sampling decisions were to choose two Year 1 and three Year 2 students to complete the pilot questionnaire by population ratio; one Year 1 and one Year 2 student to complete the student interview pilot; 1 lecturer teaching both Year 1 and Year 2 students to complete the pilot study of lecturer interview; the course leader, dean and chancellor also cooperated to complete the interview pilot. Typical case sampling was adopted in my study, and the sample includes the most typical cases of the group or population under study (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). These typical participants who attended the pilot study were chosen from the target population randomly, but they are supposed to represent each of the identities.

4.8 Validity and reliability

The research design is presented above, and some guidelines for rigour and trustworthiness in qualitative research are considered to reflect on the quality of my research. Social science is thus scientific to the extent that it uses appropriate methods and is rigorous, critical and objective in its handling of data (Silverman, 2011). Rigour and trustworthiness in all kinds of research are required to ensure that the research methods and findings are accurate (Davies & Dodd, 2002). There are two central concepts in any discussion of the credibility of scientific research: validity and reliability

(Altheide and Johnson, 1994). Thus, to address the quality of my research instruments and findings, the terms of validity and reliability are used and discussed in this study, particularly their meanings and applications in qualitative research. Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the inferences that researchers make, based on the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, while reliability refers to the consistency of these inferences over time (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1990; Winter, 2000).

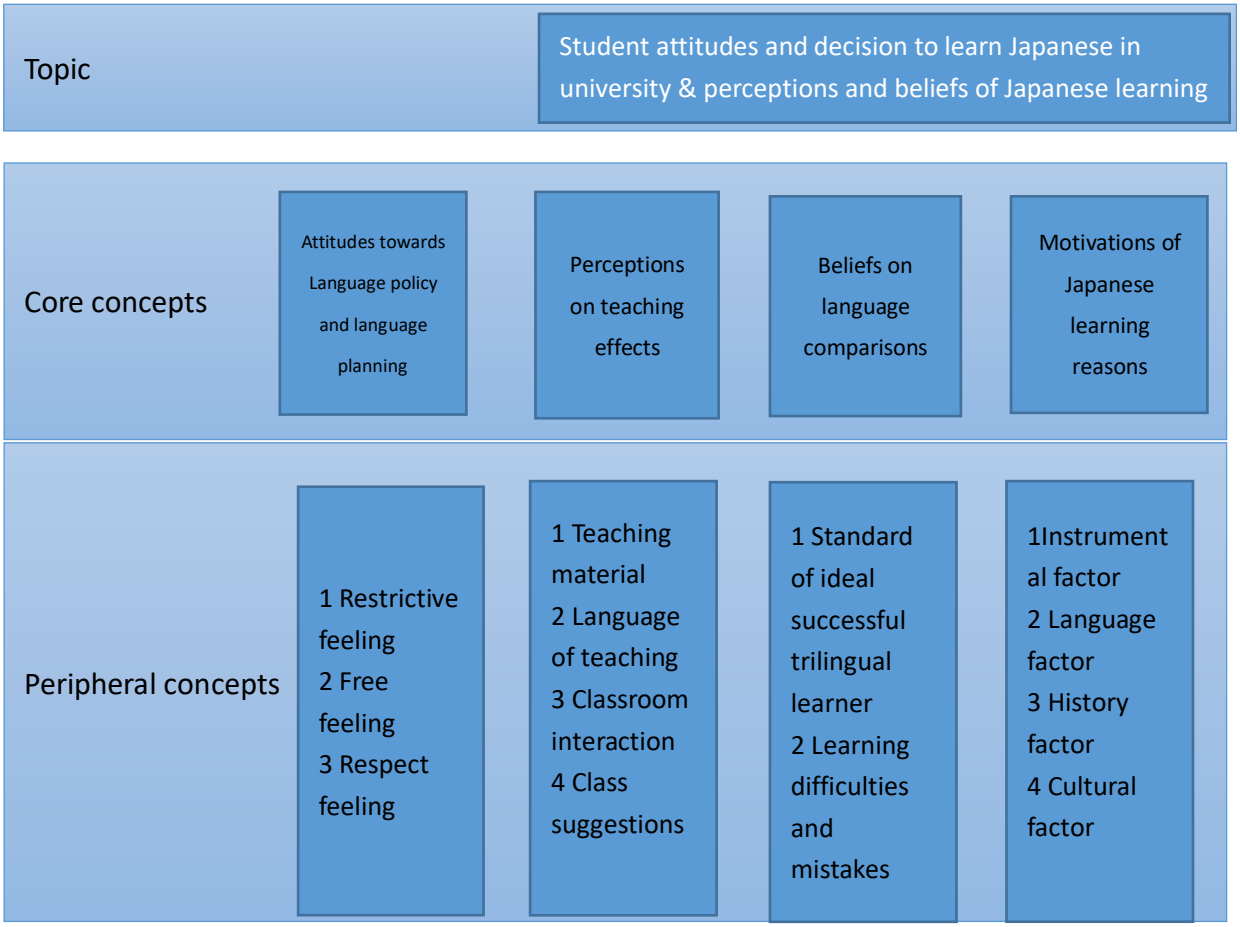
4.8.1 Validity in qualitative research

Proposing a purportedly accurate statement involves the possibility of errors, that is, error in believing a statement to be true when it is not (a hypothesis where there is no relation between the variables); error is rejecting a statement which, in fact, is true (incorrectly supporting the null hypothesis) (Krik and Miller, 1986). This form of validation has been suggested as particularity appropriated to avoid the trustless of qualitative research: comparing different kinds of data (quantitative and qualitative) and different methods (observation and interviews) to see whether they corroborate with one another. This triangulation method derives from navigation, where different bearings give the correct position of an object (Silverman, 2011). In this study, the triangulation combines multiple theories, methods, and data to produce a more accurate, comprehensive and objective representation of an FLPLP implementation in the minority area of China. The multiple methods of the documentary, qualitative analysis of questionnaire with interviews were combined; further, the multiple quantitative data from the questionnaire and qualitative data from interviews corresponded and established the validity of findings and conclusions.

In qualitative data, the subjectivity of respondents, participants' attitudes, opinions, and perspectives together contribute to a degree of bias, hence, the proper way that researchers strive to minimise invalidity and maximise validity (Gronlund, 1998). Choosing multiple methods and data will thus give the researcher an account of structure and meaning from within that perspective. Researchers want to generate

data insight into people's experience, while constructions will prefer to reveal how particular social phenomena are put together through particular interactions (Silverman, 2012). There are three tests used for testing the validity of this research design: construct, internal and external tests (Yin, 2014). Construct validity involves identifying and operationalising concepts being studied (Yin, 2014). Core concepts with attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations, language policy and language planning, teaching effects, and language comparisons, and the peripheral concepts were operationalised in the figure below. It explains how concepts were derived from the research objective in correspondence with the source of evidence in the questionnaires and interviews with students. It demonstrates and reflects the way in which the participants experience construes the situations in the research (Eisenhart and Howe, 1992). The peripheral development and procedure of this research is described by *Figure 4.3.*

Figire 4.3 Core and peripheral concepts of the study (by author)



The ways to ensure the internal validity include a research framework derived from literature; a comparison of empirically observed patterns with either predicted ones or patterns in the existing literature and different contexts (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Eusenhart, 1989). The development of core and peripheral concepts in this study takes multiple research theories and methods to unpack the contents of students' language cognitions and motivations of Japanese learning. In chapter 3, my theoretical framework was built up by multiple research theories on language policy and language planning, language attitude, perceptions and beliefs, language learning motivation and language comparisons. Through comparing the change of China College English and Japanese Curriculum in requirements, textbook selection, assessment, teaching and learning models; the difference between language attitude, perception, belief, and motivation; clarification on the reasons of language comparisons for describing a completed FLPLP implementation with language cognition contents, cause-effect sequence and influencial factors at each language context. The procedure of theoretical framework formation was useful for improving the plausible and credible outcome explanations in my findings.

The ways to ensure external validity refer to the transferability of the findings; the research findings can be generalised to the wider population, cases, settings, times or situations (Schofield, 2007). These research results provide sufficiently rich data and full descriptions for the readers and users of research to determine whether transferability is possible in the same research context.

4.8.2 Reliability in qualitative research

The reliability of qualitative research is replaced with terms such as 'confirmability,' 'trustworthiness', and refers to the consistency of the researcher's interactive style, data analysis and interpretation of participants' meaning from data (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; McMillan and Schumacher, 1993, p. 385). As regards the reliability of the extent to which a technique produced the pre-test (pilot study) of the same participants in this study, if the pilot pattern of the findings devised yields similar to the whole

findings carried out, then the pre-test can be said to demonstrate the analytical framework of reliability (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Concerning qualitative research, the reliability is achieved by making the research process transparent through describing the research strategy and data analysis methods in a sufficiently detailed manner in a research report, and making explicit the theoretical stance from which the interpretation takes place and showing how this produces particular interpretations and excludes others (Silverman, 2012). Here the theoretical framework, data collection, and analysis procedure have been listed clearly where inquiry could, quite logically, be replicated.

The reliability may also be improved by paying attention to the different research methods for minimising errors and biases. To ensure the complete questionnaires do so accurately, honestly and correctly, and increase the return rate, thus, multiple rounds of follow-up request returns strategy were adopted in this study (Miller, 1997). It took three weeks (6 times) of distributing and collecting 353 students' questionnaires. This strategy enabled me to understand the nature of the case population in depth, which compared with data from the course director. For the reliability of the interview, in order to avoid overstating and understating of the actual value from the participants, the interview questions were revised and asked in the interview pilot study. Careful piloting of the interview with changes in wording and emphasis is vital for ensuring each interviewee understands the question in the same way, which achieves greater validity and thus, minimises the amount of bias as much as possible (Silverman, 1993). With the noted efforts, attempts were made to achieve the validity and reliability of this study.

4.9 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues were considered and applied in accordance with the research and Doctorate guidelines provided by the University of Nottingham which comply with the British Educational Research Association BERA, (2004) guidelines. Further, the statement of research ethics was submitted in May 2014 and was approved in June

2014.

Researchers should have an ‘ethical and professional responsibility' to researcher participants to produce a study that is worthy of their time, goodwill and inconvenience' which is similar with BERA's guidelines which promote respect for persons, knowledge and democratic values as well as for the quality of educational research (Lankshear and Knobel, 2006; Sharp, 2009). Confidentiality and anonymity can be difficult to put into practice within an institution (Lankshear and Knobel, 2006). Furthermore, confidentiality is a principle that permits people to express themselves in confidence but also prohibits the publication of material that might cause harm (Piper and Simons, 2011). In this study, this was done by masking relationships between specific people and specific details by changing the names of people and university. Although this does not guarantee that they would not be identifiable, this at least provides a kind of protection toward ensuring the anonymity of participants.

4.10 Data collection procedure

The overall data collection plan was to conduct three major phases which involved with three research methods, namely, whole population questionnaire for students; semi-structural interview with ten students, all lecturers, and administrators in this case; and the review of national language policy documents. Multiple data collection methods were employed in my study for describing a completed picture of the reality on FLPLP implementation at MDU. The specific research methods used were summarised in *Table 4.6.*

Data collection procedure and associated research methods	Fieldwork activity and research methods	Data collected
Phase 1 April and May 2014	Accessing participants and gaining informed consent Conducting the pilot study of student questionnaire, participants' interview	5 students' questionnaire 2 students' interviews (one Year1/one Year 2) 1 lecturer interview 1 administrator interview
Phase 2 June and July 2014	Conducting students' questionnaire, students', lecturers' and administrators' interviews.	337 students' valid questionnaires returned (353 in total, return rate is 95.5%) 10 students' interviews completed (4 Year 1 students and 6 Year 2 students) 3 lecturers' interviews completed (1 male and 2 females) 1-course director interview completed 1 dean of foreign language school interview completed 1 chancellor of Eastern Mongolian university interview completed
Phase 3 September to December 2014	Examination of the documents	Documents of China's College English Curriculum and Mongolian foreign language policy

Table 4.6: Procedure of data collection and associated research methods (by author)

Planning before the main research study involved the conduct of a small-scale pilot study in April and May 2014. The pilot study was conducted at the end of May, a time that coincided with the completion of the students' first year or second year of Japanese learning. It means that they are the 'real' Year 1 and Year 2 students. Thus, it is useful for collecting the 'truth' and valid students' Japanese learning experience data. The students who chose Japanese as a foreign language to study in the first year and second year at the Eastern Mongolian University were recruited to complete a student questionnaire and interview, and this process was on-going for 20 days due to the students' free time. One hundred students left their emails on the student questionnaire; this contact information allowed me to contact them via email, which was useful for asking further questions about their Japanese learning during the interview phase. Finally, ten student candidates were selected at random and on a voluntary basis to ensure that the pilot study and the main study were conducted in an appropriate manner. I discussed the reasons for each changed question in each specific research method.

4.11 Data analysis

Analytical framework

Data were analysed thematically (in *Figure 4.3*) to identify core themes, sub-themes, and peripheral themes developed from the theoretical framework. In this study, analytical framework unpacks the contents of students' language cognitions in the theoretical framework, and takes structure and influencial fators of theoretical framework to describe the different language contexts in MDU. The themes are represented by an analytical framework, as shown in the table below, together with specific interview questions and data samples for illustration. The data sample was a Year 2 student who nearly touched upon all themes. The interview data focused on the ten students, three lecturers and three administrators' to obtain a completed view of FLPLP implementation at the university from their language attitudes, perceptions and beliefs. *Table 4.7* was used to summarise the data for each focal themes based on the literature review. Four main themes (language attitude, perception, belief and the reason of foreign language choice), which unpacked by nine key factors (restricted feeling, free feeling, appraisal of teaching material within number, organisation, favourite content part, preference of language used in class within the amount of L1, L2 and L3 usage, reflection on the function of classroom interaction, suggestion for Japanese course improvement in the class time, teaching strategy and classroom management, the criteria of successful trilingual learner in cultural and linguistic aspects, learning difficulties in listening, vocabulary, grammar, cognate and translation, instrumental motivation, language factor and learning interest for the foreign language decision) were identified. Under the 22 columns of sub-themes and peripheral themes headed by these nine key factors and in the rows devoted to all the participants.

Table 4.7 also defined the interview coding categories by sub-research questions and specific individual interview questions. To perform the summarising, condensing, and storing of a concrete example that falls into a certain coding category, I assigned an abstract symbol with a student interview answer to represent the case in that category.

The classification of sub and peripheral theme depended on the nature of information by labelling the keywords and frequently used words of students' answers. Microsoft Excel was used to analyse 337 valid returned students' questionnaires (return rate: 95.5%). The manual method was used to transcribe 16 participants' interview data and two language documents.

Table 4.7: Core themes, sub-themes, peripheral themes and data samples (by author)

Core theme/sub-research Questions	Specific Questions	Sub-theme	Peripheral theme	Data sample
1 What is the students' attitude towards foreign language policy and language planning (FLPLP)?	Student interview questions 1: What are your opinions toward choosing one from three foreign languages?	Students' restrictive feeling of English learning in secondary school.		*"I have to learn English since I was in middle school."* (Aruna, June 2014)
	Student interview questions 2 (See Appendix 1: Student interview question guide)	Students' free feeling of choosing to learn Japanese at the university.		*"This policy does not force us to study English."* (Aruna, June 2014)
2 What is the students' perception of the teaching effects?				
2.1 Students' appraisal of teaching material	Student interview question 3	The student felt that the Japanese teaching materials were limited in number.		*"We only have two Japanese teaching materials."* (Aruna, June 2014)
	Student interview question 4	The order of Japanese teaching material was followed by the same organisation as the students' English textbook in secondary school.		*"The order of Japanese teaching material content is the same as my English textbook in middle school and high school".* (Aruna, June 2014)
	Student interview question 5	The cultural and grammatical		*The part of 'application text' of*

		knowledge were improved by the favourite part of 'application text'.		*our teaching material is my favourite part…it introduces some simple basic Japanese culture…it will be easy for us to learn Japanese grammar".* (Aruna, June 2014)
2.2 Students' preference of language used in class	Student interview question 6	Students' L1 usage in L3 class was limited by lecturer's language background and suggestions		*"…teacher…barely speaks the Mongolian language. She suggested we speak more Japanese…and…Chine se"* (Aruna, June 2014)
	Student interview question 7	The L2 usage rate far exceeded that the proportion of L3 appears in the class.		"Our teacher *speaks Chinese in most situations."* (Aruna, June 2014)
	Student interview question 8	The usefulness of increasing usage rate of L3 satisfied language learners' learning needs on the vocabulary enlargement.		*"We might enlarge our Japanese vocabulary if we have more chances to listen more Japanese in the class".* (Aruna, June 2014)
2.3 Students' reflections of classroom interaction				
	Student interview question 9	The function of classroom interaction was to receive feedback on linguistic mistakes and suggestions for learning skills.		*"Yes, I really like it, because I want to practice my Japanese in the class…I ask my teacher some Japanese grammar issues and how to improve my Japanese language ability after class"* (Aruna, June 2014)
2.4 Students' suggestions for improving the Japanese	Student interview question 10			

course				
		2.4.1 fewer contact hours	The student had less class and after class time to learn Japanese	*"We always pass listening part…and I spend an hour per week on previewing and reviewing Japanese."* (Aruna, June 2014)
		2.4.2 Unclear teaching strategy in listening practices and grammar explanations	The student felt unconfident about L3 language abilities of listening and grammar	*"My Japanese listening skill is not good enough because the teacher leaves out the listening part in teaching material. And I hope that teacher can be more specific in Japanese grammar".*(Aruna, June 2014)
		2.4.3 Restrained classroom management	Listening practice in the Japanese textbook would be a useful way to improve pleasant and harmonious classroom climate.	*"We do not have any audio practices; I felt that classroom management was too strict."*(Aruna, June 2014)
3 What is the students' belief toward non-structural language transfer				
3.1 Students' beliefs on successful trilingual learner	Student interview question 11	Acquiring the cultural knowledge of Japanese was becoming a benchmark to evaluate a successful trilingual student.		*"…only by understanding the background knowledge of a language's cultures that can a language learner better grasp the language knowledge".* (Aruna, June 2014)
	Student interview question 12	The student had a sophisticated		*"I think I can achieve this goal because I*

		advantage in learning and produced the Japanese.		*have learned four languages already".* (Aruna, June 2014)
3.2 Students' views on the relationship among the Japanese learning strategy, problems, and common usage difficulties.				
3.2.1 Japanese learning problems in and after class	Student interview question 13			
		3.2.2.1 Listening difficulties	The student cannot keep up with the speed of listening practices in the textbook.	*"Japanese listening is the main learning problem of mine…I can't follow it because the speed of the speaker in the audio is a little fast."* (Aruna, June 2014)
		3.2.2.2 Vocabulary and Grammar difficulties	The limited Japanese vocabulary and grammar can hinder the student from understanding the questions of the exercises after class.	*"I could not…understand the meaning of questions… I think the limited Japanese vocabulary and grammar knowledge make me get into this trouble".* (Aruna, June 2014)
3.2.2 Students' Japanese usage difficulties in the linguistic area	Student interview question 14	Mispronunciation and misuse of Kanji were the common Japanese usage difficulties for the student.		*"Japanese words or sentences often carry some Chinese characteristics…misread them and are unable to use them correctly"* (Aruna, June 2014)
3.3 Students' explanations on the cause of common Japanese usage difficulties during three languages (Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese) translation process.	Student interview question 15	3.3.1 The student needed four times' translation process to complete a question-and-answer interaction in Japanese.		*"I…translate…Japanese …into Chinese. And then I…through translating Chinese into Mongolian. Finally, I…translate my Mongolian answer*

				into Japanese via Chinese". (Aruna, June 2014)
		3.3.2 The similarities and differences of the three languages that were causing the negative language transfer.		*"I think my translation errors are due to the similarities and differences of three languages."* (Aruna, June 2014)
4. Students' reasons for choosing Japanese as a foreign language at university.	Student interview question 16			
		4.1 Instrumental factor	The requirements of foreign language learning at the university have been simplified by choosing Japanese.	*"...it would be easier...to pass...exams...and we do not have to pass the CET 4...to get the bachelor certification"* (Aruna, June 2014)
		4.2 Language factor	The student's language decision are coming from others' language learning experience, that Japanese is much easier than English.	*"...our seniors...told me that it is much easier to study Japanese than English...and I have already studied English from my secondary school... I never got high marks..."* (Aruna, June 2014)
	Student interview question 17			
		4.3 Interest in Japanese cultural and historical factor	The student's selection was affected by Japanese culture, rather than history.	*"I...became...intereste d in Japanese culture...history has been a long time. I am not too sensitive in this aspect"* (Aruna, June 2014)

4.12 Summary

This chapter has briefly detailed the philosophical and methodological approaches of this research study. The chapter also introduced the strategy of employment of qualitative research with quantitative form data, which allowed me to use data collection instruments and analytical approaches from quantitative and qualitative data to investigate FLPLP implementation situation at the east Mongolian university

context in this study. The clear illustration of critical realism provides the rationale for this as the methodical framework. Then, the research design of this study presented the research questions, research procedures, ethical and sampling considerations. Finally, the analytical framework has been outlined, which serves to understand how these students chose to learn Japanese at university and their language learning experience.

Chapter Five Findings: Students' attitudes towards foreign language policy and language planning at the university level, and their motivations for learning Japanese

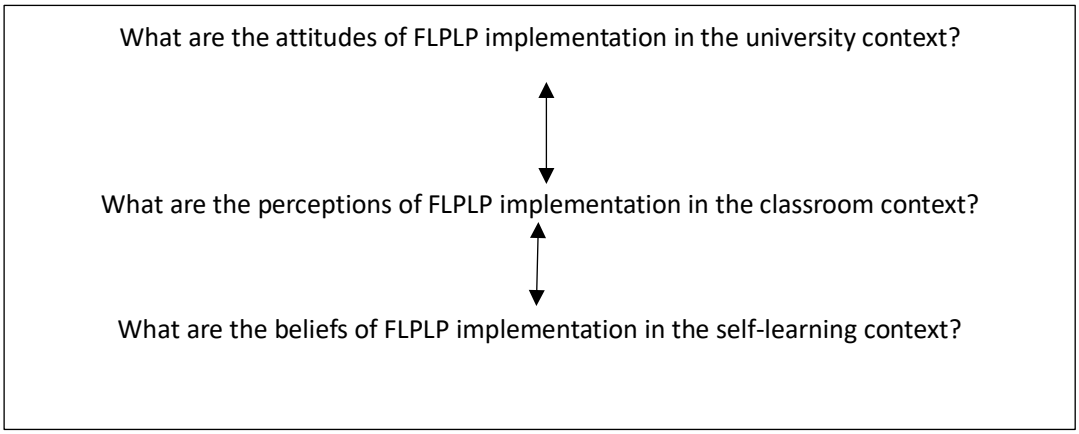
The following three chapters present the major emergent themes on analysis of students' questionnaires, interviews and document resources in relation to the research questions and explore how an FLPLP is implemented in a Mongolian university at university, classroom, and self-learning level. Chapter five reports on FLPLP implementation at the university stage, what relationships exist between language context and the content of language attitude, the cause-effect sequence of language attitude, learning motivation and language choice. Chapter six focuses upon the classroom context and describes how students' goals and desires of target language learning were limited by textbook usage, language teaching percentage and classroom interaction frequency. Chapter seven covers students' self-learning, which found that language comparisons affected students' target language learning in difficulties, mistakes and errors, and ideal successful criteria. In language attitude and motivation literature, exploration into the relationship between language context and attitudes, and motivation of bilingual Mongolian students' fourth language learning (Ajzen, 1988; Gardner, 1985a; Baker, 1992; Dörnyei, 1994a, 2001 and 2009) is limited, therefore, these research findings contribute to the knowledge of the contents and cause-effect sequence between language attitudes, motivations, and language behaviour, also propose the criteria of the ideal desired and successful foreign language context in China's minority areas.

The implementation of FLPLP at university level is not necessarily as same as the process of national FLP that intended by the administrative staffs; institutional regulations seem to adjust the requirements and create a popular/successful language context which is evaluated by participants' language attitude and motivation. The existing literature on foreign language policy implementation tends to lack systematic exploration of participants' cognitive and affective understandings of language context

or language context change, and further, how these affect the conative language choice/ behaviour. How language context is enacted at classroom and self-learning stages, is indicated in the findings of this research through understanding students, teachers, and administrative staffs' perceptions of FLPLP implementation at each language context.

Although the findings in Chapter five, six and seven are presented separately, they are connected, as shown in *Figure 5.1*. The university adjusted the routine of China College English and created a new language context for learning Japanese, that is, the actions taken by the university influenced how China College English is enacted at Mongolian university context. At the same time, the specific requirements of China College English with textbook usage, teaching and learning models, and assessment criteria were implemented in the classroom context. Students and teachers' perceptions on classroom context were formed by the requirements of China College English, and affected students' Japanese learning difficulties, mistakes, errors and successful criteria of an ideal trilingual learner. Thus, the findings suggest that the national foreign language policy was implemented and filtered through three levels in the Mongolian university, namely, university-level, classroom-level and individual level.

Figure 5.1 Connections of the findings



5.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to explore through research the concerns of a theoretical

framework on FLPLP implementation in the university context outlined in Chapter 2. Through the study of target language learning attitude and motivation, the chapter tries to move research thinking nearer towards understanding the origins and development procedure of language attitudes, choice and motivation in the language context of the Eastern Mongolian University. The MDU followed the guideline of national foreign language policy for China College English, and proposed their own foreign language planning that provided three foreign language options for the bilingual Mongolian students.

The first part of this chapter discusses the existing attitudes of student participants towards the FLPLP at the university level and how these were strongly linked to their experiences in the language context of school and university. The encounters with teacher and administrator participants' attitudes contributed to a further exploration of the reasons for this favourable FLPLP at university level (subsection 5.2; 5.3; 5.4; 5.5), and the second part demonstrates the motivations of students who chose to learn Japanese at university (subsection 5.6). The findings indicated that students, teachers, and administrators had positive attitudes towards the FLPLP in the language context of MDU for different reasons; a possible sequence of causation between students' language attitude, motivation and language choice was also reflected in participants' understanding of the language context at the university level.

According to the content of the literature review, language attitude research has been discussed in relation to gender, age, ability or achievement, language background, type of school attended and social class (Gardner, 1985a; Ajzen, 1988; Baker, 1992; Palikara, Lindsay and Dockrell, 2009). The relationship between language learners' motivation and the language context has considered motivations as integrative, instrumental, intrinsic, extrinsic, and related to goals and self-determination (Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 2009).

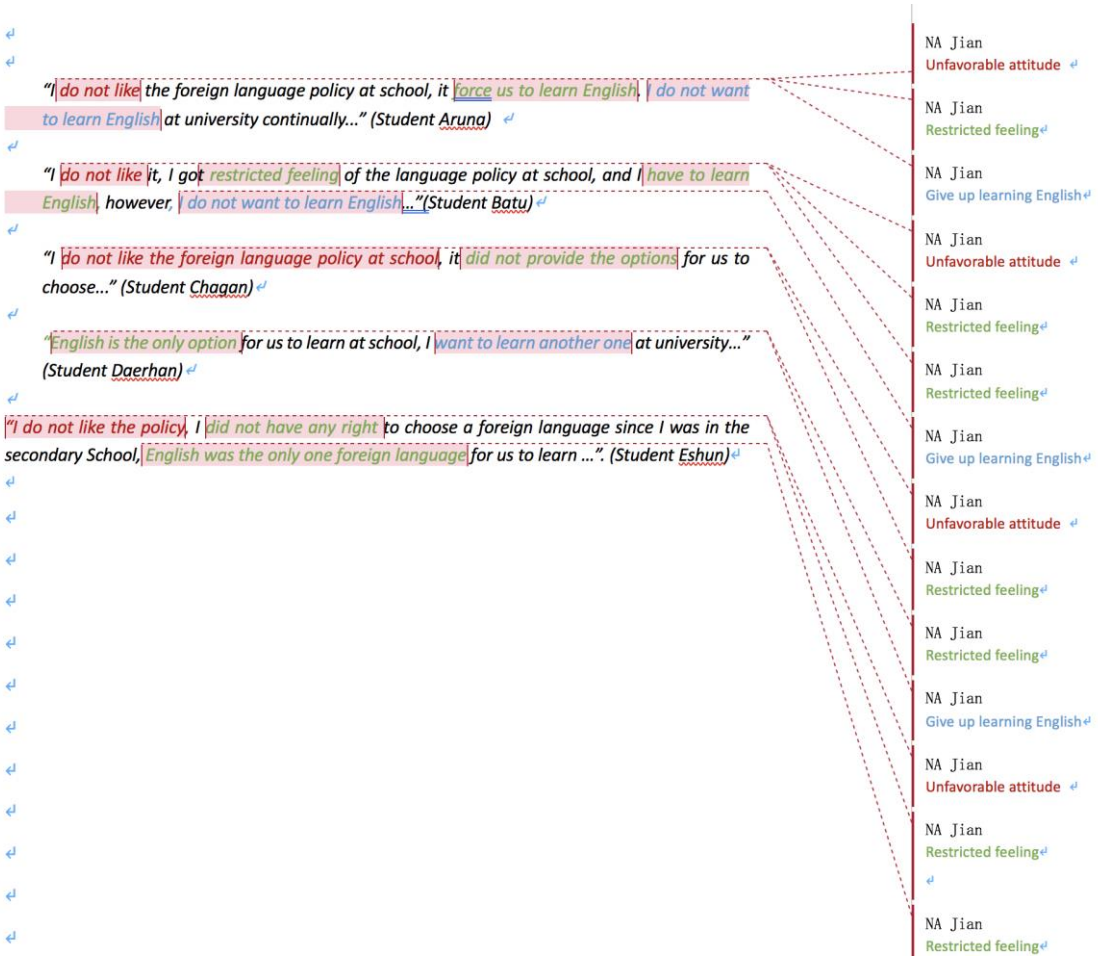
5.2 The students' attitude towards the FLPLP within the university context

As demonstrated in the interview data, student participants' evaluations of the FLPLP in the university language context were composed of their affective attitudes (favorable or unfavorable/positive or negative), which were based on their prior experience of foreign language study at school, current experience at the university, and cognitive attitude towards own identity characteristics. Their pre-university attitudes were revealed by their language choices from the three available language options at university. This same action of their different attitudes concerned a readiness for a behavioural intention to learn Japanese at the university.

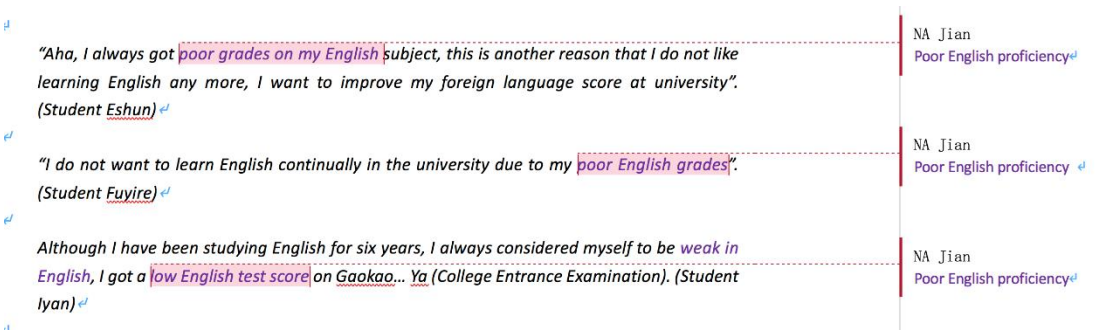
The procedure of analysing student participants' attitudes towards FLPLP included favourable and unfavourable attitudes towards the foreign language context at university and school, the beliefs on their ethnic identities, and the motivations of language choice in learning Japanese at the university.

5.2.1 Unfavorable cognition towards language context at school

One of the first questions asked during the student interview schedule was 'what do you think about the FLPLP of choosing one from three foreign languages in your university?' Student participants' responses indicated an unfavourable attitude towards FLPLP at school such as *'do not like,' 'no options', 'want to learn another language',* which reflected the unfavourable impact of language context of school on their attitudes.



The group answers in response to the same interview question showed that the students described the language attitude of English learning at school as the feeling of *restricted* (green), and this unfavourable attitude (red) affected their language behaviour (blue) of learning Japanese in the university language context. However, from their discussion of further reasons beyond the language context of their resultant language choice, the instrumental purpose of poor English proficiency emerged.



From the students' thoughts about their *poor English proficiency* (purple), with over

six years' learning experience, they chose to give up their continuous English learning at university driven by instrumental goals of foreign language learning. The findings suggested a negative relationship between an unfavourable attitude in English language proficiency and instrumental motivation in Japanese learning. A relatively instrumental motivation for Japanese learning was found in the bilingual Mongolian students, rather than English study. The students' unfavourable attitudes toward the FLPLP at school began with their cognitive evaluation of their own foreign language learning and was formed by their affective reasons about their previous foreign language context and poor English proficiency, which, in turn, affected their conative attitude towards the language choice.

5.2.2 Favorable attitude towards language context at the university

When the students were asked to explain their attitude about FLPLP at university level, the students who disliked the learning situation at school revealed an opposing attitude. The favorable impact of the university language context came from a *'free feeling' and 'more options.'*



These collections of students' favourable attitudes (red) seemed to associate with their *free feeling* (green), and the reality that *more options* (purple) for foreign

language learning were provided at the university level. Based on their thoughts towards the foreign language context at school and university, their language behaviour resulted in giving up learning English in favour of Japanese at the university level (blue). As with the students' unfavourable attitudes, their favourable attitude was also constructed by their cognitive understanding of the foreign language policy of 'choosing one from three' at university, their favourable affective feeling about current language context, which affected their conative language behaviour. However, there were differences between students' unfavourable and favourable attitudes. Investigating student participants' preferences for the current language context, the stress on their privilege within the current language context was highlighted as another essential indicator contributing to their favourable attitude.

5.2.3 Students' 'privileged' attitude of Mongolian identity at the university

Based on the student participants' responses, a comparison was drawn between Mongolian bilingual students and Han students (majority students with the first language of Chinese) in the university, and their description of differentiation in the current language context on the basis of implementation that provided more options for them; the Han students did not get the chance to choose one from three foreign languages, and continued to follow the previous language situation to learn English continually at university. These student participants seemed to stress the benefits of Mongolian identity on cognition with the *'feeling of respect'* and *'extra attention'*. As Daerhan stated,

> *I felt that our own ideas are given respect in this university foreign language policy, and this policy is provided only to the bilingual Mongolian students, not for the Han students. I got extra attention from the university. (Student Daerhan)*

Similar to Daerhan, three other student participants (Batu, Aruna, Eshun) also felt that their formulation of a goal to meet the needs of Japanese learning was affected by this attitude. Their learning goal would be filtered from the strength of this FLPLP. The

students' 'privileged attitude' was favoured by them, and thus, became a drive element of satisfaction in the language context at the university. The values of the foreign language context at the university closely associated with their identity, which made them feel the perception of the whole Mongolian community was positively different from that of others, often only becoming clear when different sets of values and the consequential attitudes were confronted. The 'privileged attitude' was derived from the students' language background and the type of university. All 353 student participants' first language is Mongolian, and they studied at a Mongolian university. Therefore, the consistent finding was that the Mongolian background and Mongolian university led to the bilingual Mongolian university students having a favourable attitude towards Japanese learning out of the broader foreign language options. In the following section, the teacher and administrator participants explained their attitude towards the current language context in which connections, constructed on the FLPLP of choosing one from three foreign languages, will be examined in more detail.

5.3 The teachers' attitude towards the language context in the university

Similar to the student participants' responses, three teacher participants also indicated a favourable attitude towards the policy of choosing one from three foreign languages at MDU. In their interviews, they explained that their attitudes towards the foreign language options were observed from 1) the students' personal interest and 2) the benefits. However, they suggested that the reason for options for foreign language learning was due to students' poor English proficiency.

5.3.1 FLPLP was good for students' intrinsic motivation

The teacher participants Wang and Zhao stated that their Mongolian students' personal interests in foreign language learning were satisfied by the current language context at MDU. As Zhao points out,

> *This free foreign language policy in our university is good for the students. If they are interested in English, they could learn it, and if they have interests in learning Japanese, they*

could choose to learn Japanese. (Teacher Zhao).

The function of more options in foreign language learning from the attitudes of teacher participants probably provided the chance for students to consider the intrinsic reason for their own language choice.

5.3.2 The reasons for Mongolian students' benefit on foreign language learning at university

Two teacher participants responded that the free choice of foreign language learning provided for the Mongolian bilingual students, reflected the fact that the Mongolian students alone could have free curriculum choice. As Wang noted,

This free policy in MDU is only for the bilingual Mongolian students; it means that only Mongolian bilingual students could choose to learn Japanese. (Teacher Wang)

The teacher participants' cognitive understanding towards the FLPLP at MDU inferred that the Mongolian identity here seemed to have a benefit in comparison with the other students in the foreign language context of MDU.

After investigating the reasons for students' choices of Japanese learning, the teacher participant Wang confirmed that the options of learning another foreign language at the university made it easier to get an undergraduate diploma for students who lacked the confidence to pass the national English exam. The exam 'pass' score may be perceived as a 'label' of students' English proficiency. As a compulsory requirement in China College English for graduation, the difficulty of passing a national English test probably made the students choose Japanese to save learning time and energy. As Wang stated,

I asked my students why they want to learn Japanese, one-third of students in my class could not pass the English exams; one-third student have interests to learn Japanese, and last one-

third students try to learn Japanese. In China, nearly all the university students have to pass the CET (College English Test) band 4 test to get their undergraduate diploma, but this requirement is too difficult for the Mongolian bilingual students. If they are learning Japanese, they only need to pass the mid-term and final-term Japanese exams. (Teacher Wang)

Another teacher participant, Sun also confirmed that learning Japanese at university provided another choice for those students with poor English proficiency. Thus, the assessment of foreign language has been redirected at MDU for the Mongolian bilingual students. Compared to English, Japanese provided an easier way to pass the postgraduate entrance exam with a foreign language course, given that the university has reduced the difficulty of the school-based test by cancelling the national foreign language test for those students who were learning Japanese. Thus, learning Japanese was the recommendation of the headmasters of different schools at the university, who had had the same language learning experience as the students. As Sun states,

The requirements for foreign language tests for the bilingual Mongolian students in our university are lower than the other students. Bilingual Mongolian students do not have to pass the CET 4, and their English proficiency is not good, so they want to learn Japanese. And the suggestions that Japanese is easy to learn and good for your postgraduate entrance exams on foreign language courses from headmaster in their schools have also affected these students' ideas because they are also Mongolian and have same language background with bilingual Mongolian students. (Teacher Sun)

From the teacher participants' favourable attitudes, on the one hand, the implementation of FLPLP in the university context made the students feel that they were at a greater advantage and allowed them to follow their language interests to choose a foreign language at university. On the other hand, the university reduced the difficulty by taking school-based Japanese assessments for the students. These two conative language behaviours towards the adjustment to the requirements of China College English were due to teachers' cognitive attitude towards students' bad English

performance at school. Further, the results of this adjustment in the university context may help the students to achieve instrumental foreign language learning motivations of the present and future. The administrative participants involved in this study also explained their attitude to the university language context.

5.4 The administrators' attitudes towards university language context

Similar to teacher participants' favorable attitudes, the administrative participants also confirmed two advantages of the FLPLP at the university for students with English proficiency, namely, that it would be much easier for them to meet the requirement of undergraduate graduation and the postgraduate entrance exam, and easier to learn given the student' language background.

5.4.1 FLPLP was good for graduation and postgraduate entrance exam

According to the implementation of Chinese national foreign language policy in the minority regions of China, the language burden for the bilingual Mongolian students, specifically, the requirement that they learn two extra languages while at the same time maintaining their first language resulted in their poor English proficiency. After communicating with the students, the course director participant realised that the content of foreign language learning was too difficult for them and little hope therefore of them easily passing the exams. Thus, the options for foreign language learning improved the graduation rate by lowering the exam requirements. As Lee said,

> *This policy is so good … the foreign language ability of current university students is too bad, especially the bilingual Mongolian students. For them, the Chinese is a foreign language. The free choice of foreign language policy … increased their graduation rate. These students felt foreign language learning was too difficult and asked to reduce the requirements of their foreign language test during the students' symposiums. (Course director Lee)*

The Chancellor participant confirmed three reasons why the students should choose to learn Japanese at the university, namely 1) the linguistic advantage of bilingual

Mongolian students in learning Japanese (more details in Chapter 7); 2) a number of students failed the national English test (CET 4), which resulted in a decline in graduation rates and 3) learning Japanese facilitated passing the postgraduate exam by lowering the difficulty requirements for foreign language subjects. As Tuya said,

> *…similarity between Mongolian and Japanese makes them learn Japanese much more easily than English. … Most bilingual Mongolian students who were choosing English as their foreign language could not pass the CET band 4; it eventually leads the graduate rate to fall significantly. Japanese …is are easier to achieve the foreign language test requirement of postgraduate entrance examination. (Chancellor Tuya)*

5.4.2 Japanese was easy to learn for bilingual Mongolian students due to linguistic similarity

The Dean participant's favourable attitude towards foreign languages options indicated that linguistic similarity between Mongolian and Japanese was another advantage for the students compared with learning English at the university. Furthermore, from the long-term implementation experience of FLPLP at MDU, the Dean participant came to understand the positive language transfer in pronunciation between Mongolian and Japanese, by belonging to the same language family (Sino-Tibetan language group) and the main reason, therefore, why bilingual Mongolian students' found that learning Japanese is much easier. Moreover, he compared learning difficulties between English and Japanese at university, surmising that learning Japanese was a good choice for the students who major in art and sport due to their poor English proficiency. As Ba explains,

> *This policy was implemented at MDU beginning in the 1950s. The linguistic similarity makes more bilingual Mongolian students prefer to learn Japanese in our university. The resemblance of vowels makes for similar pronunciation between Mongolian and Japanese. Compared with English, Japanese is much easier for the bilingual Mongolian students to learn, especially for the art students and athletes, because those students have lower English proficiency. (Dean*

Ba).

The conative language behaviour of administrators concerned about adjusting the China College English requirements, principally affecting students' language choice. The content of administrators' attitude toward FLPLP enactment at university context was formed by their cognitive understanding of the students' instrumental learning motivations of foreign language learning, students' previous English performance at school and students' language background.

5.5 The attitudes comparison among the students, teachers, and administrators

In the above reflection on the FLPLP at the university level, each participant explained their attitudes from their different cognitive understanding of the language context, language background, type of university, and intrinsic and instrumental learning motivation. *Table 5.1* below shows the contrast and interrelation of their views.

Table 5.1 Summary of participants' thoughts on the policy of choosing one from three foreign languages in MDU

Attitudes / Participants	Unfavourable attitude towards foreign language learning context at school	Favourable attitude towards foreign language learning context at university	Favourable attitude towards language background /type of university towards Japanese learning	Favourable attitude towards intrinsic motivation	Favourable attitude towards linguistic similarity	Favourable attitude towards instrumental motivation in graduation easily	Favourable attitude towards instrumental motivation in passing the postgraduate entrance exam easily
Students	√	√	√	—	—	—	—
Teachers	—	√	√	√	—	√	√
administrators	—	√	—	—	√	√	√

Notes: "√" means the judgment was mentioned by the participants

"–" means the judgment was not mentioned by the participants

A close review of the attitudes outlined in the summary *table 5.2* distilled from 16 participants in this case study, seven attitudes were mentioned in their interview answers. The student participants' favourable attitudes towards the foreign language context at university, which came from their unfavourable cognition towards the previous foreign language learning context at school and poor English proficiency. Both student and teacher participants stressed a favourable attitude with their explanation about a '*free feeling*' based on the benefits of Mongolian students' language background/type of university, originating from the greater choices of foreign language learning at MDU.

The teacher participants expressed a similar favourable attitude that related to students' instrumental motivation for graduating and passing the postgraduate entrance exam easily, as voiced by the administrative staff participants. Both believed that these instrumental factors were the primary function of three foreign language options, which satisfied the students' instrumental foreign language needs at the university by reducing the difficulty and over-frequency of assessment. In this way, instrumental learning needs could be a strong indicator to engage with the attitude towards FLPLP implementation between the teachers and administrators. Using the instrumental motivation of foreign language learning was a key feature to investigate the reasons for the favourable attitudes. The favourable attitudes from teacher and administrator participants did more to consider the learning advantages from the student perspective. Both of them responded to the benefits of Japanese learning at the university based on students' previous poor English proficiency at school and language similarity between Mongolian and Japanese.

A popular FLPLP which agreed, according to all participants, with their favourable attitudes not only provided broader curriculum or curriculum choice as regards the foreign language but further considered the students' learning advantages in linguistic similarity and learning motivation in intrinsic and instrumental aspects. The context of language learning has a direct effect on learners' expectations and attitudes, and

consequently on their language behaviour. The findings of language attitude towards FLPLP at university level from students, teachers and administrators which described the contents of favourable and unfavourable cognitions, which were affected by the language context, language proficiency, background, type of university and learning motivation, had largely effected students' conative language decisions. In the following sub-section, the student participants' explain the motivation for their language behaviour in choosing to learn Japanese at the university.

5.6 Students' motivation in learning Japanese at university

In this section, the existing motivations of students who chose Japanese as a foreign language to study at the university were discussed by analysing the student questionnaire and interview data, and further to what extent these strongly expressed the dependence of their Japanese learning experience on factors of social culture and learning advantages.

5.6.1 Questionnaire data: Students' motivation for learning Japanese

In the questionnaire for the full-time Year 1 and Year 2 Mongolian bilingual university students, the question 'why did you choose learning Japanese as your foreign language in higher education?' was asked and respondents were asked to choose from a list of reasons (14 items from the second language acquisition questionnaire design model by Mackey and Gass, 2012, and two more items from the interview pilot for this study) with marks for their importance.

Table 5.2: Mean scores and the nearest scale for reasons for choosing Japanese as a foreign language to learn

No.	Japanese learning reasons	N	Mean
Interest factors			
1	A good thing to speak Japanese	34	4.05
4	Really enjoy learning Japanese	34	3.85
7	Make Japanese friends	34	3.44
15	Like watching Japanese TV or movies without Chinese subtitles	34	3.44

14	Like Japanese culture	34	3.12
16	Like Japanese music	34	2.62
Instrumental factors			
12	Pass the foreign language entrance exams for postgraduate schools	34	3.94
11	Get degree	34	3.79
5	Take a trip to Japan without an interpreter	34	3.53
13	Job requirement	34	3.06
6	Pursue further study in Japan	34	3.00
Language factors			
8	Similar to Mongolian	34	3.76
10	Easier than English	34	3.65
9	Similar to Chinese	34	2.53
Other people's opinions factors			
2	Parents' will	34	3.74
3	Most classmates' choice	34	3.62

This table showed the mean scores of all respondents from all Mongolian bilingual students' Japanese classes in the Eastern Mongolian University of Inner Mongolia during 2014/15 academic year, along with the nearest point on the 5-point self-assessment scale. Here, the Japanese learning motivations were displayed in four factors from interest, instrumental, language and other people opinions in descending order of mean. In reverse order, this can reflect the priority of Japanese learning motivations from the students.

There were seven items related to students' interest factors for choosing Japanese as their foreign language to learn in higher education; students reported finding speaking Japanese as a good thing (item 1) and that they enjoyed learning it (item 4), although the respondents also liked to make Japanese friends, enjoy Japanese TV and music, and experience Japanese-enriched culture. However, the mean of these interest factors reflected that there were other less important motivations for the students' foreign language choice than the previous two motivations.

Of the instrumental factors, students were more likely to choose Japanese in order to

pass the foreign language entrance exams for postgraduate schools (item 12); get a bachelor degree (item 11), travel to Japan (item 5), as a job requirement and/or study abroad, which likely affected bilingual respondents' foreign language choice.

Students gave a positive response to item 8 (Similar to Mongolian), this was a key motivation for them to learn Japanese, and some respondents' foreign language choice was affected by the people around them (parents and classmates).

5.6.2 Interview data: Students' motivation for learning Japanese

Similar to the questionnaire data, student participants explained further how interest, instrumental motivation, language and other people's suggested dimensions affected their foreign language choice in the university foreign language context.

(1) Socio-cultural motivation in relation to learning Japanese

In the interview data, the students' motivations toward social culture appeared to be constructed around notions of history, culture, and enjoyment. Almost all participants talked about their enjoyment of learning Japanese, in which their learning attention and personal interest were attracted to watching Japanese entertainment and culture forms after class, despite the war history between China and Japan, a finding which suggested that history was not necessarily associated with students' Japanese learning.

Based on the findings, the history textbook of the high school was the original resource for the student participants from which they gathered details of historical relations between China and Japan. The historical conflict between China and Japan which may have been believed as a factor which would have impacted negatively on student participants' attitude and behaviour towards Japanese learning, however, it did not affect their choice of Japanese learning. As Chagan suggests in the interview,

> *The historical war between China and Japan is in the past, and we have learned this information from the history books in high school. But it has nothing to do with my Japanese*

study. I am just learning a language. It is not a big deal. (Student Chagan)

According to the student participants' responses, English was an obligatory foreign language subject for them in secondary school, as a requirement of the national language policy. Their English learning was not affected by the social issues between China and English-speaking countries. The student participants stated that the implementation of the foreign language policy was not affected by any conflicts between the nations in the past and nor present. As Daerhan confirms,

… we have been required to learn English since secondary school, but the English-learning policy issued by the state is hardly affected by various historical and current issues between China and USA as well as the UK, right? (Student Daerhan)

In addition, nearly all student participants felt that the historical factor would not bring any negative influence on the students' Japanese learning. As Fuyire stated,

Historical issues … have no negative effect on my Japanese learning …. (Student Fuyire)

Based on the teacher participants' personal experience of the history issue, they confirmed that the historical factor would not affect the students' choice of Japanese. However, students' intrinsic interests in Japanese entertainment activities seemed one of the reasons for them to learn Japanese. As Zhao points out,

....the city of Tongliao was in Japanese possession a long time ago. My grandfather who was forced into labor for Japanese colonists, he has never been to school, but he could speak Japanese… I feel that the history would not affect the students' Japanese learning. Some of them are interested in Japanese cartoon and games … (Teacher Zhao).

(2) The motivation of intrinsic interest in relation to learning Japanese

According to the student participants' responses on the motivations of Japanese

learning, their learning interest was engaged and enhanced by listening to Japanese entertainment programmes. As Ba and Eshun confirm,

> *I like watching Japanese TV programs … so I want to learn Japanese. (Student Batu)*

> *I like Japanese anime, like <ONE PIECE> and < Hokage Ninjia >. (Student Eshun)*

Based on the findings, the advantage of watching Japanese programmes seemed to improve the student participants' Japanese pronunciation and speaking. As Chagan and Daerhan note,

> *… Japanese sounds great, and I am interested in Japanese pronunciation. (Student Chagan)*

> *I feel it cool to speak Japanese, so I really want to learn it. (Student Daerhan)*

Japanese resources from outside class seemed to increase the student participants' learning interests and improve their Japanese abilities; the influence of such portrayals on students' favourable attitude towards learning Japanese inevitably increased.

(3) The motivation of cultural enjoyment in relation to learning Japanese

According to two student participants' interview responses, knowledge of Japanese culture developed through their understanding of etiquette, cuisine, and tea, which stimulated their Japanese learning interest. Further, they confirmed that receiving this Japanese cultural knowledge and information by watching Japanese TV programmes. The content of 'application text' in the textbooks was also a key source of cultural information as aforementioned. Japanese cultural knowledge seemed to inspire their Japanese learning. As Batu explains,

> *The Japanese people pay great respect to others, and they are very polite, at least they show good manners in the TV shows, I want to learn their culture by learning their language.*

(Student Batu)

Similarly, Gegen also noted that her favourable attitude towards the communication manner of Japanese people on social media became one of the reasons for her to learning Japanese,

> *I am really interested in the Japanese cooking culture, and I am a big fan of Japanese instant noodles and sashimi. I know the Japanese people really follow the rules, especially traffic rules, by watching Japanese movies online. (Student Gegen)*

These motivations for Japanese learning were associated with a sense of enjoyment towards social culture, which seemed to be allied to their belief that Japanese was both interesting and useful. As also noted during the interviews, more student participants suggested Japanese was easy for them, often because of its simplified assessment at university and linguistic similarity to Mongolian.

(4) Students' Japanese learning motivation was arising from its lower assessment and learner difficulty

Student participants were aware of the advantages of learning Japanese at university in relation to motivation from instrumental and linguistic similarity factors, and perceived the influence of such external incentives.

a) Students' motivation of instrumental factor in learning Japanese

As a result of instrumental motivation, student participants chose Japanese as a foreign language to learn at the university, a decision which was often linked to their view of the comparative learning difficulty of English and Japanese. The challenge in learning Japanese was reduced by its more simplified examination process, which seemed to increase the opportunity to enter the next learning level in postgraduate education. As Batu states,

The first learning reason that pops into my mind is that Japanese would be much easier than English if I want to pass the postgraduate entrance exams …. (Student Batu)

The difficulty of the content and frequency of English exams made Aruna, Batu, and Eshun believe that learning Japanese might increase their chances of graduating given its reduced exam requirements. Further, the content of Japanese exams was limited in scope in that they only tested the taught content. The four middle and final term exams were sufficient for students to gain the qualification needed for graduation. As Aruna explains,

… Most Japanese examination contents are mentioned in class and assigned by our teachers unlike the model of the English examination. Our examination hours are less than those of English. We only take two exams in the first year and two exams in the second year. If we pass these four exams, we are able to get our graduation certificate and diploma. (Student Aruna)

Besides, Japanese learning not only satisfied the students' learning needs in terms of passing the examination but also served their desire to visit and study in Japan. As Hasen and Gegen state,

I really like Japanese culture and views; I hope to travel to Japan. Speaking a little Japanese would be more convenient for me during that time. (Student Hasen)

The most important learning reason for me is to study in Japan. I want to learn the knowledge related to my major through Japanese. (Student Gegen)

The student participants' instrumental Japanese learning motivations reflected their learning goals of passing exams, getting a degree and learning abroad. The students' favourable attitude to the implementation of FLPLP in the university with a free choice also contributed to their decision to learn Japanese and appeared to be constructed around notions of instrumental factors.

b) Students' motivation of linguistic similarity in relation to learning Japanese

Based on the findings, the student participants made a comparison among the languages that they had already acquired. Their unfavourable attitude towards a previous English learning experience seemed to make the students lose interest and want to learn a new foreign language. In the student participants' opinions, Japanese grammar would be easier than English for them, which prompted them to choose Japanese. However, their attitude in relation to the language distance and similarity between Chinese, Mongolian and Japanese in their grammar further informed the choice of Japanese at the university. As Aruna commented,

> *… English grammar became more and more difficult when I learned it deeply, so I became less interested in it. But I think Japanese grammar is easier than English grammar. (Student Aruna)*

Similar to Aruna, Hasen also confirmed her unfavourable attitude towards acquiring English grammar, and motivation on the similarity of grammar between Chinese and Japanese in word order, which supported her choice in learning Japanese. As Hasen advises,

> *There is a little similarity between Chinese and Japanese, and English grammar is quite difficult for me. And there is also a lot of the same grammar between Mongolian and Japanese in word order, such as "I am eating the meal", the same word order of "I meal eating" in both Mongolian and Japanese. (Student Hasen)*

The students' different attitudes on English and Japanese grammar learning, suggest that the foreign language distance in grammatical knowledge compared with the second language, was becoming the essential language factor influencing students' choice of a foreign language.

c) Students' motivation for external incentives in relation to learning Japanese

Student participants' motivations and experience of peer group's attitudes concerning the advantages of learning Japanese at the university may exert considerable influence and support on the individual's foreign language learning orientation, attitudes, motivations, and decision. Some of them stated that they accepted the advice on choosing to learn Japanese in the university from the school counsellor and also from those senior students who have the same educational background, major, and English learning experience as them.

The senior students' suggestion was described as another foreign language choice for student participants with lower English proficiency in the university foreign language context. The comparison of learning difficulty between English and Japanese from the other students' practical learning experience in studying these two languages was the motivation for their foreign language selection at the university. As Eshun said,

> *I know a senior student in my school who has the same major as me. He said that he chose Japanese too, and he feels Japanese is easier than English. He also suggested that the Japanese would be a better choice for students who are bad at English. (Student Eshun)*

Similar to the student participants' motivation in language factor, the suggestion of the advantage of learning a less challenging foreign language from the school counsellor also contributed to the student participants' choice of learning Japanese. As Batu confirms,

> *Besides our senior students … Our school counselor told us that it would be easy for us to take part in the Japanese examination for passing the entrance exam to postgraduate school. She is a Mongolian and chose to learn Japanese at the university. (Student Batu)*

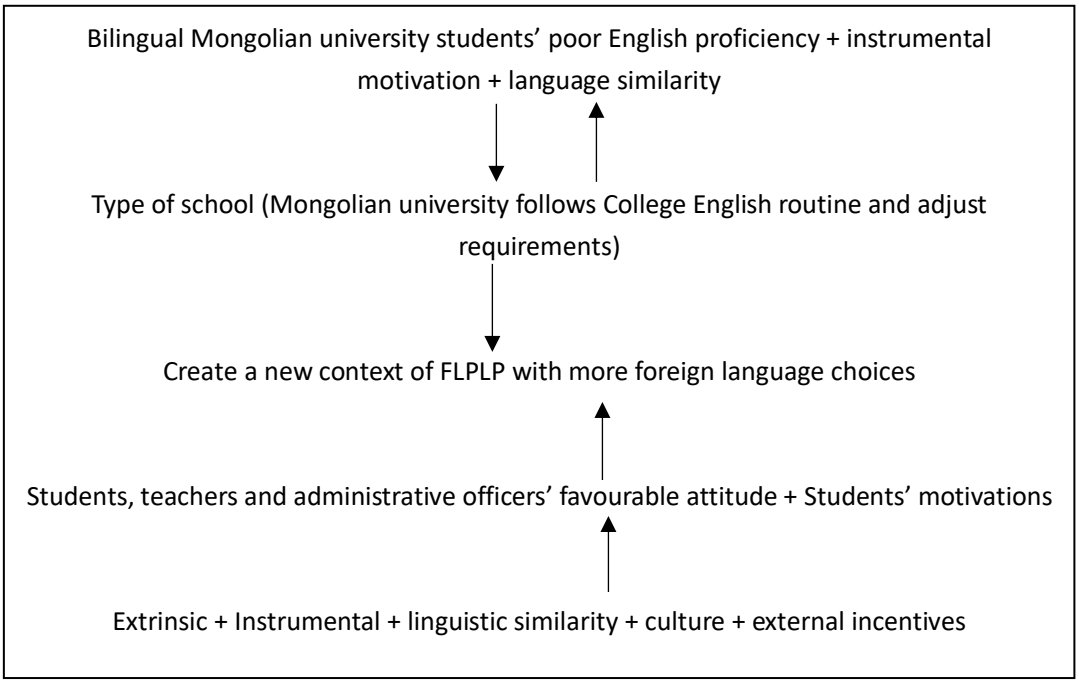
In general, the student participants did not get any specific advice from the family members, other than to follow their interest. As Jirentai stated,

I asked my family members' opinions about learning Japanese, but they told me that it depends on my own interests …. (Student Jirentai)

5.7 Summary

In this chapter, the students' responses support the existence of a developed procedure of attitudes towards FLPLP from school to university, and a changing attitude from unfavourable to favourable was found to closely relate to the foreign language context. The findings have also described the direction of causation of language attitude, language choice, and learning motivation. *Figure 5.2* shows the relationship between language context, language attitude, and motivation.

Figure. 5.2 The connection of language attitude, motivation, and context



Bilingual Mongolian university students' poor English proficiency, their instrumental motivation, language similarity and type of school formed a two-way cause-effect process. The 'new' language context with three foreign languages choice at university was achieved by adjusting the requirements of China College English, which impacted positively on the students' language attitude and simulated their motivational learning

dimensions.

The students' conative language choice was affected both by their cognitive language attitude and motivation. However, from the teacher and administrators' responses, the benefits of learning Japanese were considered the result of an adjustment of national foreign language policy at university context, which catered to students' learning advantages and motivations.

The initial model posited is shown in *Figure 5.3.* The arrows show the direction of causation of language attitude, motivation and language choice at MDU.

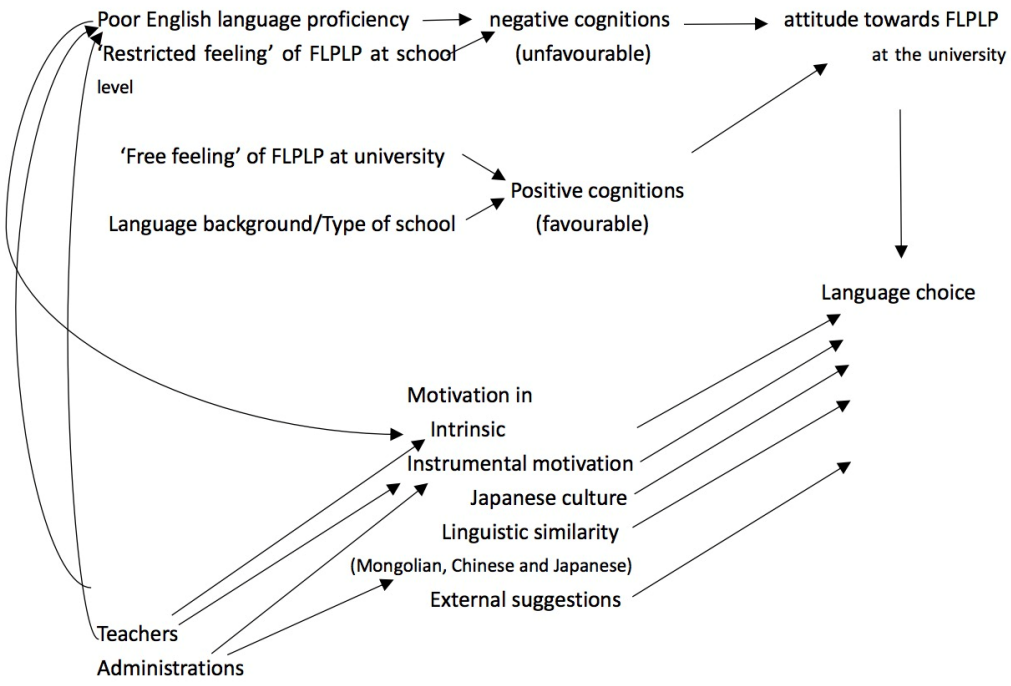


Fig.5.3 Direction of causation on language attitude, language choice, and learning motivation

The model found that:

1. Students' poor English proficiency and restricted feeling of language context at school formed students' negative cognition towards previous foreign language learning experience. Students' language background, type of school and 'free' feeling with providing more foreign language options towards the language context at university, which formed students' positive cognitions of their current foreign language learning experience. The students' attitude towards FLPLP at the university level was made up of students' positive and negative cognitions, which affected their foreign language choice, as they chose to learn Japanese, rather than continuing to learn English at university.
2. Students' intrinsic and instrumental motivation, language-related preference of Japanese culture, the language comparisons on linguistic similarity among Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese and external suggestions from senior students and teachers also affected students' language decisions and motivations for Japanese learning.
3. Students' poor English proficiency was strongly related to instrumental motivation in Japanese learning. Further, teachers and administrators' attitudes toward the reason for FLPLP adjustments were due to students' poor English proficiency and instrumental motivation.
4. Teachers and administrators' attitudes towards FLPLP implementation at the university level more likely comprised their considerations of students' motivation from instrumental and linguistic similarity perspectives.

This model tended to fully mirror the cause-effect specification and sequence between attitude towards FLPLP in the university context and language choice; between Japanese learning motivation and language choice. The model also suggested another research condition of language attitude, in that the chosen context where people's language attitudes may be tested, enacted and influenced, was also of importance. The language attitude consisted of students' favourability or/and unfavourability of previous and current language contexts. However, the teacher and administrators' language attitudes were based on their understandings of students' learning

advantages, benefits, and motivations.

The results of students Japanese learning motivations, specifically, students' attitude towards the Japanese social-cultural liking, intrinsic interests and learning difficulty were presented throughout the interviews, where proximity encouragement in choosing to learn Japanese to the students. The comparison of learning benefits and language distance among Mongolian, Japanese and English may be a critical factor in explaining the motivation for learning Japanese, which strongly influenced students' foreign language learning expectations. The development of choosing one from three foreign languages at the classroom level and students' individual level is further explored in Chapters Six and Seven.

Chapter Six Findings: What were students' perceptions, and what did participants concern the implementation of the foreign language policy and language planning in the classroom context?

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the analysis of the students' questionnaire and students', teachers' and administrators' interviews; it includes their perceptions of FLPLP implementation in the classroom context, affective reasons and action taken in their attempts to propose ideal perceptions of the classroom context. Further, the cause-effect sequence of language cognitions and behaviours claimed are as detailed in the descriptions of real classroom context of FLPLP enactment at MDU *(see Table 6.1)*. The findings in this chapter are derived from the data about participants' perceptions of teaching techniques, languages and classroom activities, which can be regarded as the implementation of foreign language policy and language planning in the classroom context. The following four sections present the major themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews in relation to the research question 2.2. what are these students' and teachers' perceptions of the teaching effects, that is, to explore positive and negative perceptions in relation to 1) appraisal of the textbook; 2) preference of teaching language usage; 3) reflections of classroom interaction and 4) suggestions for improving the Japanese course. Certain models and specific teaching techniques which are applied in the Japanese classes also provide an idea of how close relate to the studies in literature review chapter on the measurements of perception in the context of China's College English Curriculum implementation in a minority university.

The enactment of FLPLP at the classroom context were explained by participants' questionnaire and interview data with the pattern of their perception procedure and their language cognition and behaviours. The pattern of language perceptions were subsumed into five major steps, namely, participants' perception; affective reasons;

action; ideal perception and reasons for ideal perception. And the participant's language cognitions and behaviours indicated their negative perceptions toward teaching effects, and the actions and aims for changing these perceptions.

Table 6.1 The participants' concerns about FLPLP implementation in the classroom context

Pattern of percpetion procedure	Participants' language cognitions and behaviours	
Participants' perceptions	Textbook	Number Organisation Supplementary materials
	Teaching language	L1 cannot be used The usage amount of L2 > L3
	Classroom interaction	Low frequency Even no interaction
Affective reasons	Conflict with the routine of China's College English Students' lower L3 proficiency Students' lower instrumental motivations Lack of multi-media teaching resources	
Action	Students try to find ideal supplementary materials Accept current classroom context Impact on students' beliefs in self-learning context	
Ideal perceptions	Favourite part of textbooks The proper proportion of teaching language Sufficient classroom interaction More multi-media teaching resources	
Reasons for ideal perceptions	Ideal L3 skills and abilities improvement Instrumental motivations achievement L3 cultural knowledge acquisition	

The perception of FLPLP implementation at the classroom level is defined as the understandings held by students, teachers, and administrators of the educational goals and measures taken. Such as, teaching techniques, which tries to seek the influences of language behaviour change or modulate the challenges that are implemented in the classroom context.

6.2 Students and teachers' appraisal of textbooks

In the literature review section on the contents of China's College English Curriculum,

the function of the curriculum affected the compilation and selection of the textbook, and the contents and structure on the intention of the textbook were to transfer the aims and requirements of the curriculum from university context to the classroom context. The data provided the perceptions of thirteen participants (ten student and three teacher participants) of Japanese textbook usage. This seemed, at first glance, to give the relatively negative or positive perceptions and a typical association of the quality and quantity of textbook material with participants' aspiration of textbook usage and affective reasons related to the classroom context. On further reflection, the data also showed the frequency of behaviour of looking for 'ideal learning materials/supplementations' (extra Japanese self-study materials), which, in itself, provided indirect evidence on the inadequacy of textbooks and in-class teaching, given the experiences of these participants who were motivated by their negative perception to take specific language learning action individually. However, in the following process, the participants' concerns regarding the challenges of finding appropriate ideal learning materials, often made them come back to textbook usage. Finally, the participants' perception of the organisation and preferred parts of the textbook showed more specifically how learning materials were applied, as demonstrated in *Figure 6.1*.

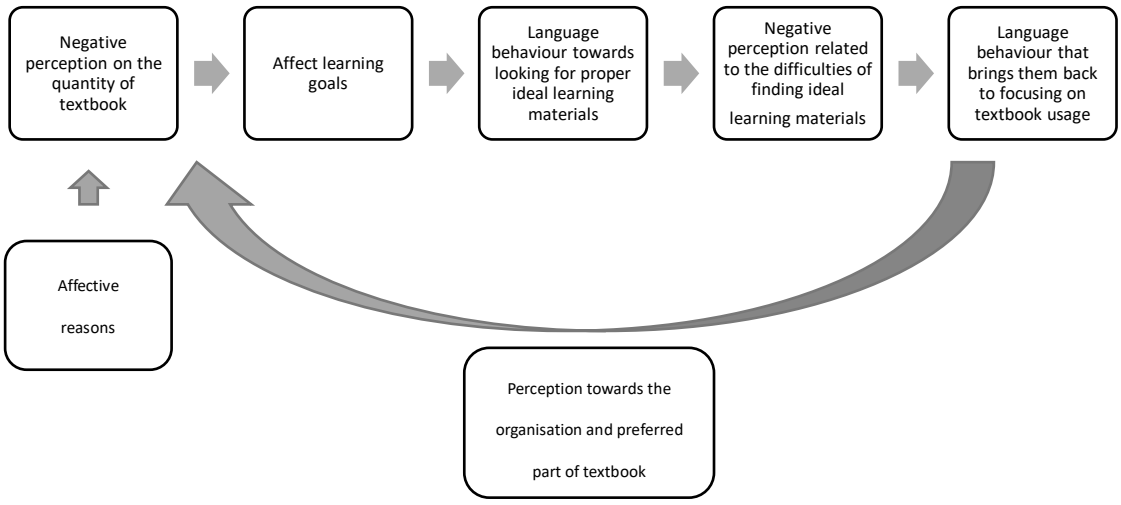


Figure 6.1: The process of perception towards appraisal of Japanese textbook (by author)

The responses of students and teachers were analysed separately, with sequential

questions about their perception of the 1) quantity of textbooks, 2) extra ideal learning material, 3) structure of the textbook, and 4) favourite section of the textbook. Their negative or positive perception towards teaching technique on appraisal of the textbook was also accompanied by the influences, reasons and challenges of expected abilities of language learning in a classroom context, as demonstrated in *Table 6.2.*

Table 6.2: Students and teachers' concerns about learning materials

Participant *Perception of the textbook*	**Students**	**Teachers**
1.The quantity of textbooks	Inadequate quantity of textbooks (negative perception)	Adequate quantity of textbooks (positive perception)
Influences on Japanese acquisition	Negative influence on language skill improvement	Positive influence on language skill improvement
Reasons for insufficient number of textbooks	1.Insufficient class time	1.Japanese teaching value
	2.Low Japanese proficiency	2.Students' low Japanese proficiency
2.The decision and action regarding 'ideal learning material' (books and internet resources)	Difficulty to find appropriate 'ideal learning materials.'	'Ideal learning materials' were rarely recommended
Negative influences on Japanese acquisition	1. Ideal language skill improvement	1. Ideal language skill improvement
	2.Instrumental expectation	2.Self-learning method achievement
	3.Self-learning method achievement	
Reasons for challenges of finding proper self-study resources	1.Inadequate quantity of academic resources	1.Insufficient class time
	2.The ambiguity of own Japanese proficiency	2.Students lacked learning initiative
3.Structure of the textbook	Almost did not affect Japanese learning directly	No effect on Japanese learning
Reasons for no influences of Japanese learning	1.Following previous foreign language habit on the textbook usage method	1.Following previous foreign language habit on the usage method of textbook
	2.Following teaching sequence of textbook usage	2.Following teaching sequence of textbook usage
4.Favourite section of the textbook	Interpreted the function of each component in the textbook	Interpreted the function of each component in the textbook
Reasons for the preferred component of textbook	1. Language skill improvement	Language skills improvement
	2.Instrumental expectation	
	3.Cultural knowledge acquisition	

Table 6.2 shows the different perceptions towards the use of teaching materials from student and teacher participants' understandings. The student participants claimed that the needs of the Japanese class could never be perfectly met by a single coursebook, even when the teacher participants believed that the coursebook had

been carefully designed to cater to the needs of learners in the foreign language context of the university. Supplementation, that is, creating the 'ideal books' for the students, stems primarily from the recognition of a deficit: it was an attempt to bridge the gap between the demands of the examination and the teachers' and students' teaching and learning motivations.

6.2.1 Students' negative perception of the quantity of textbooks

The student participants identified the function of Japanese textbooks. However, the challenge they saw in the low quantity of textbooks was the negative result of limited class time and their poor Japanese proficiency. Among these challenges, it was worth noting that the student participants' perception of policy implementation in the classroom context tended towards negative cognitions, in contrast with their positive attitude towards the university context.

(1) The impression of Japanese textbooks

Analysis of the responses of the ten student participants in this study showed recurring objections to the low quantity of textbooks (red) and lack of ideal supplementary materials recommended by teachers (blue), which contributed to a negative perception (yellow), given their relative expectations of Japanese learning and the typical associations of their learning motivations (green). As Iyan, Daerhan and Fuyire stated in the interview,



From the data in the student questionnaire *(see Table 6.3)* as seen in the responses of the whole student sample, as regards the materials recommended by teachers for Japanese learning, over two-thirds of Year 1 and Year 2 students did not think highly of the supplementary material.

Table 6.3 Students' views on supplementation

1: Materials recommended by lecturer were useful for Japanese learning		
Percentage / Opinions	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Strongly agree	0.7	1.6
Agree	19.7	15.7
Uncertain	8.2	11.0
Disagree	68.0	70.7
Strongly disagree	3.4	1.0
2: Materials recommended by lecturer were appropriate for Japanese learning		
Percentage / Opinions	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Strongly agree	0	2.6
Agree	17.0	13.6

Uncertain	8.2	14.1
Disagree	71.4	69.1
Strongly disagree	3.4	0.6

In the student interview, they responded to this negative perception explaining that they did not receive any help from the teachers' recommendation on supplementations' choice and usage.

To ensure the learning motivations for improving or acquiring students' ideal language skills and abilities, such as self-correction of mistakes and knowledge extension, so their first negative perception of the Japanese textbook involved its limited quantity. Actually, in their interviews, all ten student participants referred back to their experience of textbook usage. It might therefore be posited that the number of textbooks played a direct role in supporting students' Japanese learning. Eshun stated that the number of textbooks was insufficient to cover her two years of Japanese education at the university. Further, two textbooks became the only input source of Japanese knowledge for another student, "I got nothing … except for two textbooks in Japanese class time" (Student Batu).

(2) Affective reasons for the provision of inadequate numbers of Japanese textbooks

Why do student participants appear to have such a similarly pervasive negative perception of the insufficient textbooks towards Japanese learning? One possible reason was expressed by Iyan's concern regarding class time, as he stated,

> *Even if there are extra textbooks … I don't think we've got enough time to cover them in class*. (Student Iyan).

Insufficient class time probably impeded the introduction of more Japanese learning materials into the class. However, Jirentai asserted another two reasons from the teachers' perspective to explain the limited number of textbooks. Firstly, "*… maybe the teacher believes that the content of the textbooks is enough for us to acquire Japanese*

knowledge"; secondly, "*… the teacher probably evaluates that our Japanese proficiency would not be good enough to accept the extension of the extra Japanese knowledge from extra learning materials in the class"*. Finally, she also responded by saying that the class time was a pressure which prevented the provision of extra Japanese teaching, assuming that *"… the current arrangement of class time is just enough to finish teaching missions*" (Student Jirentai).

Another participant, also acknowledged the issue of insufficient class time in his speculation on the reason for the limited quantity of textbooks. He affirmed that in the adjustment of textbook usage, even if *"… the teacher deletes listening practice; the current class time is still not enough to complete the teaching of the textbook"* (Student Daerhan).

The above series of pictures painted by the students of their macro experiences of Japanese textbook usage suggested that their desire for Japanese skills competence was not being met by the insufficient quantity of textbook. They tended to attribute the reasons for this problem to the limited class time and their limited Japanese proficiency. The current allocation of class time seemed to provide pressure for the teacher to accomplish the pedagogical mission using the textbook with no use of ideal supplementary material. The students' elementary Japanese proficiency tended to be regarded as another reason for not providing additional Japanese instruction in the class. These student participants speculated on possible reasons from the teacher's perspective, but what about their own personal hypothesis or behaviour to resolve this issue in and after class?

6.2.2 Students' negative perceptions toward looking for ideal learning materials

Students might seek to supplement a coursebook in one of two ways: 1) by utilising items from another published source which is recommended by the teacher or institution, or 2) by selecting learning material themselves, which may include the use of visual or textual items (McGrath, 2002). As a behavioural consequence of negative

perceptions of the number of Japanese textbooks in the class, as aforementioned, five students, Aruna, Batu, Fuyire, Gegen, and Hasen decided to search for the 'ideal Japanese learning materials' by themselves after class. The following examples will illustrate the students' initiative in the face of this challenge of looking for the proper ideal supplementations by location and content.

(1) Challenges of looking for extra learning materials in the bookstore

Four student participants went to the bookstore to find more appropriate extra Japanese learning material. As Aruna remarked in the interview,

> *I wanted to buy one more Japanese learning material on grammatical knowledge … I went to a bookstore… But I did not find it; I only found a booklet … with the simple travelling Japanese conversations … it is not useful. (Student Aruna)*

The ideal solution that appeared was to find a Japanese grammar book as an 'ideal learning material'. However, the reference book for travelling was the only Japanese book that Aruna could find in the bookstore.

Another student, Fuyire also expressed the same concern about choosing a suitable Japanese book.

> *I did not find suitable Japanese learning materials for grammar learning in the bookstore; there is only a Japanese tour brochure … good use for the people who are going to visit Japan for the first time, not for us. (Student Fuyire)*

The shortage of academic Japanese learning materials in the bookstore was the challenge for Aruna and Fuyire in locating extra self-study materials. The learning motivation for 'ideal learning material' usage seemed to indicate their aspiration towards the improvement of understanding of Japanese grammar.

However, for Batu, the instrumental motivation of 'ideal learning material' usage was helping him to prepare for the national Japanese exam. Further, he stressed that the importance of this exam was a requirement for graduation and progression into postgraduate study.

> *I have found some materials which assist me in taking the national Japanese examination. It is not suitable for me right now and too expensive … however, the price of CET-4 exam papers is much more reasonable, and I also could download it for free. The national Japanese examination is the CJT-4; it is one of the necessary graduation requirements for the bilingual postgraduate Mongolian students who are learning Japanese during graduate school. (Student Batu)*

For Batu, a Year 2 student, the purpose of the achievement towards an instrumentally motivated passing of the Japanese examination stimulated him to look for 'ideal learning materials' However, his comparison between English and Japanese national exams' extra learning materials suggested that those for English were more available at an acceptable price and with easier access than the Japanese ones.

Like Batu, Chagan, a Year 1 student also found that 'ideal learning material' was needed to meet her instrumental motivation in learning Japanese. However, she highlighted the challenge of finding practice assessment materials that related to her current Japanese proficiency. As mentioned in the interview,

> *I found some Japanese learning materials like a past exam paper. It is used for preparing the postgraduate entrance examination. However, I am a Year 1 student; these materials are too difficult for me to do. (Student Chagan)*

With regard to the behavioural responses to the negative perception towards the quantity of Japanese textbooks, Aruna, Batu, Chagan and Fuyire stated their negative perception of the experience of looking for ideal supplementations in the bookstore. The challenge was affected by their current Japanese proficiency, the lack of academic

resources, and the high price and lack of access to the ideal Japanese learning materials.

(2) Challenges of looking for extra learning materials in the university library

In the university library, Hasen also did not find suitable materials for individual Japanese self-study,

> *I found several Japanese learning materials in the university library actually … But I do not know which one is better for me to improve my Japanese ability, and which one is suitable for my current Japanese proficiency. I am a new beginner … I have no idea about choosing learning materials. So I can only focus on the textbook which is used in the class. (Student Hasen)*

Due to the unclear understanding of the function and difficulty of Japanese learning materials in the university library, and the ambiguity of his own Japanese proficiency, Hasan struggled to find appropriate 'ideal learning materials'. These challenges together led Hasen to become frustrated and give up his search for 'ideal learning materials', focusing solely on the assigned textbook.

In this study, students' perception towards 'ideal supplementary materials' acted not only as a motivating learning factor to be considered in material usage for 'ideal language skills' improvement but also for identifying learners' instrumental motivations about the target language learning. From subsequent responses to the challenge of finding appropriate ideal supplementation individually in the bookstore and library, it seemed that the shortage of academic Japanese resources and Japanese proficiency at beginner level were the reasons for the failure to satisfy their learning motivations. The negative perception of the challenge of finding ideal material also affected the students' desired outcome of ideal learning material usage for reasons of linguistics and instrumentality. However, some of these barriers to engaging with extra learning materials from students' experience would be overcome using internet techniques.

(3) Advantages and challenges of looking for extra learning materials through the Internet

Faced with the failure to find ideal learning materials, the textbook was still the students' main technique for learning Japanese. However, unlike the five student participants discussed above, Eshun and Chagan did not just focus on physical sites for looking for 'ideal materials', they turned to the internet to locate extra materials after class.

> *… an app … free and easy … improve my Japanese … pronunciation ... I will get the correct pronunciation … the teacher has no time to correct the wrong Japanese pronunciation one by one … I have made a little progress in pronunciation, and I can basically understand the meaning of Japanese sentences from the teacher in the class. (Student Eshun)*

The positive perception of using the internet method might suggest two findings. Firstly, it was accompanied by a description of an unmet learning motivation for Japanese phonology correction; secondly, the improvement of Japanese phonology helped Eshun to understand semantically what the teacher had explained in the class. However, the negative perception of the big class size and limited class time led the student to believe that seeking the teacher's help to meet desired linguistic learning motivation was impractical.

Similarly, Chagan also tried to look for the extra learning material through the internet. However, her answer seemed to reflect the negative perception of this action.

> *… App … about Japanese learning strategies … and … information for studying abroad … it has a few interpretations of Japanese grammar, and most explanation words are Chinese … only a few Japanese words. (Student Chagan)*

Chagan's learning motivation involved a search for extra ideal materials on Japanese

vocabulary and grammar with Chinese explanation. In contrast, the practical content she found was about learning methods and the overseas study situation in Japan, presented in Chinese, which was not what she sought, and she felt her search for extra learning materials was unsuccessful.

The appeal of using 'ideal internet materials' was identified in relation to students' instrumental learning motivations. Comparing the offline method with the internet one when looking for 'ideal Japanese learning materials' individually, the internet method might seem to resolve the problem of high price and difficulty of access to the materials in relation to the bookstore and library.

The students' negative perceptions of the quantity of textbooks used in the class stimulated the pursuit of 'ideal learning materials' after class. However, the students' negative perceptions from an evaluation of classroom context (class time, class size, proper learning materials) and their own Japanese proficiency, seemed to reflect negative awareness of looking for 'ideal books' from offline or internet sources due self-perceived deficits in motivational features in desired levels of Japanese competence (grammar, phonology, vocabulary) and instrumentality (passing national Japanese exam). The search for all types of ideal supplementations were driven by students' cognitively motivated domains of their Japanese learning experience, whereby limited their affectively motivated action towards ideal Japanese proficiency improvement. Students could not find available (location) and appropriate (suitable for their current Japanese proficiency) source material by themselves. The textbook, therefore, finally became the only available Japanese learning material for most students. Students' perceptions were thus viewed not simply as the content and cause of their Japanese learning experience but as an ongoing process of how their language cognitions towards the interpretations of language context in relevant Japanese learning motivations, and how such cognitions then affect their language actions.

The students were able to surmise the reasons for the insufficient learning materials

from the teachers' perspectives, but the actual teachers' perception of the number and use of learning materials will be explored in next section.

6.2.3 Teachers' perception on the quantity of textbooks and challenges of ideal materials

The inclusion of two Japanese textbooks which covered the two years' Japanese teaching at the MDU was confirmed by all three teacher participants and a course director participant. Unlike the student participants' negative perception towards the number of textbooks, all teacher participants thought that the content of the two textbooks sufficiently covered their students' Japanese learning requirements. As Sun stated,

> *We only take Standard Japanese (a & b) as our textbooks, there is no problem for the students to achieve basic communication after learning them … [they teach] some basic sentence patterns and they are very useful applications. (Teacher Sun)*

From the teachers' point of view, the main function of the two textbooks was to help students to sufficiently acquire a basic communication ability in Japanese through knowledge of basic sentence structure. Most likely as a result, the teachers did not provide extra learning materials in or after class.

The reason given by one teacher participant as to why he would not be able to provide extra ideal learning materials was insufficient class time. As mentioned in the interview,

> *We do not have other learning materials because we do not have enough class time. (Teacher Sun)*

In contrast with the explanation of limited class time from Sun, Zhao and Wang still provided extra resources and methods of Japanese learning for their students. Zhao mentioned that a few examples of Japanese grammar usage with low frequency were the man instance of extra knowledge she provided in the class. As Zhao said,

… no … extra learning materials, sometimes, I would make some examples for the students of how the Japanese grammar works, but not much. (Teacher Zhao)

Unlike Zhao, Wang preferred to recommend extra 'ideal learning materials' from the internet.

I … provide some websites of extra online materials … at their current Japanese ability. It helps them to correct their pronunciation and practice listening. However,… they do not have a learning initiative, they just want to pass the exams, and then get the diploma. (Teacher Wang)

The function of the internet 'ideal extra learning resourses' provided by this teacher was mainly Japanese pronunciation correction and individual listening practice after class. The selection of recommended material was ideal for the students' current Japanese proficiency at a beginner level. However, the lack of Japanese learning initiative led to the students' failure to accept and follow the teacher's suggestions of internet materials usage.

The conflict between teachers' and students' perceptions towards the textbooks demonstrated the vicious circularity and dynamic interrelationships involved, as shown in *table 6.3.* The quantity of textbook was frequently mentioned in relation to the functions of the textbook and students' Japanese instrumental learning motivations. The teachers developed positive perceptions and clarified their decision to focus on only two Japanese textbooks, as sufficient to satisfy the requirement of students' language learning at a beginner level. However, the students expressed a negative perception and believed the two textbooks did not meet their learning motivations of language ability improvement and instrumental learning expectation. As a result, they decided to look for ideal supplementary material independently. Both teachers and students affirmed the positive function of extra learning materials, but their language actions were negatively affected for different reasons. In the teachers'

view, class time pressure and students' learning initiative adversely affected their action to apply the supplementation. In the students' view, the shortage of available and appropriate supplementary materials was their main issue.

The number of textbooks and the content of ideal learning materials in this study seemed like an entry point to understanding the content and process of students' and teachers' perception towards FLPLP implementation in the classroom context. After reviewing the use of ideal learning materials, both teachers and students felt that the textbook was the primary teaching and learning tool in the class. A new circle of the evaluation was created by their expressions of perception towards textbook usage. Influences beyond the textbook seemed to be valued by the teachers and students, and the importance of the textbook, such as the structure and components will be explored in the next section.

6.2.4 Students' neutral perception towards Japanese textbook structure

As a behavioural result of negative perceptions of supplementary 'ideal learning materials', the student participants returned to discussing the usage of textbooks. The textbooks structure began with a 'basic text' section, followed by 'grammar explanation', 'application text', 'word list' and 'exercise'. One of the common sets of perceptions which seemed to relate to Japanese textbook structure was based on students' previous experience of English textbook usage in secondary school. As Aruna, Batu and Iyan stated,

> *The content structure of the Japanese textbook is the same as my English textbook in middle school and high school. I don't think it has any impact on my Japanese learning … we use the textbook according to the sequence of teaching given by the teacher. (Student Aruna)*

> *I think the structure of the Japanese textbook does not affect my Japanese learning; it is the same with English one in high school, the teaching sequence is much more important. (Student Batu)*

No matter what kind of changes happen to the compilation of the textbook, we have to follow the teaching sequence anyway, it is the same as the order of our English textbooks. (Student Iyan)

All ten student participants explained the two reasons why the structure of the textbooks did not affect their Japanese learning. Firstly, they were used to the order of Japanese textbooks, which was very similar to the English textbooks in secondary school. Secondly, following the teaching sequence in class was much more valuable influence on their learning process than the sequence in the textbooks. The only objection to the textbook structure related to the position of the 'word list'. As Iyan and Fuyire stated,

… When I encounter any new words in the text, the first thing I will do is to refer to the words and expressions at the end of the book. (Student Iyan)

I think that it would be better if the 'word list' were arranged at the beginning part … when I meet a word I do not know in the text, I just need have a quick look at the 'word list', instead of turning page after page to look up the meaning and pronunciation of them … saves time … and … convenient … . (Student Fuyire)

The disadvantage of the 'word list' position outlined above revealed a problem of semantic and lexical understating of Japanese words in the main text. However, the advantage of the current position of the 'word list' would serve the same function as another part of the Japanese textbook. As Eshun stated,

… It will make it more convenient for me to do the exercises in the textbook. Because if I do not understand the new words in the exercises, I just need to have a quick look at the 'word list' alongside the exercise part. (Student Eshun)

Thus, the position of the 'word list' was more convenient for checking the semantic meaning of new words which appeared in the exercise section of the textbooks.

Moreover, the understanding of the function of the word list was further talked about in relation to the other component of the Japanese textbook. In general, the experience of using each section, beginning with the 'basic text', and then the 'grammar explanation' seemed to help the student participants to understand the main grammatical knowledge of each lesson. Then, the 'application text' applied grammatical knowledge in a real Japanese context. Finally, the 'exercise' delivered allowed for the grammatical knowledge to be applied by the student. The sequence and function of each section of the Japanese textbooks were presented by Fuyire, which helped to explain her usage sequence when using the textbook after class and her use of a favourite section of the textbook later,

> *The first part is 'basic text' … get an understanding of the basic knowledge of each lesson. Then … grammar explanations … grasp and understand the key points of grammar better. Later … try to use that knowledge in realistic dialogue situations in the segment of 'application text'. Moreover … strengthen my ability to apply grammar by exercising. (Student Fuyire)*

The students had neutral perceptions of Japanese textbook structure which did not influence learning as they preferred to follow the teaching sequence of textbook use from the class and have transferred skills from their previous foreign language experience in textbook application.

6.2.5 The teachers' neutral perception towards the Japanese textbook structure

As with the students, the teacher participants also believed that the structure of the textbook would not affect the students' Japanese learning. The awareness of the sequence of textbook usage followed, the teaching sequence, and the students' language learning habits emerged from their foreign language teaching experience. As Zhao said in the interviews,

> *I think all the teachers would teach new words firstly. It is a kind of learning habit from the students (Teacher Zhao).*

The acceptance of this teaching sequence of textbooks, different to the structure of the textbooks, suggested that the structure of the textbook did not affect students' Japanese learning. As Sun stated,

> *The order of textbook does not matter for students' Japanese learning; they just follow the teachers' teaching sequence. (Teacher Sun)*

From the teacher participants' perspectives, reciting new words from the 'word list' section looks like the only learning strategy which required the students to use the textbooks proactively. They also recognised the advantage of the role of the 'basic text', which seemed to help the students to remember the new words and grammatical knowledge at the same time. As Wang suggests,

> *I found that the students only used the 'word list' for reciting new words. I have suggested remembering the words by reading the 'basic text', which helped them to review the grammatical knowledge and remember the words at the same time. (Teacher Wang)*

The teachers' assumptions about the students' individual learning sequence when using the textbook after class seemed to derive from their broader perceptions of the students' learning habits. The teachers referred to their teaching experience and learning suggestions about textbook usage and the function of the textbook's content. The student participants were asked to describe their favourite component of the textbook to illustrate their individual learning needs and how these contributed to their Japanese learning.

6.2.6 Students' positive perception towards their favourite part of the textbook

Student participants were aware of using Japanese textbooks and readily identified the changes in their Japanese skills through this experience. In the student

questionnaire data *(see Table 6.4)*, four questions were asked in this part to assess students' opinions on the Japanese textbooks (Standard Japanese 1 & 2).

Table 6.4: Usage of textbooks

1: Textbooks were relevant for Japanese learning		
Percentage / Opinions	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Strongly agree	12.9	13.6
Agree	38.8	40.3
Uncertain	27.2	23.5
Disagree	16.3	14.7
Strongly disagree	4.8	7.9
2: Textbooks were useful for Japanese learning		
Percentage / Opinions	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Strongly agree	25.2	24.6
Agree	66.0	61.3
Uncertain	6.1	10.5
Disagree	0.7	1.5
Strongly disagree	2.0	2.1
3: Language skills were improved by Textbooks		
Percentage / Language skill	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Listening	4.8	3.1
Speaking	17.7	12.6
Reading	63.9	56.0
Writing	7.5	15.2
Translation	6.1	13.1
4: Language skills were not improved by Textbooks		
Percentage / Language skill	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Listening	46.9	52.9
Speaking	17.7	11.5
Reading	7.5	6.8
Writing	14.3	10.5
Translation	13.6	18.3

As is seen in *Table 6.4* from the students' responses on the textbooks for Japanese

learning within the whole sample, over two-thirds of Year 1 and Year 2 students were more likely to use their textbooks.

Almost 60 percent of students claimed that the Japanese textbooks helped them to improve their Japanese reading skills, but over half of the students showed a negative perception of their Japanese listening skill in that it had not been improved by the textbooks. This result may provide a basic picture of students' perceptions of the organisation and use of learning materials.

Another perception of Japanese textbook usage which emerged from students' interviews was that four sections (basic text, exercise, grammar explanation and application text) were most liked because these sections most helped them to overcome challenges to their instrumental learning motivations in language skills achievement.

(1) Positive perception towards the section of 'Basic Text'

As the first 'input' of the Japanese textbook, 'Basic Text' activity provided vivid details of daily conversational scenarios, written so as to feel realistic and experiential, which made four student participants express their positive perception towards the use of this section. Firstly, the content of 'Basic Text' provided new language items and models of language usage, which might aid students' motivational desires in terms of vocabulary memorization and grammatical knowledge acquisition. As Fuyire remarked in the interview,

> *I really like …'basic text'. As the core of the whole textbook, it combines knowledge of Japanese grammar and vocabulary … It helps me to learn and understand grammatical knowledge and memorise the vocabulary. (Student Fuyire)*

This section further provided a stimulus to student participants' learning activity, which was shown in another positive perception of the usage of 'Basic Text'. The

context of this comment was the importance of this section for the students to use their acquired Japanese knowledge to achieve instrumental motivation of Japanese learning for passing the examination, as Gegen mentioned in the interview,

> *The content of 'basic text' is easy for me to recite. Nearly all the questions from our exam papers come from this part. (Student Gegen)*

The opportunity for student participants to use the information from the 'Basic Text' to improve their Japanese speaking ability was the third positive perception. As Daerhan explained,

> *The conversation in the 'basic text' is very practical … which presents a feeling of real language context and I also use this part to practice speaking Japanese. I feel so bored when the teacher gives time for us to do the 'exercise'. (Student Daerhan)*

Although Daerhan felt that the 'Exercise' section was not a stimulus for learning Japanese, which explained his poor attitude towards doing it during the class, three other student participants' perception of this section of the textbook involved a positive sense that their learning motivations were satisfied.

(2) Positive perception of the 'Exercise' section

As discussed in the last chapter, one of the purposes of Japanese learning for these student participants was instrumental motivation. In the student interviews, the 'Exercise' section was designed to simulate applications of knowledge in which they use the content they have learnt to achieve instrumental goals. Three student participants stated their positive perception of their usage of the 'Exercise' section, which they perceived as improving examination skills, and henced their chance of passing university and national Japanese exams. As Jirentai noted in the interview,

> *My favourite part is the 'Exercise' … The practical application of Japanese grammar in real life and*

examination form was revealed by the 'Exercise'. It helps me to pass the exams in MDU. The skill improvement from doing exercises could improve the ability to pass the competency test. And we do not have other learning materials, so I have to look at the 'Exercise' section again and again when I am reviewing the textbooks. (Student Jirentai)

The negative perception that there were insufficient learning materials again affected the level of importance attached to the content and position of textbook sections in use after class. From the student participants' experience, mistakes in Japanese usage were caused by the insufficient content of the 'Exercise' section. As Iyan remarked,

There are not enough contents of 'Exercise' … If there are sufficient exercises, I may avoid making some basic Japanese mistakes while using the grammar on my own. (Student Iyan)

Specifically, the student participants who liked the 'Exercise' section explained its role in the process of achieving instrumentality of Japanese learning. Firstly, the content of 'Exercise' enriched their understanding and application of Japanese grammar knowledge, and secondly, their improved ability and skill in using grammar seemed to prepare them better for passing the exams. The application of grammar was regarded as the critical issue and the reason some students considered the 'Exercise' section as their favourite.

(3) Positive perception towards the section on 'Grammar Explanations'

The section on 'Grammar Explanations' allowed the student participants to carry out language tasks and activities, study how the language works, and then practice the language knowledge they have newly acquired. Positive perceptions of the grammar section of the textbook were explained by three student participants. The content of this section was helpful to equip students with an understanding of Japanese grammar, and in aiding their memorisation of Japanese vocabulary. As Iyan stated,

This part quite clearly provides a simple example to explain the grammatical knowledge. And it helps

us to learn both the Japanese words and grammar.. (Student Iyan)

The concise content of this section could allow student participants to learn grammatical knowledge individually. Language ability in relation to sentence structure seemed to provide a connection between 'Grammar Explanations' and 'Exercise', which improved their semantic understanding of Japanese questions in the 'Exercise'. As Eshun noted,

… I could understand it and even look at it by myself sometimes. It also makes me quite clear about sentence structure. And then my ability to understand textbook exercise was improved by this part. (Student Eshun)

Another function of 'Grammar Explanations' served the students' motivational desire for speaking improvement, despite the absence of an adequate Japanese learning environment. As Batu mentioned,

Unlike … Chinese or Mongolian, I don't have a language environment … for Japanese. I do not need to know much about the grammar of Mongolian and Chinese, but I can still speak them pretty well … I won't overthink about whether what I'm saying in Chinese accords with the rules of the grammar or not. However, it doesn't work this way with Japanese … The part of 'grammar explanations' … explains … word and sentence order in Japanese. It not only improves my understanding of the word order in Japanese but also enables me to speak Japanese more fluently. (Student Batu)

The importance of the 'Grammar Explanations' section was in explaining the application of grammar when speaking, in contrast with the language learning experience of Mongolian and Chinese. The language environment seemed to build the confidence of the first and second language usage, even without much understanding of grammatical knowledge. Concerning the lack of a Japanese environment in the university context, the insufficient Japanese grammar acquisition in his expression meant that Batu felt unable to speak Japanese. The positive perception towards the

function of 'Grammar Explanation' in the Japanese textbook, arose because it helped some students understand Japanese semantically through the clear explanation of word and sentence order. Traced back to the function of other sections in the Japanese textbook, the students' positive perceptions were much more related to the motivation in linguistics and instrumentality of Japanese learning. In the following section, their desires for understanding Japanese cultural were also satisfied by the textbook.

(4) Positive perception towards the section on 'Application Text'

The 'Application Text' section conveyed information and feelings and non-linguistic input, which could be exploited to generate meaningful and realistic communication and then stimulated students' learning interests to improve Japanese speaking ability and acquire Japanese grammar knowledge easily. As Aruna and Hasen remarked in the interview,

> *The content of this part introduces an interesting Japanese culture. It makes me feel a real sense of communication and helps me to improve my ability in oral expression. And this part also explains grammatical knowledge explanation and applies it to real situations. So it makes it easy for me to learn Japanese grammar. (Student Aruna)*

> *…the 'Application Text' delivers Japanese cultural knowledge with colourful cartoon-like illustrations that help my focus. (Student Hasen).*

The students' perceptions of the function of each section in the textbook were situated within their own Japanese learning experience and presented their clear and specific learning aspirations in terms of language ability improvement in instrumentality, linguistics, and culture. However, their clear understanding of the function of each section of the textbook seemed to affect their individual learning sequence and experience after class when using the textbook. In the following section, some of the teachers' perceptions of textbook structure in which connections were made to

students' learning sequence will be examined.

In this section, although the students were not involved in the choice of Japanese materials, learners as assessors did, however, express their actions and reviews of its use and effectiveness. The changes in students' perception towards the usages of textbooks and ideal supplementations were described in terms of their language cognitive and behavioural expressions in the classroom context. Their perceptions of questioning, adapting and producing material made learners better able to make judgements about the relevance and interest of what they have been doing and their own level of achievement, which they presented in terms of their clear and specific learning aspirations of language knowledge acquisition and ability to improve in instrumentality, linguistics, and culture.

6.2.7 Teachers' positive perception towards the favourite part of the textbook

Based on teacher participants' perception, the usefulness of the 'Exercise' section was connected with the other sections of the textbook, which also contained the primary knowledge for each lesson. The advantage of this section is that it seemed to help the students understand the whole content of each lesson, which was regarded as an effective way to acquire the essential Japanese knowledge. The function of the 'Exercise' section for teachers with a positive perception towards it seemed to be to serve the learning goal of language knowledge acquisition, which was recommended by teacher participants for their students. As Sun said,

> *The exercise section is very good; it connects with the other parts very closely. If they could understand the content of exercises, it means that they acquire the main knowledge points in this lesson. (Teacher Sun)*

The advantage of the 'Application Text' was also noted by another teacher participant. She confirmed the content of the 'Application Text' was full of real examples of Japanese usage. The teacher participant further noted that the specific instructions

were proper for the students to improve their language ability in terms of necessary communication. In particular, the change of modality of Japanese usage in the textbook content from a basic form to an imperative form seemed to make it much easier for the students to recite the words. However, this change prevented the chance for them to know the Japanese expression in a real context. As Wang stated in the interview,

> *I felt the vivid examples of this textbook are more detailed, especially in the applied text section. These contents help the students to improve their communication ability using basic Japanese sentences in reality. But it has a bit of a disadvantage; the change of Japanese usage type from basic to command is not good for students to experience the real situation. Although the command type is good for reciting the words from the students' perspective. (Teacher Wang)*

Both teachers and students understood the function of each component of the textbook content. From discussions focused on the aspiration of learning with a positive perception of the content of the textbook, some students did not expect a passing grade because they still believed the insufficient quantity of textbooks was not enough for them to improve Japanese ability. The usage of the textbook followed the students' previous foreign language learning habit, and this was applied to their Japanese learning method and textbook usage, which, in turn, was transferred to students' and teachers' perception and engagement with Japanese learning and teaching. The other implications of the Japanese classroom context, such as the language of instruction, will be explored further in the next section on learning influences.

6.3 Students' preference for the language used in class

In the literature review, the CECR 2007 encourages students to evaluate their foreign language learning context, which is based on their own learning motivations. It seems that one of the functions of FLPLP implementation is trying to find the cause-effect relationship between students' perceptions and real classroom context. And in the

content descriptions of the learning and teaching model of China College English, which stresses the target language usage in the foreign language class. On analysis of the interview responses of this study, when asked what were the students' perceptions towards the teaching language in the Japanese class context, the 10 student participants' interview responses which emerged from the data largely fell into four categories: 1) language usage of Mongolian, 2) Chinese, 3) Japanese and the 4) language proportion change from Year 1 to Year 2. However, while these situations of language usage and change might have been experienced and perceived by students as part of their expected learning process, at times they mentioned the proportion and role of each language in the process of Japanese learning, and the influence of the choice of language on their language aspirations of language ability improvement.

6.3.1 Student negative perception towards Mongolian usage

(1) Challenges of Mongolian usage in Japanese class

All ten student participants claimed that Mongolian usage in the Japanese class was limited by the teachers' language background and language context. As Aruna stated in the interview,

> *Although our Japanese teacher is Mongolian, she barely speaks the Mongolian language. She advised us to speak more Japanese in a class and suggested that we should use Chinese to discuss any unclear words or meanings in Japanese. After all, we would have to speak Chinese in a future working environment. (Student Aruna)*

The reasons why Mongolian could not be the language of teaching in the class were twofold. First, speaking Chinese as much as possible was the suggestion from the teacher, as this was used for adapting the instrumental language context in terms of Chinese-based work after graduation. Second, the language background of the teacher made it impossible for him/her to teach Japanese in Mongolian.

(2) The function of Mongolian usage in Japanese class

a) Improving comprehension competence

Student participants' assumption of Mongolian usage for understanding Japanese semantic meanings accurately expressed the purpose of Mongolian in Japanese learning, which seemed to be to help them improve Japanese comprehension competence. As Fuyire explained,

> *I guess that the explaining of Japanese knowledge with Mongolian would be easier for us to learn and understand. (Student Fuyire)*

b) Interactive effect

In actual fact, Mongolian usage not only served the desire for Japanese learning but also appeared in the non-Japanese learning situation of private conversation among students during the Japanese class time. The valuing of Mongolian identity among students with the same language background made student participants insist on using their first language to interact with each other in the Japanese class context. As Hasen noted,

> *…. Since all of us are Mongolian students, if I want to say something to them, even though I'm in the Japanese class, I still use Mongolian.* (Student Hasen)

c) Unknown vocabulary translation

Finally, Mongolian was used to translate unknown Japanese vocabulary among classmates. As Hasen explained,

> *If one of my classmates probably fails to understand the meaning of a Japanese word, I will use Mongolian to explain it.* (Student Hasen)

Based on these findings, the usage of Mongolian was an essential way for the students to exchange linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic information in the Japanese class. However, this language interaction in Mongolian only existed among the students; the

teachers never used it. Chinese and Japanese were the main languages in the Japanese class. The change of usage proportion between these two languages was also noticed by the Year 2 student participants with their two years' learning experience.

6.3.2 Students' negative perception of the change in the proportion of teaching languages

From the interview data, all six Year 2 student participants noticed the changing proportion of the teaching language between the first year and second year, and the change was considered as a variation in the role of teaching language in two different Japanese learning processes. Firstly, Japanese overtook Chinese as the primary language of instruction in the first-year Japanese class, which seemed to help the students to improve their language ability and skill in terms of word memorisation and pronunciation correction, but in the second year, the process reversed. The proportion of Chinese used in Year 2 far exceeded Japanese, which helped the students to understand and learn Japanese grammatical knowledge. As Iyan stated in the interview,

> *… In the first year … we read the new words. At that time, Japanese was taking nearly 60 percent of our class time. But, this year, since we have to learn more Japanese grammatical knowledge, the teacher speaks Chinese most of the time. For 60 percent or even more of the time in class, he teaches in Chinese. (Student Iyan)*

Another student participant Batu also noticed this change in language teaching and discussed the reasons for this change,

> *…The teacher always repeated the Japanese words to correct our pronunciation mistakes in the first year. However, the teacher teaches us the completed Japanese sentences during this year, and I get lost with the meaning of some Japanese sentences. And then she would explain the meaning and structure of these Japanese sentences in Chinese. I felt that the teacher treats the Chinese as the main language of teaching in the second year actually. (Student Batu)*

In Batu's view, speaking more Japanese was indicative of a learning need for the correction of phonological mistakes in the first year. However, speaking Chinese as the primary teaching language in the second year was due to the need to correct weaknesses in Japanese comprehension by using Chinese.

This subsection tended to reflect that student participant's understanding on the proportion change of teaching language, and followed the reasons for this change, which served different students' desired levels of Japanese competence in different Japanese learning periods. The importance of students' learning desire was emphasised by their Japanese learning problems under the current arrangement of teaching language proportion. The specific distribution of students' beliefs on Japanese and Chinese usage will be further explored in the section on the context of students' self-learning.

6.3.3 Students' negative perception of Chinese usage in Japanese class

(1) The function and disadvantage of Chinese usage in Japanese class

The perception of Chinese usage in the class was discussed in the student participants' interview responses, which explained that Chinese was used for understanding the teachers' explanations of Japanese grammatical knowledge clearly. However, as the main language of teaching in the second year changed to Chinese, they began to realise that an excess of Chinese usage reduced the chance for them to experience a Japanese language context in the class, and this change seemed to make them lose learning interest over time. This arrangement as regard the teaching language made students' language ability improvement impossible. As Iyan said in the interview,

> *… first year… the teacher spoke Japanese a lot, we got extremely excited, and I usually read the new words after the teacher with very active motivation … second year … the teacher speaks too much Chinese … it is even more unlikely for us to have a favourable language environment. I lose my interest in learning Japanese. It would directly affect my Japanese listening skill improvement. And then my oral expression and translation abilities would also be affected by too much Chinese in the class as*

well. (Student Iyan)

In Iyan's case, the learning interest was described by sufficient Japanese input from the teacher in the first year. However, the imbalance in the proportion of languages used in teaching in the second year decreased students' learning interest and enthusiasm. Improvements in Japanese abilities and skills of listening, speaking and translating were adversely affected by the change in the proportion of teaching language.

(2) The ideal proportion of Chinese usage in Japanese class

Based on the students' negative perception towards the proportion of Chinese usage, they advocated a reduction in the proportion of Chinese to achieve a positive perception of the arrangement of teaching language. As Fuyire said,

> *… the appropriate proportion of Chinese spoken in class should be 30 to 40 percent. But, if the teacher speaks Japanese all the time or speak too much Japanese in the class, we would be unable to follow what he says, or even understand anything. Although the language environment is very important for language learners, however, too much Japanese in the class is not good for beginners to increase their learning confidence. (Student Fuyire)*

From the student participants' ideal proportion arrangement, Japanese seemed to be the expected main teaching language in class. However, the explicit conditions of target language usage were also assumed by them, specifically, that Japanese would be pitched at an appropriate amount and level of difficulty. This was because an excess of target language usage could reduce the semantic understanding and weaken students' learning confidence, especially for language beginners.

These student participants talked about their 'ideal proportion' of Japanese and Chinese usage in the class, but it was quite difficult for them to provide a proper proportion specifically, due to their understanding of the role of each language usage

in the class. As Jirentai stated,

> *… too much Chinese … the chance for a language environment experience is reduced. However, … sufficient Chinese makes the difficult Japanese knowledge clear and easy to understand. Therefore, the arrangement of the language of teaching is a very paradoxical question. (Student Jirentai)*

Students conscientiously reexamined their own perceptions and practices in the light of growing knowledge of Japanese learning, they clearly understood the function, advantages, and disadvantages of Chinese usage in Japanese learning, and they also identified the possible variables affecting the teacher's choice of teaching language. Therefore, how to balance the proportion of the teaching language between Chinese and Japanese became difficult for the students to analyse.

6.3.4 Students' negative perception of Japanese usage in Japanese class

(1) The function of Japanese usage in the first year

From the student participants' perspectives, the proportion of Japanese usage in the first year seemed to be an advantage that provided sufficient time for the students to acquire and improve language abilities in Japanese phonology. As Daerhan explains,

> *…in the first year … Japanese was much used for the introductory contents of new words, it was quite good for me to know the voice, tone, and pronunciation of Japanese words. (Student Daerhan)*

(2)The function of Japanese usage in the second year

However, the proportion in the second year totally changed, and the majority of classroom input was provided in Chinese, which was used to help students to improve their comprehensive Japanese ability. As Gegen stated in the interviews,

> *…Chinese…accounts for 70 percent of the class time... which makes us lose the Japanese context in the second year of the class … the current proportion of teaching the language with little Japanese has [adversely] affected my Japanese ability improvement in listening, speaking, reading, writing*

and transition. (Student Gegen)

The reduced Japanese language usage in the class not only impeded the students' learning needs for language ability improvement but also the achievement of instrumental ability. As Batu noted,

> *… Speaking more Japanese in the class is good to improve the chance of passing the postgraduate entrance exam. Besides, the increasingly accessible inputs with the help of a Japanese environment are also beneficial for those who want to work in Japanese enterprises. (Student Batu)*

The instrumental advantages of sufficient Japanese language use in the class were thus taken to help pass the postgraduate entrance exam and prepare for work in a Japanese context.

(3) The four methods for adjusting the teaching language proportion in Japanese class

From the interviews, students' negative perceptions towards Japanese usage seemed to emerge from the imbalance in the proportion of Chinese and Japanese usage in the class, which stimulated their assumptive action. Firstly, they were trying to change this negative perception by adjusting the ideal proportion of teaching language. As Gegen stated,

> *I feel that the reasonable proportion of Japanese usage in the class is between 60 and 70 percent …. (Student Gegen).*

Similar to Fuyire's perception of the role of Chinese usage in the last subsection, Chagan also realised that the teacher mainly relied on Chinese usage as a medium to fully explain Japanese semantic meaning. Unlike Fuyire, Chagan found an advantage in her own Chinese ability, which meant that she could understand the meaning in

situations where the teacher spoke Chinese too fast for other students. However, she could not apply this advantage of Chinese ability to her Japanese learning, as she could not gain anything in terms of semantic meaning from the fast speed of the teacher's Japanese speech. As Chagan explained,

> *The greater amount of Chinese from the teacher in class is good for us to understand the contents of Japanese knowledge ... If the teacher speaks Chinese too fast, I could guess the meaning. However, for the case of Japanese, I cannot guess the meaning of sentences when the teacher speaks Japanese too fast. (Student Chagan)*

The student participants did not transfer their difficulties in speaking Chinese into their Japanese learning. The second assumption to emerge from the student participants was that the teacher would explain the Japanese content into Chinese. The underlying reason was that the role of Chinese was not only to explain the lexical meaning of Japanese sentences but also served to translate the semantic contents of Japanese knowledge directly. As Aruna stated,

> *The best way for us to understand the contents with sufficient Japanese input is for the teacher to speak Japanese first, and then explain it in Chinese. (Student Aruna)*

The third requested action from the student participants was that speaking slowly and translating Japanese into Chinese reduced the difficulty of Japanese learning. As Daerhan noted,

> *I think if the teacher could slow down the pace of his Japanese speaking, and then translate the contents which he said into Chinese, it would be better and easier for me to learn Japanese. (Student Daerhan)*

The fourth suggestion from one student participant was the use of a visual method to recognise Japanese sentences, which helped him to understand the meaning due to

his poor Japanese listening. As Batu said,

> *If the teacher could write down the Japanese sentences that he says on the blackboard, I would probably understand about seventy or eighty percent of them … lacking sufficient Japanese inputs in the class … it is difficult for me to understand a completed sentence by listening. (Student Batu)*

For these student participants, an adjustment in the proportion of teaching language, support for Chinese translation, visual reading, and slowed speech speed would all be expected to improve their understanding of Japanese lexically and semantically. All these methods emerged from the students' negative perceptions of the current Japanese and Chinese usage in class. One aspect of these suggestions was a recurring request that teachers increase the proportion of Japanese usage.

6.3.5 Teachers' negative perception of teaching language in Japanese class

The specification of the role of each language used in the Japanese class was the key feature in assessing the interpretation and implementation of teaching language. In the teacher participants' statements about the reasons for the current language of teaching arrangement, the most frequently occurring references made by teachers were to their inability to increase Japanese input due to students' low primary Japanese proficiency and their own learning mission. As Sun clarified,

> *Increasing the proportion of Japanese usage in class is a good way to practice listening. However, for the Mongolian students, they are not good at Japanese; they only need to learn the basic daily expressions. If I speak Japanese too much, the students would not understand. I felt the proper proportion of Japanese usage is 30%. And I found an awkward situation in the class; our teachers are teaching with a high enthusiasm to the students with low learning enthusiasm. (Teacher Sun)*

The advantage of sufficient Japanese input in the class was helpful for students' listening improvement. However, the learning mission of these students was simply to acquire basic Japanese knowledge. Then, students' Japanese proficiency would not

support them in understanding the meaning of Japanese content when the teacher provided more knowledge in Japanese. From one teacher's perspective, the ideal proportion of Japanese usage was 30 percent, while this kind of teaching language arrangement did not stimulate her students' learning interest.

Similarly, Zhao stressed the primary Japanese proficiency of her students, due to their lack of learning after class, as the main reason she was unable to increase the usage proportion of Japanese. As Zhao stated,

> *…students never review the knowledge after class; I could not increase the proportion of Japanese usage based on their Japanese proficiency. (Teacher Zhao)*

Compared with the students' perceptions of the teaching language, the teacher participants also knew the role of each type of language usage in the class, in instrumental learning motivation for passing the exam. However, the third reason for decreasing Japanese usage was the big class size. As Sun stated in the interviews,

> *… I know that there are some similarities between Mongolian and Japanese, Mongolian would be good for the students to understand … most students want to pass the postgraduate entrance exams by learning Japanese … It is quite difficult … because there are too many students in one class. (Teacher Sun)*

In both sets of perceptions of teaching languages, both students and teachers realised the negative impact of the proportion of teaching language arrangement which overused Chinese in Japanese learning. Further, it affected students' learning motivations for language ability improvement and instrumental learning achievement, and moreover, impacted on students' ability to acquire language competence in the target language independently from their first and second languages. However, for the challenges of increasing Japanese usage, the students and teachers highlighted several differences that further underlined the separation between learning desires, missions,

target language proficiency, and even the class size. Increasing the proportion of Japanese teaching language in the Japanese class presented pedagogical and practical challenges. The students had an expectation of sufficient Japanese input based on their Japanese learning motivations and values, however, teachers perceived this as impossible, given the students' low proficiency and other constraints. In the following subsection, the situations in which connections are formed between the teachers' and students' perceptions of the Japanese class will be examined in more detail.

6.4 Students' reflections on classroom interaction

In the literature review, the teaching and learning models of China's College English Curriculum requirement stresses the need for improving students' English communicative competence. The function of participants' cognitions on communicative language teaching (CLT) is trying to understand the difficulties of classroom interaction that caused by the situational constraints. The investigation of their perceptions of classroom interaction seems to enhance teachers and students' awareness of contextual influences, and tries to find the cause-effect sequence of students' ideal arrangement on classroom interaction. In this study, the instances of classroom communication led to students and teachers' views of the assumed reasons and expected language behaviours of teachers and contributed to a picture of sufficient classroom interaction that had become well-established to achieve their learning motivations for desired Japanese ability improvements, as demonstrated in *Table 6.5.*

Table 6.5: Interpretation and implementation of Japanese classroom interaction

Participants Implementation of classroom interaction	Students	Teachers and Administrators
Perception of classroom interaction	Low frequency of classroom interaction	Low frequency of classroom interaction
Reasons for low-frequency interaction	1. Receiving insufficient Japanese input in the class	1.Limited class time
		2.Students' learning habit towards teacher-centred foreign language class
	2.Getting fewer chances for Japanese practice in the class	3.Students' low primary Japanese proficiency
		4.Students' low confidence in answering questions
	3.Low Japanese proficiency and lack of confidence in Japanese application	5. Students' low level of interest in learning
	4.Lack of media resources	6. Complicated procedure for using media resources
Advantage of classroom interaction	1.Receiving feedback on Japanese phonological errors	Correcting students' Japanese phonological errors
	2.Increasing learning interest and attention	
	3.Avoiding Japanese output errors in word order	
	4.Improving Japanese abilities	
	5.Receiving suggestions on learning methods	

In the student questionnaire *(see Table 6.6)*, questions 18 and 19 aimed to investigate bilingual respondents' views of Japanese class interaction.

Table 6.6: Students' views on classroom interaction

1: Class environment and interaction helped Japanese learning		
Percentage / Opinions	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Strongly agree	15.6	10.5
Agree	7.5	9.9
Uncertain	15.6	14.1
Disagree	56.5	64.9
Strongly disagree	4.8	0.6

2: Class environment and interaction stimulated Japanese learning interests		
Percentage / Opinions	% Year 1 students (n=147)	% Year 2 students (n=191)
Strongly agree	8.2	9.9
Agree	8.2	5.8
Uncertain	21.0	16.2
Disagree	57.8	63.9
Strongly disagree	4.8	4.2

From the table, most respondents did not think the class environment and interaction helped their Japanese learning, and nearly all students' interest in learning Japanese was not stimulated by the Japanese class, which it was quite similar with their perception towards classroom interaction from students' interview data.

6.4.1 Students' negative perception of the frequency of classroom interaction

(1) Low frequency of classroom interaction

The negative perception towards interaction frequency implied that there was almost no classroom interaction between teacher and students, and expectations were clear in terms of increasing opportunities for communication in the class. As Eshun said,

> *The interactions in the classroom are relatively rare. I hope that we can have more interactive activities in class. Otherwise, the students will do what they want during class time. (Student Eshun)*

(2) Three reasons for the low frequency of classroom interaction

Student participants' understanding of Japanese classroom interaction referred to the patterns of verbal and non-verbal communication which occur within classrooms. Student participants viewed the classroom as a place where interactions of all kinds take place, offering opportunities for learners to acquire target language feedback through the errors and learning strategies, and then stimulated learning interests and improve language ability. As the primary classroom input, student participants believed that the teachers' talk and questions were the main form of interaction. In this Japanese teaching and learning context, teachers' talk took up the dominant

percentage of class time. A substantial amount of the language heard by students was thus provided by the teacher. As Aruna presented,

> *… only the teacher speaks all the time in the Japanese class …. (Student Aruna)*

From the allocation of students' perception of the frequency of classroom interaction, the other eight student participants held similar perceptions and had a negative feeling about the current level of classroom interaction. Even Gegen stated that there was little interaction in the class,

> *No interaction, nothing, we do not have classroom interaction. Only the teacher speaks all the time; he never asks questions. (Student Gegen)*

Firstly, a high proportion of teacher-centred learning and receiving no Japanese questions from the teacher seemed to be regarded as the primary reason that the student participants failed to engage in the behaviour of communicating with the teacher in the class. The second reason that the frequency of classroom interaction was changed during the student participants' different learning motivation towards two years of the Japanese learning experience. As Hasen stated,

> *We have some interactions through pronunciation correction in the first year, but the teacher never asks a question to us in the second year. However, if I had some problems with sentence structure, I would ask the teacher individually after class. (Student Hasen)*

Based on this finding, teacher feedback on the role of limited classroom interaction in the first year seemed to relate to correcting Japanese phonological errors. However, the decrease in communication frequency in the second year was also represented by the changing role of different language ability improvements, as the grammar issues of sentence structure became the main topic of interaction. Surprisingly, the method and time of interaction were also changed from a collective approach during class time

to the individual method after class.

The third reason that the lack of multimedia resources affected actively answering questions was also discussed in relation to low-frequency classroom interaction (amount, best option). As Daerhan explained in the interview,

> *… the teacher speaks alone in the class. Some students do not listen to the teacher, and the teacher never plays audio and video resources in the class. Thus, the class content and topic doesn't attract me so much, and I have low enthusiasm to participate in classroom interaction. (Student Daerhan)*

Having started from a type of classroom context involving teacher-centred instruction, the lack of communication in the whole process of teaching and learning meant that some students did not follow the taught content. Further, the lack of interactive resources, video or audio materials seemed to have the effect of weakening the communicative effectiveness of the class, potentially leading to a situation where the class content could not keep the students' attention and stimulate their learning interest.

Finally, according to student participants' accounts, there were two kinds of questions which were effective in the Japanese classroom: knowledge questions which test recall and recognition of information; and application questions which apply information and knowledge which has already been heard or read to new situations. The type of questions asked by the teacher resembled a method to improve students' Japanese skills on memorising and theorising. However, it still did not increase student participants learning interests. As Hasen claimed,

> *… there are two types of questions he will ask us. One makes us read the text together, the other one is making us translate the Chinese sentences into Japanese, I do not like it, and it felt so boring. (Student Hasen)*

The teachers' questions seemed to reflect an instrumental view of classroom interaction, which served students' learning need for language ability improvement. The more specific advantages of classroom interaction in relation to student participants' expectations will be further explored in the following section.

6.4.2 Students' perceptions of the advantages of classroom interaction

In student participants' personal statements about the reason for increasing the frequency of classroom interaction, included the most frequently occurring references to 'speaking', 'listening', 'translation', 'vocabulary', 'grammatical knowledge', 'classroom attention and interest', 'pronunciation' and even a claim that their proficiency with Chinese word order may be improved if they had sufficient chances for classroom communication.

(1) Speaking and grammar

Five student participants confirmed that the class was the only place and time for them to practice Japanese speaking. Sufficient classroom interaction would be helpful to seek advice from the teacher on Japanese skill improvement, especially grammatical knowledge. As Aruna stated,

> *I want to practice my Japanese speaking in the class because I have limited time to speak Japanese out of class. Generally, I ask my teacher some Japanese grammar questions and ask how to improve my Japanese language ability after class. (Student Aruna)*

(2) Listening, vocabulary, class attention, translation and word order

Two student participants mentioned that increased interaction in the class seemed to lead to more Japanese input, and thereby improve students' listening and extend their vocabulary, and further, possibly attract the students' attention and interest. Emphasis on the advantage of the teacher's questions in translating from Chinese to Japanese seemed to focus on improving their learning ability in terms of Japanese translation and Chinese word order in processing different language contexts. As Chagan stated,

… [interaction] improves our listening skill and enlarges our Japanese vocabulary; it also makes the class interesting. Sometimes the teacher asks me to translate Japanese sentences, and I think it is not only allowing me to practice my Japanese translation ability but also strengthening my Chinese ability regarding word order. (Student Chagan)

(3) Pronunciation

Effective communication with the teacher seemed to involve an awareness of Japanese phonology correction. As a result of student perceptions, the advantage of answering the teacher's questions was seen as a way to address pronunciation problems and obtain individual feedback by a professional. As Eshun noted,

... I feel happy that I could get a chance of pronunciation correction directly from my teacher when he was answering questions in class. After all, there is no one who could provide a one-to-one pronunciation correction for me after class. (Student Eshun)

However, not every student participant expected more interactive communication in class. One reason was due to student participants' emotional sensitivity to the reactions of their classmates, which meant that they feared exposure of any mistakes in the context of classroom interaction,

I am afraid of being laughed at when I give a wrong answer in the class. (Student Daerhan)

Another reason was student participants' low confidence in their communicative proficiency and high awareness of phonological problems, which seemed to affect their readiness to participate in classroom interactions. As Jirentai stated,

I have problems with Japanese pronunciation. Actually, I am afraid to answer the teacher's questions. And my Japanese proficiency is not good enough to support me to give a correct answer. (Student Jirentai)

In student participants' views, effective and sufficient Japanese classroom interaction was necessary to provide an opportunity for them to receive Japanese language input and produce Japanese output. Furthermore, it gave students the impetus and opportunity to create a language with which they were comfortable, without having to risk initiating language use themselves; to provide them with a chance to gain immediate feedback on their phonology and application, and to stimulate their learning attention and interest.

6.4.3 Teachers' and administrators' negative perception towards classroom interaction

Based on the findings from teacher and course director participants, the reason why they tended towards low-frequency classroom interaction was underpinned by six reasons: 1) limited class time, 2) students are used to teacher-centred language classes, 3) students' primary Japanese proficiency, 4) low confidence in accurate communication, 5) instrumental value of learning and 6) complicated procedure for multi-media resources application.

The teacher participants' direct approach to the problem of the low frequency of classroom interaction indicated that large numbers of students were the main difficulty, resulting in a lack of sufficient class time to correct the pronunciation issues for individual students. Solving Japanese phonological problems was seen as the main function of classroom interaction. However, the students were quite used to teacher-centred methods, and this was also another reason for non-communication. As Wang stated,

> *I have too many students in one class; there are almost no classroom interactions. Last year, I taught nearly 90 students in one class … I do not have sufficient time to correct Japanese pronunciation for each student. So some students' pronunciation is fine, some are very bad… I left 3 to 5 minutes for them to ask me the questions after each grammatical knowledge explanation. However, most*

students would not ask and keep silent. It is quite like a traditional Chinese classroom interaction. (Teacher Wang)

From teacher participants' point of view, the students' primary Japanese proficiency was the third reason preventing them from participating in classroom interaction. The fourth reason for low-frequency classroom interaction related to concerns that the teacher's strict participation requirement would reduce students' attention and interest. The students' instrumental need for Japanese learning was the fifth reason, which reduced their attention and interest in the class, even their valuing of classroom interaction. As Zhao stated in the interviews,

…Maybe their current Japanese ability is not at the level for communicating in Japanese … I cannot force them to participate in classroom activities. If she or he fails to answer my questions, she or he would feel ashamed and reduce their learning enthusiasm. And the students pay little attention to the Japanese class; they just believe that it is fine to pass the exams. (Teacher Zhao)

Both the teachers and students expected the other to initiate communication. Students also regarded audiovisual media resources as a place where classroom interaction could be encouraged.

The similarity with student participants, in all three teacher participants' minds, was the desirability for the interactive activity of using multimedia resources in the class. Like students, teachers believed this would attract students' attention and interest. However, the complicated administrative procedure for applying for permission from the university to use this teaching method deterred teachers from using it. Furthermore, the content of media input also needed to be designed by the teacher, and they also needed to pass a trial lecture on the multimedia teaching application in content and format that was evaluated by the academic department. A Japanese class with media resources could finally be run after all these steps were taken. The overly heavy workload of non-academic teaching activities requiring teachers' own effort in

following the university administration structure and insufficient class time would be the sixth and seventh reasons why they avoided this form of classroom interaction. Teachers prioritised covering course content over such forms of interaction and perceived a lack of time for additional material. As Sun stated,

> *If I want to play a Japanese video and audio in the class to attract students' attention, I have to apply for a multimedia classroom permit from the university administration office. And then I also need to send my video materials to them for auditing. Last but not least, I should design complete courseware for the academic registry to evaluate. It brings too much work pressure for me ... In addition, limited teaching hours and all these above problems together push me to give up the idea of media teaching. As a teacher, my own power could not solve this problem. The only thing that I am sure I can solve is preparing for each step of class content with detailed instruction. (Teacher Sun)*

Similarly, the course director also identified difficulty using media resources in teaching. Complex approval procedures and requirements of the multimedia teaching application in MDU seemed to limit the teacher's autonomy in terms of teaching methods and materials. As Lee confirmed,

> *I do not know why the university made this rule on the application of multimedia teaching tools; it might be due to limited teaching equipment. The rule permits the teachers above age 35 years to use multimedia tools. For young teachers, they do not have the right to use them.* (Course director Lee)

Nearly all participants mentioned the positive effects of sufficient class interaction. However, the frequency of communication in the Japanese classes sought by students was not implemented for reasons related to linguistic and non-linguistic factors. The current communicative context adversely affected students' Japanese language learning. The administrative challenge of using multimedia teaching techniques reduced the quality of classes and thus, students' Japanese learning interest and attention in the class. Understanding the perceptions of the policy of choosing one from three foreign languages in the classroom level meant examining the different

related perspectives. Various reasons for and influences of teaching techniques led to a very practical situation regarding the techniques used in Japanese class, and the students had suggestions to improve the learning situation based on their Japanese learning experience which could be used to achieve positive outcomes for the Japanese course.

6.5 The relevance of expected teaching techniques to students, teachers and administrators

This section reports on the participants' proposals to reverse the negative perceptions of the implementation of foreign language policy and language teaching in the classroom context. 'Adding class time' was the leading and most effective way identified by the participants to improve the Japanese learning, teaching and managing experience for them who hold negative perceptions of FLPLP at the classroom level. Based on the findings, nearly all aspects of Japanese learning in the classroom were strongly affected by insufficient class time. The amount and content of textbook instruction, Japanese input, and the frequency and method of classroom interaction were insufficient due to the current limited class time.

Following the introduction in Section 6.5.1, the class length was commonly referred to by the student participants in their interviews to identify their learning motivations for Japanese ability improvement. In Section 6.5.2, the management of the class was seen by students as a negative influence on Japanese learning with no clear solution. However, some proposals were made to make for a more efficient classroom environment. Teachers and administrators also complained about insufficient class time in Section 6.5.3.

6.5.1 Students' negative perception towards the limited class timetables

From four student participants' (Batu, Hasen, Iyan and Jirentai) Japanese learning experience, the class timetable with twice-weekly classes seemed insufficient to satisfy their need for learning more in-depth Japanese content. An extra hour of

teaching per week was suggested, as a way to solve this negative perception. However, this ideal action was most likely not accepted by all the student participants. As Iyan suggested,

> *…… we attend the Japanese class twice a week … Personally, I like learning Japanese quite a lot, and I wish we could have the Japanese class three times a week. It would provide more time for us to learn Japanese in a detailed way. (Student Iyan)*

Similarly, Batu stated that *"adding class hour is an effective way…" (Student Batu)*, having realised the negative result of limited class time on Japanese understanding. Firstly, the class time was insufficient for a teacher to accomplish the teaching missions, and further, the lack of class time increased the speed of the teaching, which led to misunderstanding in the context of limited Chinese and Japanese proficiency. As Batu stated,

> *… the teacher did not have enough time to finish the teaching missions, so the speed of his speaking is too fast for me. I cannot understand… (Student Batu)*

Two student participants (Chagan and Eshun) were not highly motivated and opposed to the idea of adding another teaching hour per week, due to their instrumental motivation for choosing Japanese instead of English. For these students, the low amount of teaching time was part of the appeal of Japanese. As Chagan said,

> *… adding another class hour … would not be good news for the students who did not wish to spend too much time on learning a foreign language. Because I believed that Japanese is much easier to learn and pass the exams than English. (Student Chagan)*

The Japanese learning time in the class was thus differentially assessed in terms of students' perceptions of their learning needs. Their views of Japanese learning environment during class time will be explored in the following subsection.

6.5.2 Students' negative perceptions of classroom management

The advantage of classroom management was identified by two student participants in the interview as a factor which seemed to motivate their learning interest and improve their attention in the class. Another advantage of the comfortable class environment was that it helped them to remember Japanese grammar. As Eshun stated,

> *The classroom management … could help us to remember the grammatical knowledge by telling jokes or funny sentences in Japanese. In that way … it motivates students' learning interest and helps us to focus our attention during class time. (Student Eshun)*

However, three student participants objected to the teachers' soft approach to classroom management, which was taken to encourage lack of discipline and disrupt learning, since some students' inappropriate behaviour in the classroom would affect the others' attention. As Hasen explained,

> *The classroom discipline is inferior… the teacher never punished the students, even if they do something irrelevant for the teaching contents in the class; sometimes, the noise from them made me get lost on the listening. (Student Hasen)*

Improving the students' capacity for self-control in the class seemed to this student an effective way to avoid a negative classroom environment. However, other students suggested that the negative results of a teacher's strict punishment of students who struggle with concentration would worsen the negative class environment. As Jirentai states,

…strong self-control is significant for the students who wanted to learn Japanese in the class. If the teacher… punishes the students … I believe that they still will not work hard… serious classroom management would make me give up learning Japanese and do pranks during class time. (Student Jirentai)

The students' positive perception of the function of an effective classroom environment facilitated integrated approaches to the issue of how Japanese knowledge learning interest and attention could be increased, although the reasons for the negative classroom environment were discussed separately from teachers' and students' roles; the students noticed what abilities enhanced learning in a negative classroom environment. In the following subsection, the teacher participants' perception of practical situations of classroom management will be explored.

6.5.3. Teachers and administrators' negative perception towards class timetable arrangements

The advantage of sufficient class time for teacher participants was seen as an opportunity to correct students' mistakes and increase learning interest. As Wang stated,

… class time for these several years … is not enough … I need more time to correct students' mistakes in Japanese pronunciation and stimulate their learning interests. (Teacher Wang)

Concerning the available class time, the teacher participants further mentioned that the time available was just sufficient for textbook teaching, which seemed to restrict the inclusion of other teaching activities. As Zhao explained,

I felt the current class timetable is just for me to teach the content of the textbook for my students; I cannot introduce new knowledge. I hope to get more time. (Teacher Zhao)

The teachers' suggestion was the same as students as regards the challenge of

insufficient class time: adding extra class hours. However, the administrators uniformly supported the current arrangement. In their views, the class timetable was enough to meet students' learning needs. As Course Director Lee said,

> *I suppose the arrangement of the current class timetable would be fine … 14 weeks to accomplish 256 class hours' teaching mission in the first semester, and the following second and third term spend 17 weeks in lecturing. The last term is covered by 16 weeks. It gets 4 class hours, which divide into two 100-minute classes each week. I think this time arrangement is sufficient for the students to acquire much Japanese knowledge. (Course Director Lee)*

The conflict over available class time was also clear in the Dean's response. On the one hand, in common with the Course Director, the Dean insisted that the course provided sufficient class time. On the other hand, the negative results of students' Japanese proficiency evaluation were a real driver for increasing class hours. For the management officers, the class timetable acted as an indicator to reflect the change of university FLPLP, in terms of a change in national foreign language policy. As Dean Ba stated,

> *… I feel the current class time in MDU is enough … students' results of middle and final term exams, they need more class time to learn Japanese … However, the upcoming new foreign language policy of MDU will decrease the class time available. It is an overall policy of MDU ... Although … I am trying to maintain the original class timetable arrangement for the upcoming students' foreign language study in the first year. (Dean Ba)*

For the Dean, sufficient class time would affect the students' achievements from an instrumental perspective. However, at an institutional level of implementation of national foreign language policy, MDU seemed to follow the change of class timetable from national language policy.

The course director participant also confirmed the implementation procedure of foreign language policy and language planning from national to the institutional level.

However, he added that the regional education institution could adjust the specific guidance of national foreign language policy according to the context requirements. The adjustment was not entirely without restriction since the new foreign language policy and language planning of MDU reduced the class time available, which, in turn, showed that the arrangement of the regional education institution was affected by the change of national foreign language policy. As Course Director Lee explained,

> *There is a requirement on the class timetable for non-foreign-language major students in the university from the national language policy, but it does not impose a mandatory requirement, each university could adjust the class timetable according to their own actual situation. The normal requirement is about 256 class hours for each term. However, a 'talent training project 2015' from our university decreased the class hours from 256 to 244. The specific class arrangement would be decided later according to the national policy. This means that neither the Mongolian nor the new Han student of the class of 2015 would experience fewer class hours on foreign language courses than before. (Course Director Lee)*

By analysing the reasons for this, the Chancellor realised that the change of national foreign language policy in relation to college entrance exams seemed to drive the change of FLPLP implementation at the classroom level. The modification of the college entrance exam for foreign language subjects provided the common reason for decreasing class timetable in MDU. As the conductor of national foreign language policy, universities followed the change directive and obeyed the new requirements to implement the change. As Chancellor Tuya said,

> *Based on current situations, the state made modifications to the college entrance exam on foreign language subjects. It probably prompted a class timetable adjustment for all the non-foreign-language major students of the university. MDU will decrease the class hours from next year. (Chancellor Tuya)*

6.6 Summary

This chapter has reported on the extent to which the FLPLP was implemented at the classroom level. The positive attitude towards 'choosing one from three foreign languages' was found to be negative as regards the perceptions towards teaching techniques.

The students' negative perception in the classroom context was affected by the insufficient quantity and content of Japanese learning materials, the imbalanced arrangement of the proportion of teaching language, low frequency of classroom interaction, which were expressed by their learning motivations and ideal desires for target language and directed their learning behaviour to search for supplementary learning materials individually and explained their suggestion to change these perceptions. Two directional processes of perception development emerged as described by the *figure* below:

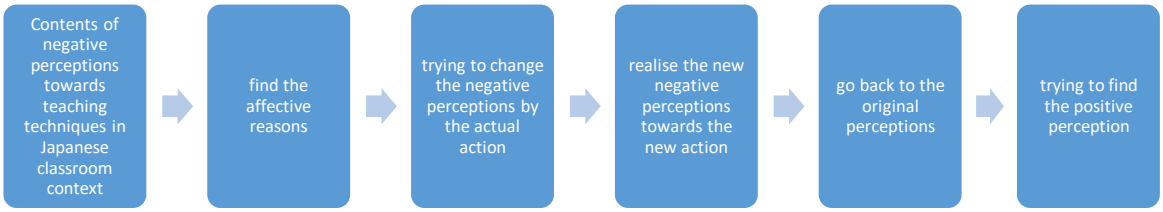


Figure 6.2: The development sequence of students' perception towards FLPLP at classroom context

Participants all revealed negative perceptions of FLPLP implementation at the classroom level, particularity in its aims to improve or achieve ideal Japanese learning motivation on instrumental, cultural knowledge acquisition and ideal desired language abilities and skills. Furthermore, participants expressed the conflicts with national policy intent and requirement, especially as regards the class time arrangement. Regardless of the classroom contextual constraints and difficulties, the administrators claimed that they had to follow the routine of national policy, which limited their adjustments of the current classroom context. However, as the study explains, the FLPLP implementation in the classroom

context negotiated the conflicts of the requirement of national foreign policy and institutional FLPLP. With negative perceptions towards the FLPLP enactment in the classroom context, students also held beliefs regarding the effectiveness of language learning, which will be discussed in detail in the next Chapter.

Chapter Seven Findings: What were students' beliefs about the influential factor of language comparisons, and their comments concerning the cause and effect sequence of their beliefs?

7.1 Introduction

In the last chapter, the existing perceptions of students of the Japanese classroom context were discussed, alongside how their understandings and aspirations towards foreign language policy and language planning implementation in the classroom seemed to relate to the language learning motivations and expected actions which emerged from their learning experiences. These encounters were strongly linked to their views on the relationship between teaching techniques, languages and classroom activities, and contributed to perceptions of a well-established Japanese course in the classroom setting.

Students' interpretations of the influential factor of language comparisons varied, resulting in different language learning approaches and learning experiences in and after class. This chapter examines the students' beliefs about the implementation of the policy of 'choosing one foreign language from three' at their own learning stage. The findings from the semi-structured interviews reveal the difficulties and errors the students experienced in their Japanese learning processes, and the role of language abilities and instrumental motivations in shaping their expectations after learning three different languages. A number of issues are addressed in this chapter. Section 7.2. explores how significant the students' difficulties were in their Japanese learning. Thereafter, Section 7.3. discusses what were the students' and teachers' ideal outcomes of successful trilingual learners. Finally, Section 7.4. details to what extent language errors were related to the requirement for students to process learning in three languages?

7.2 Students' beliefs about Japanese learning difficulties

This section reports the student participants' beliefs on the content (see *Table 7.1*) and cause-effect sequence (see *Figure 7.2*) of Japanese learning difficulties. The students showed their awareness of Japanese learning difficulties in their learning experience in the FLPLP implementation in the self-learning context. The results of these learning challenges, according to students, were strong influential factors which affected their learning motivation for desired levels of Japanese competence. Based on these findings, their learning difficulties were placed in the following items: 1) word memorisation, 2) writing, 3) listening, 4) speaking, 5) reading, and 6) translation, as demonstrated in *table 7.1*.

Table 7.1: Difficulties students experienced and concerns in learning Japanese

Specific skill or ability of Japanese learning	Word memorisation	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Translation
Reasons for learning difficulties	1.Insufficient self-learning time	Unclear understanding of grammatical knowledge	1.Insufficient target language context	1.Insufficient target language context .	Insufficient classroom interaction	Insufficient classroom interaction
	2.Insufficient Japanese input in the class		2.Insufficient classroom interaction			
	3.The influence of kanji characters		3.Limited vocabulary and grammatical knowledge	2.Insufficient classroom interaction		
	4.Loss of attention in class					
Negative influences	1.Japanese sentence making	1.Japanese sentence making	Following the speed and content of Japanese	Japanese speaking ability	1.Understanding the content of Japanese textbook	1.Japanese vocabulary acquisition
	2.Other Japanese abilities improvement	2.Reducing expectations of writing ability improvement			2.Japanese pronunciation accuracy	2.Understanding of Grammatical knowledge
						3.Other Japanese abilities improvement

In this subsection, the interview responses of ten student participants are also used to explore the relationship between the cause and effect of Japanese learning difficulties. The negative learning outcomes appeared to reflect the relationship between beliefs of individual learning situations and the negative perceptions of Japanese teaching in the classroom context, which, in turn, affected students' Japanese abilities improvement (see *Figure 7.1*).

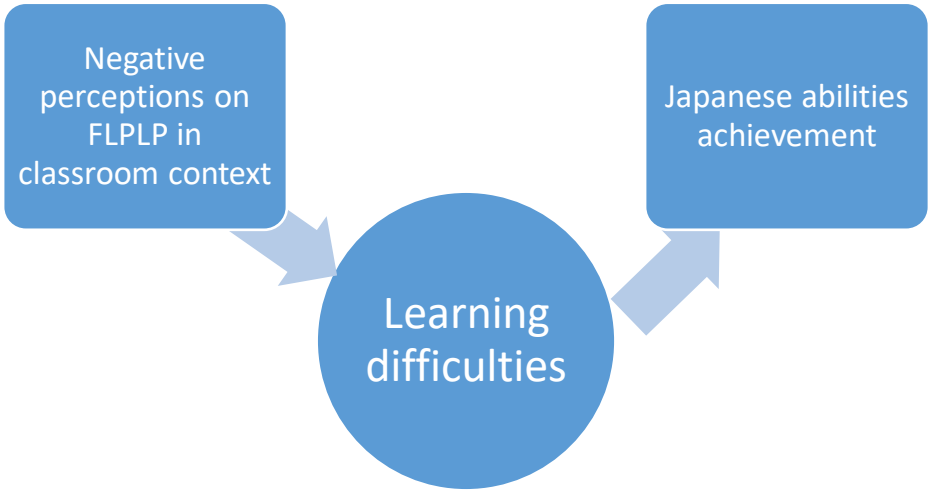


Figure 7.1 Student' beliefs on the cause-effect sequence of Japanese learning difficulties

Students' beliefs about the cause-effect of Japanese learning difficulties

(1) Word memorisation

In an analysis of student participants' reasons for their difficulty in remembering Japanese words, several distinct factors were mentioned, including teaching techniques, language transfer, and students' own learning effort, which contributed to understanding the influences of word memorisation on other language abilities' improvement. As Batu revealed,

> *The biggest learning obstacle for me is to memorise the words. I failed to spend enough time memorising Japanese words, and I did not listen to too many Japanese words in the class. Besides, I often confuse the combined meanings of Chinese characters in Japanese with their original meaning in Chinese. (Student Batu)*

The insufficient learning time after class, insufficient Japanese input in the class and similarity in spelling between Chinese and Japanese were the reasons which affected Batu and the other student participants' learning of Japanese words. The detailed negative language transfer of kanji will be discussed in section 7.4.

Losing attention in class was also a reason given by one student participant for why they find it challenging to remember Japanese words. As Eshun stated:

… I do not listen to the teacher's explanation of Japanese words carefully in class, and then I feel it is difficult to remember Japanese words. (Student Eshun)

Further, the student participants realised that there was a negative influence of the shortage of learning materials on their Japanese vocabulary, which led to students losing confidence in their ability to form Japanese sentences:

… It means that creating sentences from single words is more difficult for me to accomplish. (Student Eshun)

Not all student participants were as clear about the reasons for Japanese learning difficulties in terms of word memorisation. However, the realisation of the importance and function of Japanese vocabulary affected their expected learning needs in relation to improving other Japanese abilities. As Gegen states:

…I do not know the reasons why I cannot remember them. The vocabulary is the foundation of Japanese learning. And I realise that the problem of reciting words also affects my other Japanese skills. (Student Gegen)

(2) Writing

One student participant's belief identified that their difficulty in learning Japanese writing was related to their insufficient Japanese grammatical knowledge, thus, this negatively influenced their ability to produce complete sentences:

My biggest Japanese learning difficulty is writing. I could not make a complete sentence, let alone meet the challenge of writing a routine article … I think unclear grammatical knowledge is an influential factor that held me back from Japanese writing. (Student Hasen)

(3) Listening

Four student participants' beliefs were that the causes of their difficulty in learning Japanese listening skills was due to the lack of a language environment, regular listening practices and the deficit in their own Japanese ability as regards grammar and insufficient vocabulary. As Batu, Daerhan and Aruna explained in the interviews:

Listening is another learning obstacle for me. I do not have any listening skills in the class…. (Student Batu)

In fact, all Japanese skills are quite difficult for beginners, but personally, I think listening is particularly difficult for me. Firstly, we lack the language environment; second, the teacher doesn't provide opportunities for listening practice in class. (Student Daerhan)

…listening is the main learning problem for me … I think my limited Japanese vocabulary and grammatical knowledge make me get into this trouble. (Student Aruna)

The negative influence of limited listening skills on speaking speed and understanding the meaning of the teacher's speaking were frequently mentioned by the student participants, which also made them unwilling to make any further effort towards improving their Japanese listening ability:

…I could not quite understand the meaning when the teacher speaks too much Japanese in the class; I cannot follow his speaking speed for most of the time… (Student Batu)

…because this reason … I do not want to practice listening anymore… (Student Daerhan)

(4) Speaking

As with Japanese listening, the causes of student participants' negative comments about Japanese speaking related to insufficient classroom interaction and Japanese language context:

… speaking is the hardest Japanese ability for me to learn and improve because it lacks Japanese context, and we do not have any interaction in class, which helps us practice Japanese speaking. (Student Iyan)

In addition, the negative influence of this difficulty seemed to reduce the opportunity for student participant to improve Japanese speaking in the class, as Eshun stated:

…I have no chance to improve Japanese speaking. (Student Eshun)

(5) Reading

The findings showed that two student participants felt that the causes of reading difficulties in learning Japanese were related to unclear understanding of the Japanese textbook content and their individual phonology:

… Reading is the most difficult part because I can't even fully understand the Japanese content in textbooks by myself. (Student Eshun)

The biggest Japanese learning obstacle for me is reading. Because I usually read Japanese by myself … no one would help me to correct my pronunciation mistakes … I could not have the standard pronunciation as reference. (Student Fuyire)

The misunderstanding and incorrect phonology of the textbook led to negative outcomes in learning to read Japanese, which, in turn, may have impeded the student participant's acquisition of other Japanese language abilities. As Eshun believed:

…the difficulty of reading … I don't know the meaning of the content in textbook, *the other language skills may have been influenced by that. (Student Eshun)*

(6)Translation

The student participants who struggled with Japanese translation, such as Jirentai,

believed that the reason for this difficulty may be identified as insufficient classroom interaction:

> *… I realise that sufficient translation exercises are the important way for us to improve Japanese translation … we have nearly no chances to do such exercises in the class…. (Student Jirentai)*

Jirentai further noted the importance of Japanese translation and its potential impact on other language abilities such as listening and speaking:

> *… The translation is the most difficult aspect of Japanese for me to learn … the translation is like a comprehensive ability, which involves the students' vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. And if we are answering the teacher's questions on translation issues, it also gives insight into our capacity for listening and speaking. (Student Jirentai)*

The students' beliefs about Japanese learning difficulties arose as a result of various influences related to different Japanese skills and abilities acquisition. Their beliefs were often linked to their experiences of failure and disaffection with their own learning methods and the teaching techniques, which negatively affected Japanese ability progression. Their beliefs about their Japanese learning difficulties seemed to involve a gap between their negative Japanese learning experiences and their expectations in terms of ideal language ability achievement. The specific characteristics of an ideal Japanese language ability sought by speakers of three languages will be discussed in the next section.

7.3 Criteria for an ideal successful trilingual learner

All student participants entering the MDU had a free choice of foreign learning under the FLPLP enactment in the university context. Their prior Mongolian and Chinese learning experiences reinforced their beliefs of what makes a successful trilingual learner. These beliefs are presented here in terms of general expected language learning skills required with language contact between each pair of languages. The

ideal success criteria for acquisition of Mongolian, Chinese, Japanese and all three overall languages were described separately by the student participants and contributed to their language comparisons, either as essential learning motivations to be improved or as achievements of the foreign language policy and language planning in MDU in the self-learning context, as demonstrated in *Table 7.2*.

Table 7.2: The gap between the ideal successful trilingual learners and practical challenges

The expectation of language learning	Ideal successful standards & requirements	Reasons for achieving or failing to achieve the ideal standards
Mongolian	1.Natural confidence in application	1.Language position as first language and insufficient language input
	2.Avoiding the language habit of mixed language usage	2. Language context change by location and family language speaking context
	3. know about history knowledge	3. Expectation of deeper emotional expression
Chinese	1.improving confidence in speaking	1.Language context change from Mongolian to Chinese
	2.improving the accuracy of communication	2.Negative language transfer from applying Mongolian characteristics to Chinese
	3.Passing Putonghua test	3.Requirement and expectation in employment
	4.Acquiring historical and cultural knowledge	4. Achieving semantic meaning understanding
Japanese	1.Achieving basic communication skills	1.Language value from length of learning
	2.Improving the accuracy of semantic meaning	2.Negative language transfer from carrying Chinese meaning into Japanese
	3.Understanding cultural knowledge	3.Advance Japanese learning easily
	4.Passing institutional and national exams	4.Aand requirement for undergraduate graduation and postgraduate education
Trilingual learner	1.Improving communication skills	1.Insufficient Japanese context and classroom interaction
	2.Passing institutional and national exams	2.Graduated and expected requirement for postgraduate education

7.3.1 Students' beliefs about the ideal successful Mongolian learner

Based on the findings, the confidence expressed by the student participants in their Mongolian learning experience could be subsumed into language position. However, the problems of non-standard Mongolian expression and further usage of Mongolian seem the negative influences, which are affected by language contact and a shortage

of knowledge of Mongolian history.

(1)Views of an ideal successful Mongolian learner in relation to the language position

The ten student participants all confirmed the language position of Mongolian as the first language, which strengthened their intrinsic. This confidence seems to be the reason why students engaged in Mongolian usage without any difficulties:

> *My first language is Mongolian, so I don't have any obstacle to using it. (Student Aruna)*

> *I think I am good at speaking my mother tongue. Being a successful Mongolian speaker for me means I could freely use Mongolian. I feel like I can use Mongolian to do anything now. (Student Daerhan)*

(2)Views of an ideal successful Mongolian learner in relation to language context

The dominant memories of five student participants' Mongolian usage experience focus on the standard application of Mongolian. From their responses, it appears that the dialect of Mongolian used in the western part of Inner Mongolia is close to 'standard Mongolian'. The combinatory usage habit of Mongolian and Chinese led to a few challenges for them in becoming ideal successful Mongolian learners:

> *…I am from an eastern part of Inner Mongolia where there are more Han people compared with the western region. The Mongolian usage there has some expressions that have borrowed some Chinese words. When I am communicating with students from western Inner Mongolia, they could not quite understand some Mongolian words I said … I think a Mongolian speaker should know the difference in Mongolian between these two regions, and make a flexible conversion to achieve an authentic or successful Mongolian level. (Student Chagan)*

Chagan was aware of the existence of regional variations, which lead to different Mongolian usage habits. Those who lived in the eastern part of Inner Mongolia, surrounded by more Han people, were exposed to more Chinese language use, which

littered their Mongolian expressions with Chinese words. In contrast, those from the western region of Inner Mongolia, where speakers are surrounded by more Mongolians speaking 'standard Mongolian' without any Chinese words, misunderstand the meaning of Mongolian words when used by easterners. The students' perception of fluent Mongolian usage involves awareness of the different Mongolian features of expressions and smooth communication with westerners without any misunderstandings due to regional differences.

The Mongolian learners' different language usage habits were probably linked to the different language contexts that student participants experienced. As Hasen stated:

> *…my Mom has a lot of Han family relatives. I am a bilingual speaker of Mongolian and Chinese from a very young age. I always speak sentences with a combination of these two languages. It is a non-standard Mongolian. I could speak and write Mongolian in a more formal way instead of colloquial expressions … [but] I speak Chinese most of the time in my current living context. I am anxious that I could not speak Mongolian fluently someday... (Student Hasen)*

Hasen confirmed that her beliefs about the bilingual family language context was her reason for speaking Mongolian mixed with Chinese words, which she further defined as 'non-standard Mongolian' expression. Similarly to Chagan, fluent Mongolian language use was perceived in terms of the use of authentic Mongolian without Chinese loanwords. However, the language position of Chinese, which she seemed to regard as the main language based on her current language context, added to the challenge of learning fluent Mongolian.

Based on the findings, the students' beliefs about the criteria of a successful Mongolian learner involved adopting different Mongolian usage habits originating from different regions and acquiring authentic Mongolian usage in contrast to the current language context in which Chinese was mainly used.

(3)Views of an ideal successful Mongolian learner in relation to further expectations

Other criteria of an ideal successful Mongolian learner which emerged were the student participants' higher expectations for Mongolian usage in the traditional sense, when compared with their current Mongolian proficiency. As Batu noted:

> *… I quite envy ancient Mongolian writers sometimes; they could write in Mongolian to express their rich emotions …Thus, only if I could turn Mongolian into a kind of art to express my deep feelings, would I have a proficient mastery of Mongolian. (Student Batu)*

For Batu, the ideal outcome is to express his deep feeling and rich emotions in Mongolian.

Further, understanding the developmental history of the Mongolian language was also regarded as a criteria of depth of Mongolian language learning:

> *I feel a successful Mongolian learner should know the developmental history of the Mongolian language, which means that they have mastered the essence of the language. (Student Gegen)*

These two student participants' expectations of a successful Mongolian learner involved the concept of an advanced ability, which encompasses the transmission of emotions and a deep understanding of historical knowledge.

The students' beliefs about Mongolian learning indicated their confidence level in communication, worries about 'non-standard' expression using Chinese loanwords and expectations of further learning, which exceeded their practical Mongolian usage. From discussions of the challenges in becoming an ideal successful Mongolian learner, it became clear that language contact and language context underpin beliefs about their Mongolian competence.

7.3.2 Students' beliefs about the ideal successful Chinese learner

Student participants articulated three distinct standards of an ideal successful Chinese language learner. These beliefs emerged in their language contact and context and referred to Chinese usage, instrumental motivations of Chinese learning, and understanding of Chinese history and culture.

(1)Standard of accurate Chinese usage in communication and pronunciation

According to findings, all student participants had long-term Chinese learning experience before entering university, and this experience provided an advantage when communicating with Han people. "I started learning Chinese from primary school … I am fine with Chinese listening, reading, and writing …" (Student Aruna). However, whether from western or eastern Inner Mongolia, student participants' belief about the most important measurement of ideal successful Chinese learner centered around the need to have an accurate Chinese expression and accent. From western student participants' responses, the language habit of using Mongolian rules in Chinese communication was considered the reason for their falling short of this ideal standard:

> *… My Chinese proficiency was improved a lot after living in Tongliao city. There are more Han people … I need to speak Chinese all the time … being a successful Chinese speaker … would make the interaction with the Han goes more smoothly... I always use Mongolian thinking and speaking methods to present my Chinese ideas … my Han friends have to guess the meaning of my Chinese expressions sometimes ... (Student Jirentai)*

Both Aruna and Jirentai, who originated from the western part of Inner Mongolia, confirmed that their language habits did not change with the change of language context. Similar to the western student participants, the eastern student participants also expressed an ideal of a successful Chinese learner, namely one who achieved accurate Chinese communication as a priority. As Daerhan and Fuyire noted:

> *… I am a local person … I hope … to achieve correct and proper expression with Han people. (Student*

Daerhan)

I came from Tongliao … I … make some mistakes in the expression. (Student Fuyire)

Furthermore, acquiring accurate pronunciation was the other expectation of their Chinese learning. The student participants realised that their Mongolian pronunciation interfered to their accent when speaking Chinese, which frustrated their expectation to acquire similar Chinese pronunciation to the Han people:

… I have been studying Chinese since the first grade of elementary school … but I have to improve my Chinese pronunciation because … I pronounce Chinese with a Mongolian accent … To have a good Chinese level is to make the Han people around me unable to realise I am a Mongolian from my Chinese pronunciation. (Student Chagan)

The language comparison between Mongolian and Chinese in students' belief of an ideal language usage standard is seen in negative terms, in the sense that Mongolian is seen to negatively affect their Chinese pronunciation and expression. Although one participant stated that "*passing the Chinese examination is not the way to be a successful Chinese learner"* (Student Jirentai), for the remaining student participants, the instrumental motivation of Chinese learning was another ideal measure of success.

(2)Standard of achieving instrumental motivations of Chinese learning

In the findings, Batu, Hasen, and Iyan make frequent mention to a Putonghua Standard Test at Class Two advanced level certificate, believing the achievement of the instrumental requirement to be symbolic of the ideal successful Chinese learner. These beliefs were clearly explained in their discussions about how they might meet the requirements for graduation and employment:

…it will be pretty good if I could … pass the Putonghua Standard Test at Class Two advanced level … It is also a requirement for my major on graduation… and Chinese is the main language we're going

to use in the future. (Student Batu)

Similarly, Iyan also confirmed that the ideal measure of successful Chinese learning was increased employment opportunities in the Chinese context:

… the qualification of a teacher requires candidates to have obtained the teaching certification and the Putonghua Standard Test certification … . (Student Iyan)

(3)Standard of understanding Chinese history and culture

As with the expected further language ability of the ideal successful Mongolian learners, student participants' beliefs about ideal successful Chinese learning also involved understanding the emotions and deeper meaning behind sentences from Chinese history and cultural sources:

… A successful Chinese learner would achieve a deep understanding of Chinese through traditional Chinese poetry … exploring Chinese history and culture … means to master it truly. (Student Gegen)

The students' beliefs about the three standards of ideal successful Chinese learning indicated their worries about Chinese expression and accent, Chinese instrumental exams, and even Chinese history and cultural knowledge. However, their long-term learning experiences made them believe the language position of Chinese to be equal to Mongolian. Further, the challenge for them in identifying reasons for their beliefs about the issues with which students were confronted may be explained as the result of language transfer between Chinese and Mongolian, whereby Mongolian language habits negatively impacted on their Chinese skills.

7.3.3 Students' beliefs about the ideal successful Japanese learner

Nine out of ten student participants were aware of an ideal successful Japanese learner after two years' learning in university, and readily identified their expectations of language skill acquisition, cultural understanding, and instrumental motivation from

their learning experience in university and classroom contexts.

(1) Standard of basic skills in communication and understanding

In distinction from the ideal of effective communication in Mongolian and Chinese, the student participants' beliefs about Japanese learning were underpinned by their desire to achieve basic, daily communicative conversational competence. According to their responses, the reason for this lower learning expectation seemed to relate to the short period in which they had been studying Japanese, compared to the other two languages, as noted in interview:

> *…not like Mongolian and Chinese, it would be enough for us to master the basic regular expressions of Japanese… Since I have only learned Japanese for less than a year… after two years' Japanese study. (Student Batu)*

Similar beliefs were expressed by other students, namely, that the two-year duration of the Japanese course and their Japanese beginner identity were the reasons for restricting their ideal of Japanese learning to acquiring basic communication skills:

> *… I am only learning Japanese for two years. The requirement is enough if I could achieve a Japanese ability of basic communication … since I am a Japanese beginner. (Student Daerhan)*

Further, another standard seemed to be that of improving the accuracy of Japanese understanding independently without Chinese support:

> *…understand the key meanings in Japanese … without Chinese subtitles … accurately without misunderstanding is good enough for me to be successful Japanese learner. (Student Eshun)*

Similarly also expected to understand Japanese independently:

> *It would be good enough if I ... understand some Japanese articles independently. (Student Fuyire)*

(2) Standard of understanding of Japanese culture

Besides the acquisition of Japanese language skill and ability, the standard for becoming an ideal successful Japanese learner, as identified in students' accounts, was to acquire Japanese cultural knowledge. Knowledge of Japanese culture was seen as advantageous to achieving accuracy and fluency in communication, and further, for acquiring the Japanese language more easily:

> *… acquire cultural knowledge of Japanese, to speak and express correctly and fluently… Only by understanding the background of language and cultural knowledge will … [a student] be best able to grasp the language. (Student Aruna)*

(3) Standard of achieving instrumental motivations of Japanese learning

The instrumental motivations of the ideal successful Japanese learner were frequently mentioned by student participants, which included studying in Japan, passing middle and final term examinations, and preparing for the postgraduate entrance exam. As Japanese beginners, these student participants expected to obtain advanced Japanese proficiency after two years' learning followed by continued learning in their academic life. The student participants confirmed that an ideal successful Japanese ability not only involved basic communication ability but also acquiring a Japanese accent, which would help them to pursue further study in Japan. Similar to their beliefs about the negative influence of Mongolian usage habits on the Chinese accent, it was felt that the students' Japanese accent was also affected by Mongolian. Further, understanding Japanese academic resources which related to their future major study was one of the instrumental motivations for student participants' Japanese learning:

> *… I am going to study in Japan, I expect simple communication with the Japanese people, I want to get closer to the Japanese accent … and I hope that they would not realise I am a Mongolian. I also want to read and understand some academic articles in Japanese, which relate to my major. (Student Gegen)*

Specifically, Hasen explained the different instrumental motivations for various standards in the different learning processes. For Hasen, passing the middle and final term examinations was believed to be sufficient to define successful Japanese ability with two years' learning experience at the undergraduate stage. However, two further Japanese exams, specifically, the postgraduate entrance exam and the Japanese Band Two college exam, representing advanced Japanese instrumental motivations were expected by Hasen as her future Japanese study goals:

> *A successful Japanese learner for me is just passing the middle and final term Japanese exams in MDU. And maybe I am going to prepare for the postgraduate entrance exam in foreign languages. If I were to pass that exam, I also want to take the exam of college Japanese band two. (Student Hasen)*

Students' beliefs about the ideal successful Japanese learner were divided into two different learning processes by their motivations for expected Japanese abilities. The first, based on the goal of their two years' learning experience at undergraduate stage, was described in terms of an expected standard for the Japanese beginner in that learning Japanese cultural knowledge would be easy to achieve with basic Japanese communication ability. The second process of future Japanese learning was described in terms of instrumental motivations to achieve a more advanced level of Japanese fluency. Regardless of process mentioned, the expected language skills needed to understand Japanese content directly without Chinese support and acquisition of a Japanese accent seemed to be negatively influenced by their language comparisons between Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese. In the following subsection, some of the ways in which improvement of expected Japanese abilities was constructed as an ideal successful trilingual learner are examined in more detail.

7.3.4 Students' beliefs about ideal successful trilingual learner

The language skills involved in the communication all the three languages' usage as a standard for the ideal trilingual learner were frequently talked about by the seven out

of ten students. Two factors in particular were given, which affected their expected standard of the ideal successful trilingual learner.

Firstly, they confirmed that, in their view, insufficient classroom interaction was the main barrier to improving their Japanese communication ability. This belief seemed to emerge from their previous English and current Japanese learning experiences:

> *I have been learning English before I chose to learn Japanese in MDU … whatever foreign language we are learning … we barely participate in classroom interaction … so it is difficult for us to improve our language ability of communication . (Student Chagan)*

> *We don't have any chance to communicate with teacher during the class time. (Student Daerhan)*

> *I think the communication time in English class is zero. (Student Batu)*

Furthermore, comparing the lack of Japanese language context with their sufficient Mongolian and Chinese language contexts, students perceived insufficient language contact with people from the target community as the second challenge to improving their Japanese communication skills:

> *… the most important standard of the good trilingual learner is to communicate with people who speak these languages … This is easy for me when learning Chinese and Mongolian. But it is quite hard when learning Japanese. We do not have any opportunity to make contact with the Japanese guys ... (Student Fuyire)*

Furthermore, their negative perception of the teaching context provides a reason for the challenge of improving their Japanese communication ability. However, students stated that initiating an increase in classroom interaction by the teacher could be a means of changing their beliefs:

… The teacher could create opportunities for classroom interactions, such as practicing some simple dialogues with role plays ... (Student Gegen)

One student held a positive belief in achieving Japanese communication skills due to her multilingual learning awareness and experience:

Communicating smoothly with the people in their language is a good way to show the successful language ability of a trilingual learner. I feel that I could achieve this goal because I have learned four languages already … (Student Aruna)

Although the students encountered challenges in becoming an ideal successful trilingual learner, they were still more concerned about their Japanese learning than the other two languages. The possibility of finding solutions to achieving higher level communication skills seemed consistent with their language actions on the suggestions for improving the Japanese course.

7.3.5 Teachers' beliefs about the ideal successful trilingual student

Compared to the student participants, the teacher participants did not propose many criteria for a successful trilingual student. In their accounts, the ability of smooth language transfer between Mongolian and Chinese was presented as the essential standard for the ideal successful multilingual Mongolian student:

… a proper language transfer between Mongolian and Chinese is an important criterion for a successful trilingual Mongolian student ... (Teacher Zhao)

Similar to student participants' responses, the teacher participants also noted that acquiring basic Japanese expression is the measure of success for a trilingual learner:

… and they should also master basic Japanese expressions at least. (Teacher Zhao)

… have to know the basic communication expression in Japanese. (Teacher Wang)

Another teacher stressed an ideal standard of Mongolian and Chinese usage for her students, confirming that students would not have any problems in their Mongolian usage due to the language position, however, Chinese spelling mistakes were found in some students work. Achieving accurate Chinese usage seems therefore a third success criteria of an ideal trilingual student:

… they do not have any problems with their first language. For Chinese … some make spelling mistakes. The basic requirements for them are to achieve correct spelling and common usage of Chinese. (Teacher Wang)

The fourth ideal success standard that emerged from teacher participants' beliefs, related to students' Japanese instrumental motivation in terms of passing two Japanese exams:

For Japanese, maybe just pass the exams, some good ones could pass the postgraduate entrance exams. (Teacher Wang)

The challenges of meeting the standard of ideal successful trilingual learner were recognised by the students as a contributory factor to their mistakes in trilingual learning. The students' views of the gap between their current language learning proficiency and their motivations are related to their negative perceptions of the Japanese classroom teaching context and their beliefs about language comparison among Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese. Specifically, three types of language contact between Mongolian and Chinese, Chinese and Japanese, and Mongolian and Japanese were mentioned to explain the influences of negative language transfer on language learning. In the following section, some of the common mistakes made during the three types of language contact impacting on each language learning situation will be examined in more detail.

7.4 Students' beliefs about Japanese learning errors

From student participants' responses, their errors in Japanese learning provide evidence of the negative influences of language transfer, caused by language comparisons between the three languages. It is claimed that usage of the kanji characters (the Japanese writing system using characters mainly derived from Chinese ideograms) seemed to negatively affect their Japanese skills in the areas of semantic understanding, vocabulary recognition, phonology, and orthography. These encounters with language contact tended to reinforce student participants' views of negative language transfer, which they sought to change and improve through the impact of teaching techniques and action from students' own learning methods.

7.4.1 Students' negative views of kanji characters usage

(1) Misunderstanding

Based on findings, all student participants' beliefs about the reason for Japanese errors related to the impact of their previous Chinese learning experience. In particular, students found it challenging to learn Japanese kanji. They claimed that the lexical and semantic meaning of the kanji characters in Chinese was deeply engraved on their minds, which, in turn, affected their semantic understanding in the Japanese learning context:

> *There are some Chinese characters which exist in the Japanese language, but they have totally different meanings in the two languages. And the pronunciation of Chinese words was changed in the usage in Japanese. For example, "跑" in Chinese means running, but it refers to walking or strolling in Japanese. I always make this kind of mistake when using Japanese. (Student Batu)*

Batu's response suggests that he recognised the kanji characters from the Chinese context, as demonstrated in the following *Figure 7.2*.

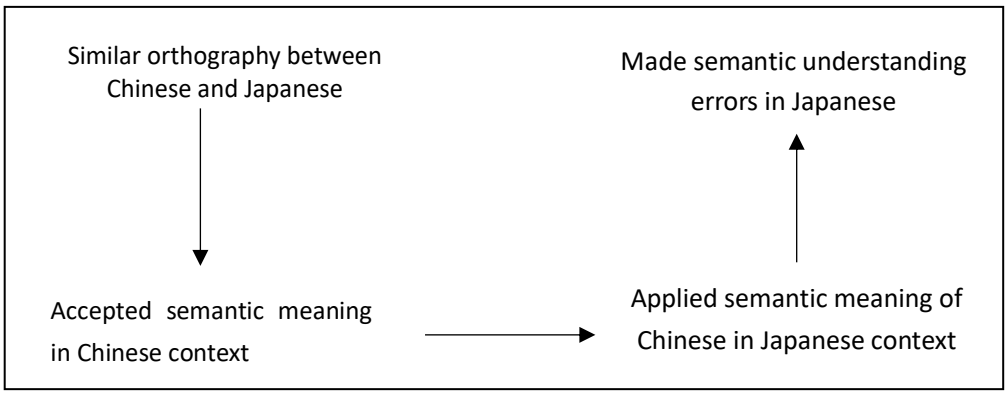


Figure7.2: The process of kanji errors in semantic understanding

From Batu's reflection on the usage of Chinese characters in the Japanese language, it is suggested that similar words in the two languages have similar orthographic forms but different semantic meanings. For Batu, the semantic meaning of kanji characters (cognates) tended to be carried over from Chinese to Japanese, representing the source of errors in Japanese, given that he could not understand the semantic meanings of Japanese vocabulary by referring to Chinese words accurately. The interference of Chinese meanings created a challenge of avoiding mistakes in the conceptual understanding of kanji characters in the Japanese context.

The impact of the different phonology of kanji characters further affected Batu's learning experience. The greater awareness of kanji characters rather than non-cognates occurred when seeing the Chinese and Japanese languages concurrently. This reflected her experience in handling the same situation when learning Chinese and Mongolian.

(2) Vocabulary recognition

Based on the findings, all ten student participants' understanding of Chinese usage suggested that it not only featured in their Japanese class as the main teaching language but also became their daily language outside of the university. The usage of Chinese in academic and social life seemed to improve the language position of Chinese, compared to Mongolian. Firstly, the imbalance of language position between

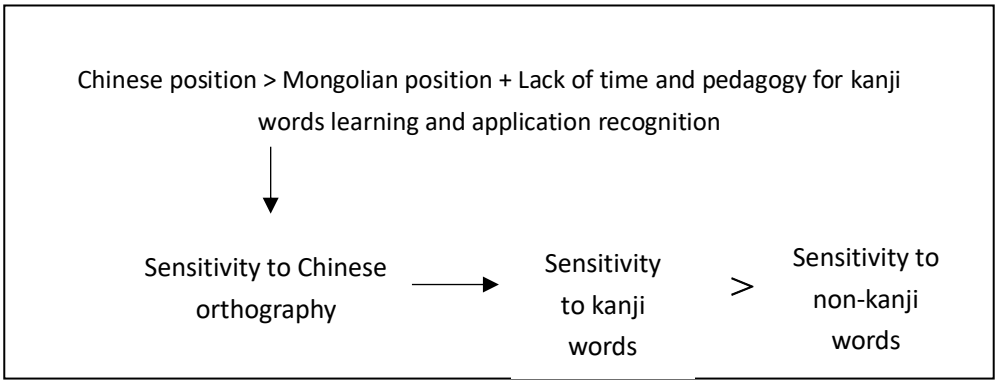
Chinese and Mongolian in actual language context appears to be one of the factors which made student participants more sensitive to Chinese words than Japanese ones, which then may have affected their perception when recognising the kanji characters:

> *… the Chinese characters are much bigger than the Mongolian on the billboards, which are found everywhere. Normally there are huge Chinese characters in the middle with a small Mongolian annotation to the side. The result of this usage situation makes us not pay more attention to Japanese characters; I just focus on the Chinese characters when seeing both languages. (Student Chagan)*

Secondly, from the above response, insufficient learning time beyond the classroom and difficulties maintaining attention in class are further reasons for her Japanese errors when recognising kanji characters:

> *Whether it is a traditional Chinese character or simplified Chinese I see in Japanese, the first idea that comes to my mind is its Chinese meaning rather than the meaning in Japanese. Japanese shares some similarities with Chinese… After considering the reasons for my usage mistakes in Japanese, I realised that I do not recite these kinds of words carefully. And also, I do not listen to the teacher's instruction carefully. (Student Chagan)*

Chagan's response seems to describe how she recognises the kanji characters in the



Chinese context, as demonstrated in the following *Figure 7.3*.

Figure 7.3: The process of sensitive cognition with kanji words

Chagan further noted that the teacher's vocabulary instruction was the main method she used to distinguish cognate and non-cognate word separately:

> *The teacher should explain the different meaning and pronunciation of Chinese characters in Japanese application to us during class hours ... (Student Chagan)*

From student participants' two main Japanese errors of misreading and misspelling, the parallel comparison of each language couplet (Mongolian vs Chinese; Chinese vs Mongolian) seemed to describe the situation of language contact, as discussed in the next section.

(3) Misreading

According to three student participants, their long-term learning experience of Chinese pronunciation of kanji made it challenging to read the kanji characters accurately in a Japanese context. This language habit seemed to cause the student participants to use Chinese pronunciation when encountering kanji in the Japanese context:

> *… I have read and understood those Chinese words from childhood, and we have used them in the everyday language before learning Japanese. But it is quite different when we pronounce them in Japanese, I always pronounce in the Chinese way, so my Japanese pronunciation accuracy is affected by this problem ... (Student Aruna)*

Similarly, Eshun confirmed that the long-term Chinese learning experience was the reason for her Japanese errors in the pronunciation of kanji characters. However, her Chinese learning experience of the orthography of simplified Chinese created another challenge in terms of understanding the semantic meaning of traditional Chinese when encountering kanji characters:

> *… I could not pronounce the Japanese words with Chinese characters … Another… mistakes when translating Japanese sentences with traditional Chinese characters … I have been using simplified*

Chinese characters since childhood, so it is understandable that there are certain traditional Chinese characters I could not understand sometimes. (Student Eshun)

Aruna and Eshun's responses describe how they read the kanji characters and the main language error they experienced in Chinese and Japanese contexts, as demonstrated in the following *Figure 7.4*.

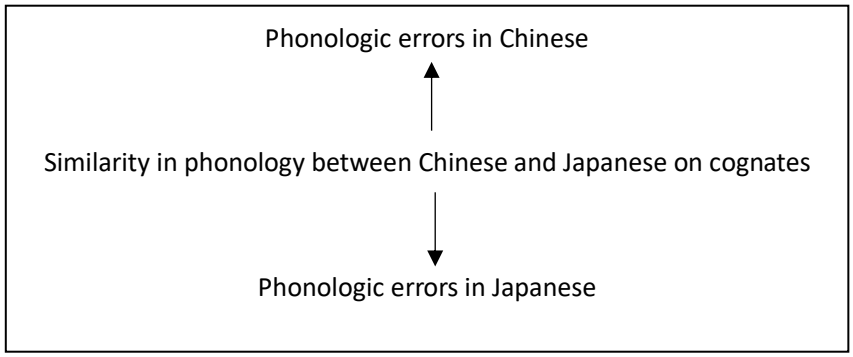


Figure.7.4: The process of phonological errors in using kanji characters

Student participants' expectation of improvement in Japanese phonology and changing this belief seemed to rely on their own learning methods, which involved memorising the different semantic meanings and pronunciations of the kanji characters in Chinese and Japanese contexts independently:

… We should learn those words deliberately. (Student Aruna)

The usefulness of this learning method was further supported by Daerhan, who claims that it improved his ability to understand kanji characters semantically in the Japanese learning context and his confidence in recognizing these words:

…I feel those Japanese words with Chinese characters were not a big deal … Though the Japanese meaning of these Chinese characters differs from the original [Chinese] meaning, I hardly make any mistake with this kind of words by deliberately distinguishing these special Japanese words. (Student Daerhan)

Based on these findings, the negative influences of the kanji characters affected some student participants' phonology in Japanese, and further, their phonological and semantic referents in Chinese were affected by different Chinese orthographic forms. However, the specific differences in written forms could be used to draw attention to students' orthographic mistakes when using cognates.

(4) Misspelling

In four student participants' responses, the different orthography of Chinese not only affected the students' semantic understanding but also their spelling. The simplified Chinese characters with fewer strokes seemed much easier for the students than spelling using more complex traditional Chinese characters. As Jirentai noted in the interview:

> *… there are too many spelling strokes in traditional Chinese characters … I watched a lot of Cantonese movies and listened to so many Cantonese songs, the subtitle of these entertainment activities is in traditional Chinese characters. So I have an impression of the meaning of them more or less … if we could pay particular attention to reciting these words, it would be good to use them in the right way*. (Student Jirentai)

For Jirentai, previous experience of traditional Chinese input was through Cantonese entertainment sources that appear to have had a positive impact on understanding of kanji characters. She also confirmed the expected useful effect of improved orthographic skills with Japanese kanji characters and seemed to recognise cognates individually with more sensitivity and attention. The orthographic errors in using cognates seemed to be a common mistake in Japanese learning frequently referred to by other student participants:

> *I cannot spell correctly about traditional Chinese characters in kanji words. (Student Batu).*

> *It is quite difficult for me to write the traditional l Chinese characters correctly. (Student Chagan).*

Students' Japanese errors were discussed in terms of students' beliefs about the usage of kanji characters, which existed in the language comparisons between Mongolian and Chinese, Chinese and Japanese, and the different orthography of simplified and traditional Chinese. The students' Japanese learning was affected by their learning habits through the application of the semantic, phonological, orthographic and sensitive attention to kanji characters in the Japanese context. Their errors in cognates usage led to language transfer which affected students' lexical and conceptual knowledge of the target language, and further, was considered to exacerbate levels of difficulty that existed in the language context, where Chinese usage was far more common than Japanese. The reasons for these learning errors noted in student responses seemed to indicate negative language transfer from the more familiar language. Furthermore, the students explained the actual situation of language transfer between the three languages in their Japanese learning experiences when participating in communication tasks in class.

7.4.2 Language comparisons between three languages in Japanese translation

The students' beliefs regarding language comparisons between Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese were surprisingly raised by all ten student participants in relation to Japanese translation. In this section, the main responses of student participants will be explored to illustrate the reasons for translation errors and further, the role of each language in their use different sets of translation steps.

Based on the findings, **four** different steps in the awareness of translation with these three languages emerged from the student participants' different experiences of language transfer task when answering the teacher's Japanese questions in class. Patterns using from one to four translation steps to participate in the activities in classroom interaction were identified. The different translation step used by them were based on the similarity of their language proficiency and position between Mongolian and Chinese, and their low Japanese proficiency.

(1) Students' interpretations and implementations of four steps' translation (L3-L2-L1-L2-L3)

In order to understand Japanese, three student participants used four steps to complete the whole translation procedure from Japanese via Chinese and Mongolian, and ending with Japanese. Their responses to the role of each language at each different stage are demonstrated in *Figure 7.5* below.

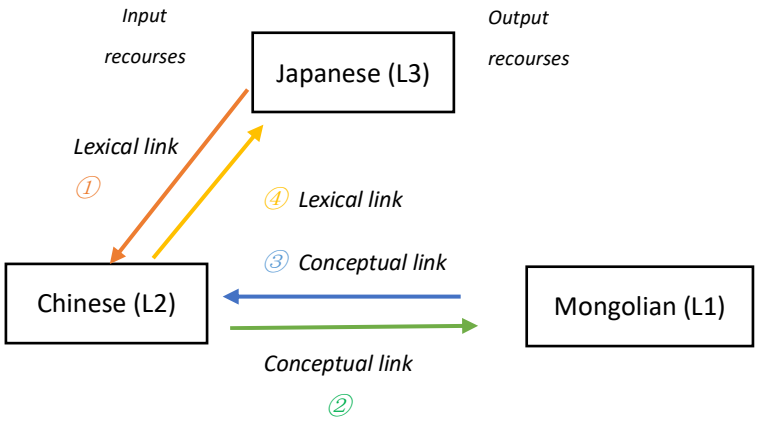


Figure.7.5: The four-step model of trilingual translation process

1) In the first step, the language input was in Japanese, with Chinese used to provide an understanding of the semantics of the teacher's Japanese questions during the first lexical translation from Japanese to Chinese.

2) In the second translation from Chinese to Mongolian, Chinese was used as the supporting language to further understanding the meaning and increase access to the questions, thereafter, Mongolian was used to help the student to consider the questions conceptually and prepare the answers.

3) In the third translation step, Mongolian as the language used to complete answers, prepares the clarity of Chinese translation conceptually.

4) In the fourth and final translation step from Chinese back to Japanese, the students

used Chinese to prepare the final answers and overcome the correct Japanese lexical outputs.

As one student participant explained in interview:

> *First, … translate teachers' Japanese question into Chinese so that I will know the meaning of this question in Mongolian, and then come up with the answer by using Mongolian to think. I would translate the answer into Chinese and then translate into Japanese to answer the question. (Student Aruna)*

The main reason for following the four steps in Japanese translation seemed to emerge from the function of Chinese. As the main language of teaching, Chinese was used unconsciously to interpret semantic understanding of the teacher's Japanese questions. This occurred instead of a translation directly from Japanese to Mongolian. According to student participants' responses, the similar language proficiency and language position between Mongolian and Chinese were other reasons for taking four translation steps:

> *… our teacher would use Chinese to remind us about the knowledge points which related to the Japanese question he taught … I would definitely use Chinese to translate the Japanese questions first …since my Mongolian level is almost the same as my Chinese level. When I am doing Chinese translation, the sentences come into Mongolian at the same time. Both Chinese and Mongolian translations are the same to me... (Student Fuyire)*

Some student participants also suggested that the imbalance of language proficiency between Chinese and Mongolian was the reason for students using Chinese to complete the whole translation procedure without Mongolian given their language proficiency in Chinese was higher than that of Mongolian:

> *Perhaps some students have higher Chinese level than Mongolian level, so they only use Chinese while translating and thinking…(Student Iyan)*

This assumption of two translation steps seemed to be real and to exist in the other student participants' translation procedure, the reasons for which are discussed in subsection 3.

(2)Students' interpretations and implementations of three steps' translation (L3-L2+L1-L2-L3)

Based on the findings, two students identified as using three steps to perform Japanese translation. Rather from the four-step approach taken by some others, the translation procedure with three steps seemed to pass from Japanese to mixed-language expression (Chinese and Mongolian), to Chinese and finally back to Japanese. As one student explained:

> *… I would translate Japanese into Chinese … but not a complete Chinese sentence, a sentence mixed with some Mongolian words … this situation would probably happen when I am thinking about the answers. In the end, I would put these words together and form a complete sentence in Chinese, and then translate this sentence into Japanese. (Student Eshun)*

Batu used the same three-step translation procedure as Eshun, with the difference being that Eshun emphasised the role of 'mixed language' usage. For Fuyire, the mixed language was valued as a preparation for consideration of the questions in Chinese. However, Batu used a mixed language of Chinese and Mongolian to consider the questions semantically, and then chose to use the completed Chinese expression as preparation for the final translation of the answers into Japanese. As Batu explained:

> *… my procedure is Chinese goes first, followed by Mongolian. … some Mongolian words would appear in my mind when I am considering the answers in Chinese … not translate … into Mongolian completely … just a few words... (Student Batu)*

Due to the language of used in the teacher's questions and textbooks, and student

participants' language habit of using Mongolian and Chinese, thus, they tended to translate Japanese content initially into this 'mixed language':

> *Because the teacher asks the questions in Chinese and the main language of our textbook is also Chinese … when I am speaking Mongolian, I always mix some Chinese words in it… (Student Eshun)*

These students referred to the language contact between the three languages using a three-step translation process as a more practical approach, which seemed to reduce the position and usage of Mongolian in Japanese learning. Few Mongolian words appeared in the students' language habit, and these were used to aid them supportively in understanding Japanese meanings or simply to prepare the completed ideas in Chinese. The case of some students' translation procedure without any Mongolian will be further explored in the following subsection.

(3) Students' Interpretation and implementation of two-step translation (L3-L2-L3)

Five student participants were found to use only two translation steps for answering the teacher's Japanese questions. In the first translation step, the student participants translated the content of Japanese questions into Chinese, which was conceptually mediated by connections with the manner of use. Then, Chinese was lexically mediated to present the answer that would be translated into Japanese as the language of output for answering the teacher's questions in the second translation step. As explained by one participant in the interview:

> *I would translate the teacher's Japanese question into Chinese for understanding and consideration. And then I would translate my Chinese answer into Japanese to answer the question … (Student Chagan)*

Based on these student participants' responses, the role of each language in this translation procedure is quite similar to the previous two translation procedures, however, two main reasons given for taking two steps to complete their Japanese

translation, were quite different from the previous two cases.

a) Reducing translation error and saving time

Some student participants claimed that their semantic understanding of Japanese content necessitated using Mongolian as an intermediary language. However, the advantages of a two-step translation procedure included saving time and avoiding mistakes. Students who used two steps believed that language contact time was the initial reason for negative influences of language transfer, namely, the more language contacts, the more mistakes they would make in the practical translation procedure. As Daerhan clarified:

> *…For me, it is too much trouble to translate Chinese into Mongolian for thinking. Maybe someone would prefer to use their first language for thinking out the answer because they believe that the answer might be more correct if they use their native language. However, I think the more translation procedures we do, the more translation mistakes we make. If I could translate completely using only two languages, I would probably save time and avoid mistakes*. (Student Chagan)

Such beliefs about the translation procedure seemed to relate to the students' awareness of negative language transfer in respect of contact among three languages. The specific translation errors they experienced will be discussed in section 6.7. The usage of Chinese as the teaching language seems to provide the second reason for some students' completing Japanese translation without Mongolian support.

b) Suitability for use as the main teaching language

Based on these findings, another reason for Chinese-to-Japanese translation without Mongolian related to the arrangement of the teaching language in the Japanese class. The increase in the proportion of teaching language with more Chinese used in the second year seemed to unconsciously influence the student participants to process the answers to the teacher's questions in Chinese. Some student participants also claimed another reason for the adoption of a two-step process was the teacher's

instruction that speaking Mongolian was forbidden in Japanese class. As Daerhan noted:

> *In Japanese class, the teacher asks us not to speak Mongolian. What's more, the teacher keeps on talking throughout the whole class, and he uses Chinese and Japanese in a mixed way although Chinese occupies a greater proportion. So I will not use Mongolian in class. I also think in Chinese and then answer the question in Japanese without thinking of Mongolian. Maybe this is a result of the language environment. (Student Daerhan)*

Regarding some students' perceptions of language usage in relation to communication interaction in a classroom context, it seems that Mongolian is never used in Japanese classes. The second reason for taking two translation steps seems to come from the students' negative perception of the teaching techniques in the classroom context, however, the content of the teacher's Japanese questions also led some students to use one-step responses.

(4) Students' Interpretation and implementation of one-step response (L3- L3)

From student participant responses, the difficulty of Japanese questions seemed to relate to the number of translation steps. One student discussed their response to a particular type of 'simple' question which required a one or two word response and remarked on the reason for taking one step only (i.e. responding to Japanese in Japanese, without translating into either Chinese or Mongolian):

> *If the teacher asks simple questions in Japanese, such as the questions like "How is the weather today?", I would answer it by "Good" or "Bad" in Japanese. Maybe this type of question was framed by my sense for answering them in Japanese. I would consider and answer them in Japanese. It just needs one or two Japanese words to cover it ... (Student Jirentai)*

For Jirentai, language position and language proficiency seemed not to affect her response in the case of simple questions.

However, the other nine student participants related the steps used in translation and response to language proficiency, language position, language transfer and teaching contexts, as demonstrated in *Figure 7.6*.

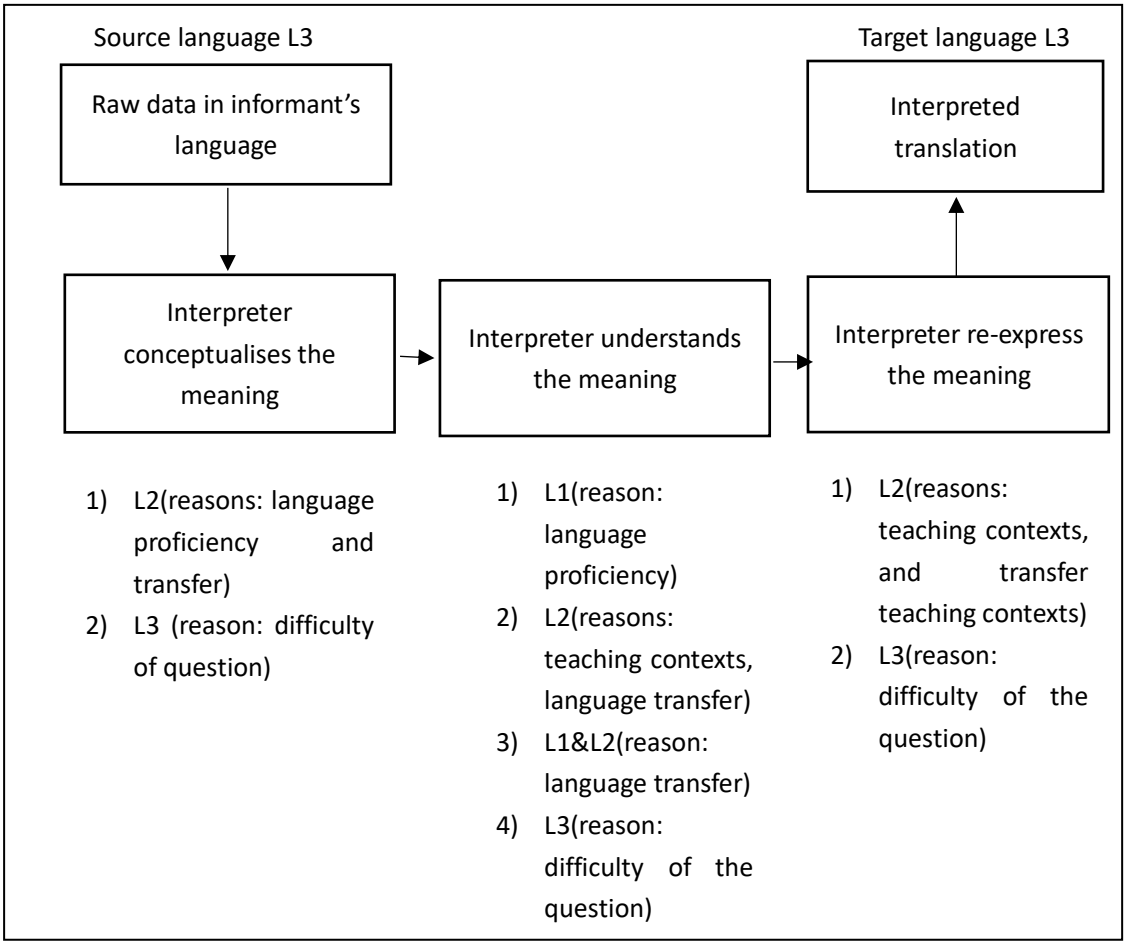


Figure7.6: The translation process of cross languages interpretation

Note: L1 represents Mongolian, L2 represents Chinese, and L3 represents Japanese

The role of each language in each translation step is explained in *Figure 7.6*. However, the selection of the same language in each step may occur for different reasons. The language and content of each particular communication task provided opportunities and conditions for students' language comparisons between Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese, resulting in the students' different selected translation sequences related to their different perceptions of classroom contexts, the different roles, reasons and proficiency of each language used, namely, the working mechanisms of students'

language comparisons. The effects of the similarities and differences between the three languages were apparent from the students' beliefs about the influences of the other languages on their Japanese learning.

7.5 The influences of language comparisons in relation to language learning

In the Japanese translation procedure, the two language comparison modes between Mongolian and Chinese, and Chinese and Japanese were described by the student participants. However, the language comparison mode between Mongolian and Japanese was not used for their Japanese translation. It seemed therefore that translation errors probably arose from the first two language comparison modes.

The student participants were aware of the two necessary conditions for language transfer, which identified contrasts in their learning experience of the three languages. The first condition was provided by contact between two languages. Further, similarities or differences existed between the two languages.

Based on the student participants' beliefs, they confirmed that negative transfer was a cause of usage errors in one of the languages (Japanese), as a result of similarities or differences in the phonology, word order and character form of the two languages (usually Chinese), which unfavourably affected language learning. However, this kind of language comparison conversely represented a favourable factor for language learning, which was considered as positive language transfer by some student participants. Furthermore, two student participants believed that their Japanese class would not affect the positive or negative language transfer among these three languages.

7.5.1 Students' beliefs on negative influences of word order

From the student participants' beliefs about the different word order, differences in grammar and syntax of Mongolian and Chinese, and also between Chinese and Japanese, sometimes caused language mistakes in Chinese expression and in Japanese

translation and listening.

(1) The different word order between Mongolian and Chinese

Based on the student participants' experience of the effects of different word order in Mongolian and Chinese, the errors of Chinese expression usually involve deploying a Mongolian word order in the Chinese language context. However, this language habit of inaccurate Chinese expression did not reduce communication accuracy in the Chinese context, as one interviewee explained:

> *…Is a difference in word order between Mongolian and Chinese, and my Chinese expression is affected …The Han people probably know that I am Mongolian from my Chinese expressions with disordered word order. However, they would understand the meaning of my Chinese speech... (Student Chagan)*

(2) The differences in word order of Chinese and Japanese.

In contrast, the student participants suggested that the differences in word order between Chinese and Japanese (which sometimes use reverse word order) reduced the accuracy of their Japanese translation and listening abilities. This negative language transfer seemed to be affected by the large proportion of Chinese usage in the language of instruction, which may have led student participants to follow the Chinese word order in Japanese usage. However, they also suggested another reason for negative language transfer, namely, insufficient learning time after class:

> *… Chinese and Japanese have a different word order system. In Japanese class, I have got used to understanding the contents in Chinese, and the nearly opposite word order between Chinese and Japanese, which caused some mistakes in Japanese translation and listening … The reason for this problem is that I have not yet spent enough time in learning Japanese. … (Student Daerhan)*

Similarly, Fuyire also confirmed the influence of negative language transfer on Japanese translation and listening. However, Fuyire suggested a third reason for errors

in word order when translating between Chinese and Japanese, caused by the previous experience of differences in word order between Mongolian and Chinese. Previous mistakes in word order in a Chinese language learning context seemed to make her recognise the similarities in word order between Mongolian and Japanese:

> *…listening … translation … another reason for my mistakes is the different word order between Chinese and Japanese … due to my mistakes in word order when doing the translation from Mongolian to Chinese…(Student Fuyire)*

Despite this difficulty, some student participants confirmed that similarities between Mongolian and Japanese word order were an advantage in contact with these two languages. However, this advantage was reduced in effectiveness as the class was taught in Chinese. As two interviewees explained:

> *Mongolian and Chinese have different or opposite word order in their grammars. And, Chinese has differences with Japanese in word order, so the Japanese word order is similar to Mongolian. (Student Aruna)*

> *… The word order between Japanese and Mongolian are quite similar, but I have to learn Japanese through Chinese … (Student Fuyire)*

Based on the previous discussion of the position and function of Chinese usage in the Japanese class, which prevented the student participants from learning Japanese using Mongolian directly, these responses suggest that similarities between Mongolian and Japanese were of limited benefit.

Both Daerhan and Fuyire confirmed their feelings when receiving feedback on mistakes in their Chinese word ordering from Han people: *"Han people probably know my word order mistakes" (Student Daerhan),* however, where did the student participants get the feedback on their Japanese errors? The findings herein suggest

that the student participants' beliefs about Japanese word order mistakes emerged from the comparison between the standard answers from the teacher and the student's own translations:

> *Sometimes, the teacher would write down a complete Japanese sentence on the blackboard and require me to translate it into Chinese … I realised the mistake of my translation is the improper word order after the teacher revealed the answers. (Student Gegen)*

According to students' beliefs, the three impacts of negative language transfer on word order errors were the differences in word order between Mongolian and Chinese, between their Chinese and Japanese learning experiences, and others' feedback. The negative influence of Chinese word order affected translation and listening in Japanese. The different usage of cognates in different language contexts also affected the students' language learning.

7.5.2 Students' beliefs about the negative influences of kanji characters

The negative influence of differences in the meanings of kanji characters between Chinese and Japanese as regards students' understanding, reading and spelling in Japanese have been discussed above. However, some students further suggested that this kind of problem with cognate words also affected other errors in Japanese learning:

> *My Japanese learning was affected by the original Chinese meaning of the Japanese words with Chinese characters, and also my Japanese learning mistakes.* (Student Hasen)

According to the student participants' responses, the misuse of kanji characters usage in the Japanese context was the result of the negative influence of borrowed words from Chinese. The similarity of the font style, and the differences in meaning, spelling, and pronunciation when the same character is applied in different languages seemed to affect the student participants' usage of kanji in a Japanese context. As two student participants stated:

The mistake of misunderstanding the Japanese words with Chinese characters … affects my Japanese accuracy in translation. (Student Eshun)

... The changes of Chinese characters into different types of words in Japanese which are quite different, such as their pronunciation, spelling, and meaning … I get spelling problems … pronunciation problems. (Student Gegen)

Similar to student participants, the teacher participants' views also confirmed the negative influence of kanji, which reduced students' translation accuracy from Chinese to Japanese:

There are some similar writing characters between Chinese and Japanese. Sometimes, the students would carry the Chinese meaning of kanji into their Japanese translation directly. (Teacher Zhao)

From students' description of their Chinese language usage habit when using kanji characters, the Japanese borrowing and alteration of these characters negatively affected their Japanese learning. The similarities and differences between the three languages in word order and cognates contributed to the students' beliefs about language transfer. However, the results of language contact also brought about positive influences on their Japanese learning.

7.5.3 Students' beliefs about positive influences of pronunciation and word order

Students' language comparisons on the similarity of pronunciation and word order between Mongolian and Japanese were regarded as positive language transfer influence on Japanese learning.

(1) Similarity in pronunciation of Mongolian and Japanese

The similarity between Mongolian and Japanese was discussed by the student participants in relation to intonation and was regarded as an advantage in learning

Japanese pronunciation.

> *The similarities of pronunciation and intonation between Japanese and Mongolian can be an advantage for the students who master fluent Mongolian. (Student Eshun)*

However, one teacher participant held an opposing view of students' Japanese pronunciation. Based on his teaching experience, the students still made Japanese intonation mistakes with long and promoted tones, as one teacher reported:

> *They always make Japanese pronunciation mistakes on long and promoted tones. (Teacher Sun)*

Sun did not see his students' Mongolian background as an advantage to their Japanese. Instead he referred to his teaching experience and belief about the students' Japanese intonation mistakes with long and promoted tones.

(2) Similarity in word order between Mongolian and Japanese

Based on these findings, the similarity in word order between Mongolian and Japanese seems a second advantage, which provided a greater chance of effective adjustment for the student participants, but further, led to translation mistakes in word order between Chinese and Japanese.

> *… Mongolian helps me in learning Japanese when it comes to word order. Sometimes, I do not understand Japanese sentences by thinking in Chinese, but if I switch it to the Mongolian pattern of thinking, I figure it out quickly. This is quite helpful when I am doing translation exercises.* (Student Iyan)

The data presented the usage habit of Chinese word order and kanji in a Japanese context as the main reasons for students' belief in negative language transfer. In students' Japanese translation experience, the accuracy of Japanese translation was negatively affected by the different word order of Chinese and Japanese, however,

conversely, the similarity between Mongolian and Japanese word order seemed to help the student use the latter to reconsider Japanese questions and avoid misunderstandings.

In addition, the student participants who used the four-step process, recounted a scenario which involved negative language transfer factors in all steps. The content of the teacher's Japanese questions with kanji characters seemed to provide the condition for all negative influences on Japanese learning. They further mentioned that negative language transfer would occur in each translation step. As one participant explained:

> *If the teacher asks us a question in Japanese and the question involves Chinese characters, the situation of mutual influence among three languages will occur. I would first translate the teacher's Japanese question into Chinese, which may lead to mistakes of improper word order and mispronunciation. Then I would think about the question by translating Chinese into Mongolian, which may result in a mistake in word order (Student Aruna).*

7.5.4 Students' beliefs about language transfer

Compared with the eight other student participants who directly indicated ways in which the advantages and disadvantages of their Japanese learning were promoted or affected by positive or negative language transfer, Batu and Jirentai clearly showed their knowledge of the similarities and differences between Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese. They even attributed the errors to the situation of language contact. However, their beliefs about Japanese learning were not affected by these negative influences.

According to interviewees, two possible language pairings (Mongolian and Japanese, Mongolian and Chinese) were treated in the language learning system separately, and thus, these pairings could not realise any negative influences of language transfer. The only condition of negative transfer involving these pairings probably occurred in

translation involving all three languages, which broke the boundaries of the two different language pairs. However, the clear understanding of the positive and negative influences of language transfer derived from the previous experiences of learning Mongolian and Chinese increased the student participants' confidence in dealing with Japanese errors. As Batu stated:

> *I divided these three languages into two different groups. Mongolian and Japanese are in a group while the Chinese and Mongolian are in another group. It means that the three languages would not interfere with each other. I only get some problems and mistakes when I am doing translation between the different language groups. But I do not believe these mistakes are a big deal. I know the similarity and difference of these languages, I can handle it*. (Student Batu)

Jirentai also agreed that errors in word order in Japanese translation were unavoidable between Chinese and Japanese. However, the long-term multilingual learning experience seemed to increase her confidence to resolve this issue over time:

> *… when I am translating Japanese into Chinese or Chinese into Japanese, I will make some mistakes in word order … this type of mistake is unavoidable. After all, we have learned so many languages already ... Actually, I pay more attention to these mistakes when I encounter them. (Student Jirentai)*

It is clear from the data presented in this chapter that the students' beliefs about the implementation of FLPLP derive partly from their own language learning experiences. Students all, on the one hand, held beliefs toward language transfer via their responses to Japanese learning methods, difficulties, expected ability in the three languages and language errors. On the other hand, they gave reasons for their beliefs, which they suggested were caused by the language learning value and proficiency, negative perceptions of the teaching context of the classroom, instrumental learning motivations, and language comparisons between Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese, which were associated with their prior experience of Mongolian, Chinese and English learning and their current Japanese learning experience.

The students' beliefs about the FLPLP enactment of 'choosing one from three foreign languages' in the university context, seem to derive from the students' disaffection with the classroom context and the failure of language transfer. Firstly, Japanese learning difficulties were more commonly explained by the students in terms of frustrations with their expectations, such as inadequate Japanese language context. Furthermore, the criteria by which students defined an ideal successful trilingual learner were often linked to the students' expectations regarding specific language abilities and skills, meaning their aspirations for Japanese learning were significantly lower than those for Chinese and Mongolian. Finally, the individual level of language mistakes due to language comparison and contact were affected by the gap between students' current and expected language proficiency and contributed to students' perceptions of language learning motivations. Mistakes generally arose from transfers between Chinese and Japanese, particularly word order and meanings of kanji.

7. 6 Summary of key themes for discussion

The themes explored in the three findings chapters and the features of the 16 participants' interviews provide the data analysis from which the research questions will be addressed. Several interlinked themes have been highlighted that show how students, teachers, and administrators' responses to a foreign language policy and language planning implementation from the university to classroom and self-learning contexts were affected by attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs associated with their prior experiences of language learning at school and by their transition into a contrasting university context.

Students' attitudes and emotions, often contented and linked to the prior experience of failure and disaffection with English learning at school, affected their initial responses and their decision to learn Japanese at university. Low levels of self-efficacy and achievement in pre-university English language courses were common, and some students adopted patterns of avoidance behaviour once in the university rather than

attempting to re-engage with the English language. The university level of FLPLP implementation with relative freedom to choose one from three foreign languages, contributed to students' attitudes and choice to learn Japanese instead of English, a choice facilitated by national and university policy. For multilingual students' cause-effect sequence of language cognition and action, attitudes to FLPLP became more positive in the university context at an early stage as the policy took into account their instrumental motivations for language acquisition; the possibility of positive language transfer in the process of cross-language learning, and consideration of their previous foreign language proficiency also stimulated their language behaviour.

In the policy implementation at classroom level, the teaching approaches and techniques can be regarded as forms of pedagogical agency which impact on how students understand and make sense of themselves, their own learning and teachers' behaviours in the classroom context, but which may also be actively interpreted through students' judgments, behaviours, and assumptions regarding the practical implications of the textbook, teaching language, and classroom interaction. In many cases, this interpretive framework emerged from prior and current foreign language learning experiences. Students' negative perception of the teaching context were based on a gap between the available resources and the students' learning motivations for the improvement of self-efficacy and proficiency, and achievement of instrumental desires (passing the Japanese exam or using Japanese in a future career). This, in turn led students to demand teaching approaches that highlighted the meaningful application of Japanese learning for students. When students applied their prior experiences of pre-university English language classes in assessing the Japanese class, students often raised objections that the teacher overused Chinese instead of Japanese, that the class was too teacher-centered and insufficiently interactive, and that the class was lacking in the Japanese context. This suggests that there is a gap between the policy requirements on the class time and pedagogies between university and classroom contexts has not been made available to teach Japanese with students' positive perceptions.

Student experiences of learning Japanese at the level of individual learners were also framed by their beliefs about learning difficulties, errors, ideals of successful trilingual learners and negative perception of teaching techniques and influences of language transfer in a context of cross-linguistic learning. The different combination of language comparisons with two or three languages (such as two, three, and four-step translation processes), different language learning motivations (such as greater focus on understanding and proficiency or satisfaction with minimal achievement of instrumental goals), and the different role of each language in different students' processes of Japanese translation created a context for the students' comparison of Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese. The study suggests that students were aware of the structural patterns of their transfer errors and how these related to their language proficiency and learning motivations.

The concepts of harmony and dissonance, continuity and disconnection permeate through the main themes from this analysis. In the following chapter, these themes will be discussed further in relation to the relevant literature and the research questions before reaching the conclusions of the study.

Chapter Eight: Discussion

In this chapter, findings from the analysis will be explored further in relation to the main research question and sub-questions below:

How may a foreign language policy and language planning be implemented at the MDU (an eastern Mongolian university)?

- What effect does FLPLP implementation language contexts have on students TL learning experiences?
- What affect students' foreign language decision-making, instrumental motivation and language comparison have on student's TL language cognitions and behaviours?
- What approaches to pedagogy are being used, and what effect do these have on students' TL learning?
- In what way is belief relevant to students' ideal success criteria of language learning in the self-learning context?

Although the research findings could be presented by addressing each question separately, interlinking themes emerge as significant threads throughout the analysis. In order to explore the relationship between these and the research findings in sufficient detail, three themes, outlined briefly below, will be introduced and used as the structure for the discussion. The research questions will be addressed through the themed discussion before finally returning to each question in turn, to summarise the main findings with regards to:

1. What is the relationship between students' specific language attitude, motivation and behaviour during the implementation of FLPLP at university level?
2. What are students' views and images toward the 'ideal L3 self' of FLPLP implementation at classroom level?

3. What are students' specific 'ought to L3 self' contents of FLPLP implementation at self-learning level?

The previous three chapters have analysed and discussed the FLPLP implementation from university to classroom and self-learning context. The tensions and challenges with and between each level were also presented in detail along with the students', teachers', and administrators' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs on actual language context.

For the students in this study, the foreign language context change from school to university was associated with multiple, abrupt changes in foreign language study. Specifically, the move from 'English only' to 'three foreign language options' was accompanied by a period of policy adjustment, however, these were viewed positively by students in the university context level, due to their consistency with broader changes in their feeling from 'restricted' to 'free' and 'privileged'. However, the students' positive attitude turned to negative during the foreign language policy and language planning implementation in the classroom and individual learning context levels. Consequently, students' negative attitudes towards foreign language policy and language planning at school, positive attitudes and motivations at university contributed to their language behaviour, namely, choosing to learn Japanese at university.

In the classroom context, students encountered a series of Japanese teaching techniques, viewing teaching approaches through the appraisal of the textbook; preference of language usage, reflections of classroom interaction and suggestions for improving the Japanese course enabled them to construct a process of changing language perceptions and behaviours. The construction of these changes was highly dependent on the foreign language context at classroom level. These changes occurred when there were distinct differences between students' TL learning motivation self-system and the implementation of foreign language policy and

language planning, indicating that the policy conflict between students' aspirations and the actual situation was a significant factor affecting the students' language perceptions and behaviours towards the classroom context.

In the individual learning aspect, students' descriptions of their experiences in avoiding Japanese learning difficulties, expectations of standards of the ideal successful trilingual learner, language errors will be examined in this chapter to show how the identified, non-structural, influential factors of language transfer were viewed. Specifically, their general perspectives will be examined as well as the reasons for negative language transfer, resulting from their negative perceptions towards the classroom context and negative beliefs on language comparisons.

This study, in particular, points out the importance of students' language cognitions in FLPLP enactment in a different language context. Without students' self-reflections on learning experiences, the desired implementation of FLPLP tends towards negative outcomes. The results resonate with the relevant literature which concerns the FLPLP implementation procedure (Meng, 2016), cognitive-suited and process-oriented motivations in an L2 context (Dörnyei, 1994a), L2 Motivation Self System (LMSS) (Dörnyei, 2009), and language comparisons (Ringbom, 1987; 2007; Horwitz, 1987; Odlin, 1986; 1989). The challenges are found to have exacerbated students' attitude, motivation, perception and belief conflict with national foreign language policy requirement and language similarity in L1, L2 and L3.

8.1 The relation between language attitude, motivation and behaviour

The findings in this research study confirmed the literature and theoretical framework that language attitude and language motivation together tend to affect language action. All participants demonstrated their language impacts on students' foreign language decision. Students tended to achieve TL learning benefits, advantages and motivation, when comparing the language context change from school to university.

8.1.1 The sequence causation between students' language attitude, motivation and behaviour

The findings in Chapter 5 of this study, on the one hand, confirmed the literature as regards the content and procedure of FLPLP implementation from macro to micro-level at a Mongolian university. However, on the other hand, the findings also indicated the sequence causation between language context at university, language attitude, and motivation, which was found to be the influential factors of students' language decision. Language attitude was the comparison and evaluation towards previous and current language learning experiences and context at school level, that emerged as minority multilingual students' favourable feeling for learning a new TL. This language cognition motivated them to choose a specific TL for learning. In Chapter 3, the students' language attitudes unpacked with their general attitudes, attitudes to the teacher and school-related factors (Bartram, 2010). Although the state language policy, the foreign language programme, language learning experiences and learners' characteristics may affect certain learners' attitude (Bandura, 1997; Barcelos and Kalaja, 2003; Graham, 2006; Mills, et al., 2007), in this study, the students' language attitude was specifically described; it was a completed cognition with FLPLP implementation in the university, classroom and self-learning context. At the university context, students' language attitude consisted of negative and positive cognitions, intrinsic and instrumental motivations, language comparisons, and external suggestions. Teachers and administrators' language attitudes were highly similar to students' attitudes towards the learning motivation aspect.

8.1.2 FLPLP changes for minority multilingual students

In this study, the foreign language policy of CECR (2007) offered a flexible language context with more than one foreign language option for minority university students. For minority students' foreign language learning, numerous analyses have documented the unfairness inherent in applying curriculum standards and assessment designed for the majority population, and various adaptations and accommodations have been recommended for minority students (Abedi, Hofstetter & Lord, 2004;

McKoon & August, 2006; Hausmann and Klinger, 2007; Cheng, Fox and Zheng, 2007; Solano-Flores, 2008). The flexible FLPLP mode offers students a certain free degree of choice in how multilingual they wish to become, not just because the choice is restricted by the central to the concept of language rights (and 'intercultrural harmony as a result of those rights being respected') (Feng, 2007, p. 31). The students' choosing the right to foreign language learning is respected, which made them feel they had extra attention from the university. Respecting the language right means that students need to be provided with the opportunity to choose what kind of language they want to learn (Feng, 2007). In the findings of Chapter 5, Mongolian students were compared to the Han students in China, who have to learn only one additional language with no burden of language maintenance, indicating that the flexible language context in minority higher education suggests rather that minority students have to learn two additional languages while maintaining their L1. Respecting their language right provided more foreign language options for minority students, which offered them a free and privileged feeling towards the university language context, compared with the previous restricted feeling in the school context with no options.

In this study, the language attitudes were unpacked by the content of evaluation towards FLPLP enactment in the university context from Mongolian students' language cognitions of L3 learning. Language learning motivation tended to describe students' cognitive-suited and oriented motivations in an L3 context. Combined language attitude and learning motivation were the cause of students' language decision. Further, in the literature, students' language learning motivation similarly came from TL learning experience from the peer group, teacher and experience of success (Dörnyei, 2009). External suggestions and language comparison also supported students' foreign language choice.

Many converted policy efforts have sought to change the status and functions of language assessment in the school system or higher education, redefining relationships among language tests, curriculum policies, and classroom teaching

practices. Many curriculum policies have been reconceptualised in reference to attainment or benchmark standards that specify (usually functional, communicative) goals for language education, learners' achievements, and programme accountability (Alister, 2016). FLPLP not only meets the requirements, desires and achievements, but also considers the sequence of participants' language attitude, motivation and action. For consequential policy decisions as to selection into programs, the characteristics of participants' attitudes toward FLPLP in the university context contributed to the construction and benchmark norms for policy implementation. It would be a powerful investigation in the process of collecting the opinions of all parties involved in the understanding of specific foreign language policy and language planning. Moreover, students' attitudes and motivation increased the comprehensiveness of FLPLP implementation through making the attitude connection among students, teachers and administrators. This discussion highlights the clear conditions of a satisfying foreign language policy for minority students: 1) the language policy pledges not to force students in to learning a certain foreign language; 2) the language policy provides foreign language options from which the students may choose; 3) the language policy acknowledges students' learning anxiety and aims to avoid it by establishing the detailed requirements of policy enactment at each language context. This proposed model seems to describe a popular FLPLP and might receive a positive response from all participants.

8.2 The ideal language perceptions toward the classroom context

The findings in this study confirmed the literature that students' instrumental motivations and achievements in target language learning in the classroom context were affected by their language perceptions of their instructors and classmates as influences. In the context of L3 pedagogical implications, the students' language cognitions were indicated in their awareness on the appraisal of the textbook, preference of teaching language usage, reflections of classroom interaction. The findings also indicated that students tried to make adjustments to change their negative perceptions on classroom activities, such as proposing suggestions for

improving the Japanese course.

As noted in Chapter 4, the studies of SEM (Gardner, 1985; Baker, 1992) contend the cause-effect process of language learners' motivation. This study found in the students' negative perceptions of FLPLP implementation in the classroom context and its influential factors, there are insufficient textbooks, an imbalance of teaching language and low-frequency classroom interaction. Further, the principal reason for these negative language cognitions is related to the conflict of FLPLP implementation in a university and classroom context on teaching time.

8.2.1 Ideal quantity and content of the textbook

Students' self-interpretation on textbook usage in this study showed a negative perception on the inadequate quantity of textbooks, difficulty in finding appropriate 'ideal learning materials', neural perception of textbook organisation and a positive perception of the content; this could be summarised and indicate the students were aware of the learning materials' functions, which provided the guidance to help them achieve instrumental and integrative learning motivations of L3 learning.

As reviewed in the relevant literature, the students TL learning motivation was both multi-dimensional in nature and changed constantly, going through some interconnected processes (Dörnyei, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2005; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Tseng & Schmitt, 2008). In Chapter 3, the stages of the motivation process were explained by Williams and Burden (1997) in three continuum stages: 'reasons for doing something', 'deciding to do something, and 'sustaining effort', with these stages involving initiating and sustaining motivations. In the groups with few learning materials, the students realised the issues of pressure due to limited class time and unsuitable additional learning materials. These students formed intentions and prepared to launch a language action. The language behaviour underpinning this change of negative perception was receiving recommendations of additional materials from teachers or finding suitable supplementary materials by students' themselves.

The result and process for looking for the extra materials also made students reflect on another negative language perception of the difficulty in finding appropriate 'ideal learning materials', that related to the ambiguity of their own L3 proficiency. At the actional stage, students' language actions were negative affected. Finally, students have to go back textbook usage and review the textbook structure and content to satisfy their learning motivations. Students have to dismiss their intention and further planning of gain the extra learning materials. The whole developed procedure of students' language perceptions and behaviours of the teaching techniques in textbook usage, which went through negative perception-action-negative perception-action, formed a pattern of students' cause-effect language cognition and action. The process of students' perceptions of the appraisal of textbook usage was from a cognitive-situated and process-oriented perspective.

From the gap in understanding gap between the students and teachers as regards the learning materials quantity and 'ideal learning materials', there was no communication about motivations for learning materials usage, the structure of textbook, and the favourite section of the textbook for each party. At least two types need to be distinguished regarding goals of materials usage: goals for oneself and goals for others (Allwright, 1978). The students hope to learn the L3 and improve their L3 proficiency by using materials; the teacher also shares the same goal and hopes for the student to develop their L3 skills. The structure of textbook offered a suggested order of the learning process for learners, in relation to their content options (Allwright, 1975). However, in this study, all the students and teachers were habituated to using the fixed sequence of the foreign language textbook given their previous language learning and teaching experience, and both affirmed that following the teachers' instruction sequence of the textbook was the main learning process in the class. These explanations strengthen their particular perception that Japanese learning was not affected by the original order of the textbook. In this study, the content of language learning materials referred to all things which could be expected to help learners understand what and how they were learning. The content of each component of the

learning materials show a rationale for textbook usage from the students' and teachers' perceptions, which comprised language learning and usage, culture knowledge understanding and instrumental application. Both students and teachers generated and carried out subtasks on each component of textbooks separately, and elaborated standards and strategies of textbook usage in structure and content.

In interventional treatment of the foreign language class context in textbook usage, the teachers had to consider students' language learning cognitions through their hopes, expectations, fears of textbook usage, and guide them to identify learning motivations that they valued, and to develop and pursue action plans and action sequences that led to goal attainment (Liu, 2012). The students who identified more language cognitions resulted in higher academic performance and higher graduation rates (Hock et al., 2006).

8.2.2 Ideal proportion of teaching language

As noted in Chapter 3, the students' language cognition on classroom context was to determine the procedure of their language learning experience through their self-determination (Dörnyei, 1994a). This language cognition is unpacked by students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Noels, et. at, 2000). The ideal L3 teaching language proportion lies in influencing learner's motivation and behaviours within the classroom reference.

First language usage in the target language class may usefully serve social and cognitive functions, including the construction of creating a collaborative dialogue practice for target language acquisition (Swain and Lapkin, 2000), however, these appear to conflict with my research findings, which indicate that the function of the students' L1 was not just limited to communicating in an academic aspect, but there was a lot of talking for non-academic purpose which was unrelated to L3 learning. The students who were communicating or working in a pair or group, would speak in their L1 and avoid the L3; the only situation for them to speak any L3 words is in producing

hypotheses and translation from L3 to L1. Learners with unconfident usage of the target language make more use of their shared L1 (Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Lazaro & Garcia Mayo, 2012). However, the usage of L1 relates to learners' strength of identity, where the learners resist the symbolic dominance of language to communicate with people who have the same ethnic identity, even on occasions of other language usage. The interpretations of L1 usage in the L3 class expressed students' pleasure to learn L3 and satisfaction in completing L3 learning goals by using L1. However, the classroom context could not serve students' language cognition; the pedagogical method tends to adopt L2 usage for stimulating students' arousal of L3 learning.

The students realised the focal point of L3 learning had shifted from pronunciation correction to grammar knowledge explanation, which was accompanied by the change in the proportion of teaching language from L3-based to L2-based over their two years L3 learning experience. These findings were quite different with the research from Anton & DiCamilla (1999) and Carless (2008); the function of teachers' target language (TL) usage was to maintain students' attention, interest or involvement, and contributions in the L1 needed to be permitted. Further, there were dangers of L1 overuse because the whole point of the class was for the learners to practice their TL. The teachers should not permit 'too much L1'. However, how is a reasonable proportion of teaching language to be judged?

There is a proposed three-fold amount of teaching language change in a progressive learning process: the first stage around 50% L1 and 50% TL, then 75% TL, then the third 100% TL (Bygate, 2001). This seems a useful guide from the teachers' perspective to increase the TL usage in the class, however, in my findings, the teachers affirmed that full instruction in L3 was not achieved due to the limited L3 proficiency of the beginners with two years study. Furthermore, they felt the ideal proportion of L3 usage to be around 30%-40%. This figure was quite close to students' ideal of L2 usage, however, this represents a significant gap from the excepted proportion of L3. The learners desire to acquire and improve their language abilities in a fully TL environment.

However, there is TL anxiety among learners. The learners' goal of TL learning is to receive the input with more fluency, however, the teachers hope to deliver the output of TL with more accuracy. The conflict of these different goals in the teaching and target language usage between the learners and teachers are likely to evoke different opinions on aspects of function and quantity. In this study, students and teachers had different language perceptions of the teaching language proportion in the L3 class, which affected their language actions and required effort for learning goals achievement. The same ideal proportion of teaching language emerged from students' and teachers' self-reflections; it is worthwhile highlighting the importance of developing a vision of language learning motivation in learners' and at the learning situation level. The pedagogical methods may be applied to consider students' learning reasons and ideal proportion of teaching language.

8.2.3 Ideal arrangement of classroom interaction

In Chapter 3, cognitive-suited and process-oriented motivations in the TL context describe that TL was learning motivation through a sequence of discrete actions, which relates to the behavioural process where wishes and hopes change into goals (Dörnyei, 1994a; Dörnyei and Otto, 1998). In this study, the students' perceptions of classroom interaction unpacked by their cognitive learning needs, and the needs were accessible to both language abilities and non-language abilities achievement, which were limited by their own deficiencies and monotonously communicative model and complicated usage requirements of media techniques. Their perceptions of language classroom interaction may reflect their realistic idea of achievable learning goals, which relate to their motivation influences and action sequence. Further, the self-evaluation procedure becomes much sharper for the gradual development of learning skills (Nunan, 1985a). Classroom interaction itself is not currently claimed to be a direct and sufficiently influential factor of foreign language learning. It does, however, offers a facilitator into language learning instrumental processing involved in language acquisition by interactive classroom activities, which include comprehensible input, corrective feedback, and modified output, and further, examines the social context of

learning, learners' internal process, and individual cognitive differences (Mackey, 2007). It means that foreign language classroom interactive activities help students to acquire new or review previous lexical and grammar knowledge by classroom negotiation, feedback, and recasting (Farahian and Rezaee, 2012). The learning goals of these interactive activities may involve error analysis, interlanguage studies and grammatically diagnostic testing (Cooper, 1970; Hymes, 1971; Davies, 1977; Schutz & Derwing, 1981; Robinson 1991). However, in this study, the students' understanding of the function of classroom interaction was not only getting feedback on their target language and interlanguage usage mistakes but also a desire for improvement of the target language and non-language ability to achieve communicative competence. The feedback on error correction and suggestions for language skills improvement from the teachers were recognised as the basic learning desires for the learners, which prepared them to achieve the target learning need of communicative competence improvement.

The 'question-answer' process in the foreign classroom was a general manifestation of interaction activity, in which types of teachers' questions may serve various functions such as focusing attention, exerting disciplinary control, getting feedback and most important of all, encouraging students to participate. Teacher's questioning is a popular method of involving students in a lesson and a tool for facilitating student participation (Brock, 1986; Gall, 1970; Wu, 1993; Farahian & Rezaee 2012). The primary method of exposing students to speak a foreign language is through the use of taped material which can exemplify a wide range of topics and all manner of spoken exchanges (Liu, 2005). A completed activity of classroom 'question-answer' tends to need the interactive back-and-forth, the content, and methods of questioning which could arouse the students' attention to give response actively. However, the imperative statement without any strict requirements of response, together without any multi-media instructional packages reduce the attention and interest of students' participation. The valid responses to open-ended questions were used to capture the students' intrinsic interests of classroom interaction.

For the students own deficiencies, they are reticent in the foreign language classrooms due to, inter alia, fear of public failure, fear of making mistakes, lack of confidence, low English proficiency, inability to keep up with native speakers, incompetence in the rules and norms of target language conversation, disorientation. (Dwyer and Heller-Murphy, 1996). Analysis of the clear influential factors of learners' deficiency could not describe their cognitive process of reticence and reluctance in the foreign language classroom. The learners' lack of confidence in their accuracy of target language usage in the class, reduces their desire to participate in the interactive activities, despite their understanding that confidence improvement regarding communication competence in using the target language requires engagement in more classroom activities.

Whether the learners' cognition of linguistic goals (language errors correction) or non-linguistic goals (language communication competence improvement) of language classroom interaction are manifested through the content and strategy of interactive activities to stimulate their interest and attention in the class. However, if these two motivational influential factors are ignored, or completely removed, the learners' deficiency would be revealed clearly, thus, reducing the learners' interaction confidence and causing reticence and reluctance in the target language classroom.

8.2.4 Domain causation of negative perceptions toward classroom context

Based on the findings in Chapter 6, the classroom context of FLPLP in MDU implementation was transmitting the CECR 2007 requirements to students, teachers and administrators. The challenges were emerging from participants' negative L3 learning, teaching and managing experiences of the teaching effects, which were interpreted by textbook usages, teaching language proportion and classroom interaction frequency. The participants described their procedure model of language perceptions and behaviours separately for each component of teaching effects; they also proposed reasons for changing their negative language learning perceptions for the whole classroom context. The participants' language cognitions in the classroom

context were mired in the conflicts in national policy on class time arrangement. All the participants realised that the current classroom timetable, which was interpreted from CECR 2007, could not satisfy students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in L3 learning.

As noted in students' language perceptions on classroom management, the CECR 2007 pedagogy of student-centred teaching puzzled L3 teaching and learning; teacher-centred teaching was actually applied in the classroom context. Thus, unsurprisingly, the conflict of teaching time and pedagogy between teaching effectiveness and CECR 2007 were the initial factors for the FLPLP implementation in the classroom context.

The language context and enjoyable class atmosphere create learning confidence to improve target language communicative competence, thus avoiding the feelings of fear in language ability in relation to accuracy and fluency of target language usage; these perceptions differ from the research of Liskin-Gasparro and Judith (1998), which suggest that grammar and vocabulary learning was the only way to achieve true language competence in a language. The learners have the opportunity to receive target language input, particularly in the classroom context to build on target language exposure, of which the primary condition requires sufficient class hours and interaction time to reconcile the conflict between current and ideal language context in the classroom. The learners' perceptions toward classroom context emerged from their feedback of unfavourable comments about their language learning experience and suggestions for improvement of teaching pedagogies.

The content of participants' perceptions on teaching effects was expressed through the 'changing quantity', to explain their present and ideal language learning motivations of target language learning, which involved teaching techniques, content, and strategy in the non-interactive classroom context. The conflict among the number of learning materials, the proportion of teaching language and the proportion of teaching content arrangement, aimed to reflect the learners' strong desire for ability

improvement in language skills and non-language competence. Sufficient time and opportunity is devoted to getting input and applying the output of the target language in the class. However, the 'ideal quantity' conflict between teachers and learners means no negation in the process of gaining receptive language knowledge and productive communicative competence on learners' experience of the target language.

8.3 Ideal and Ought-to L3 self

In this study, students' descriptions of their experience of self-learning were examined to identify what caused their negative language transfer and language comparisons among L1, L2 and L3. Their general perspective on self-learning was explained by their beliefs about avoiding learning difficulties, translation direction errors and errors in cognate words and word order, and expectations of standards for successful trilingual students.

8.3.1 Avoiding learning difficulties

In Chapter 3, students' language belief was interpreted by their self-reflection towards the self-learning language context around their integrativeness and integrative motivations, which comprised the ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, LLMS, 2009). In addition to the students' evaluations of the self-learning context, which mainly contained participants' L3 beliefs on significance of learning difficulties, ideal standards of successful trilingual learners and learning errors.

After reviewing the cause-effect sequence of students' language beliefs in Chapter 7, the students' positive attitudes towards policy implementation at university level turned to negative at classroom level. Further, their negative perception of teaching effects became the reason which affected their beliefs at the self-learning stage. The types of difficulty experienced appear to detract from a positive attitude towards choosing to learn Japanese, with responses suggesting that Japanese learning was no easier for them. In this study, students' self-reflections on learning L3 individually unpacked the reasons and content of their learning difficulties in word memorisation,

writing, listening, reading and translatiaon, which were affected by insufficient and inappropriate pedagogies in the classroom context; these in turn affected students' learning motivation for language abilities improvement in sentence making, accuracy of sentence understanding in semantic aspect, listening speed, speaking, textbook understanding, pronunciation accuracy, vocabulary acquisition and grammatical knowledge understanding of the L3. The students' learning difficulty does not always equate with an unenjoyable learning experience (Li, 2006). The students' learning difficulties emerge from their self-learning experience of the TL learning experience.

8.3.2 Ideal standards of successful trilingual learner

In this research study, students confirmed the content of language learners' ideal L2-self of LLMS (Dörnyei, 2009), which was full of their desires and standards of TL learning. Students' integrative and integrativeness motivations were used to explain variances in ideal TL-self of all the languages they have acquired. The standards of a successful trilingual learner tended to be described as students' self-language cognitions towards language learning experiences and motivations for a desired future of language usage, and understanding of language efforts and difficulties between current language proficiency, language context and their language learning expectations. The standards of TL learning are somewhat more complicated as it involves the adoption of language learning abilities improvement, cultural understanding and instrumental goals achievement.

For the trilingual students in this study, their language cognitions on successful trilingual learning emulated the language abilities and skills they want to achieve, however, the actual validated language position, context and pedagogies in the classroom became the barriers to achieving their ideal language learning standards. The successful contents of L1, L2 and L3 were expressed by students separately and together. Attribution focuses on the factors to which a learner may ascribe success or failure, which explore the relationship between learning and the maintenance of an individual's self-concept (McPake and Bhatti 1999). Whether first, second or third

language, each has similar standards for the successful learner, according to students' beliefs. Speaking authentic Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese without pronunciation influence and commutation language skill achievement were the similar attributes of a successful learner, which were affected by language context variables and individual attributes on language usage. Language context variables, comprising educational and sociocultural influences, can reasonably be expected to be more consistent across particular school communities in particular countries (Bartram, 2010). The content of multilingual learners' ideal standard of TL learning is dynamic, changing with the language context. In the L1 context, language beliefs was the necessary of acquiring Mongolian language history and cultural knowledge, which explained by the students' integrative motivation in sociocultural influence for emotion expression deeply and semantic meaning understanding. However, for the L2 and L3, integrative motivation was the domain for their ideal standard of the successful language learner in terms of educational influences. Students' beliefs on instrumental achievement factors of L2 and L3 motivated their ideal desires in further education and employment. Further, the teachers and administrators' beliefs on students' ideal language learning self were the same as students' expectations of instrumental motivations in L2 and L3 learning.

Language learners' expectations of successful goals help manage their own learning process through their beliefs, such as paying attention, self-evaluating, and self-monitoring. They control their emotions and attitudes through anxiety reduction and self-encouragement (Rebecca, 2003). Students' evaluated their current languages' proficiency and the ideal successful standards of language learning and proposed the main reasons for this gap: negative perceptions of the classroom context and negative influences of three languages contact with each other. Students' ideal language-self helps teachers and administrators realise the status of pedagogy application in the classroom context, adjust teaching methods and contents to better match students' language learning expectations.

8.3.3 Avoiding errors in cognate and word order translation procedure

In Chapter 3, language learners' awareness of 'Ought-to-L2' was explained by their motivation for avoiding errors during the TL usage (Dörnyei's LLSM, 2009). Further, the language distance between students' L1 and L2 made the student's L2 learning process easy or difficult (Ringbom, 1987; Lyons, 2009). The content of comparisons of L1 and L2 that emerged from students' language beliefs were described as the similarities and differences of two languages (Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988 and 1999). Contact with the L1 and L2 and the language combination would mean borrowing from a second language into the native language of words, phrases, and sentences which increases or decreases students' learning difficulties (Gregg, 1984; Odlin, 1998). The positive language transfer would facilitate the student's learning. However, negative language transfer would result in learning difficulties and errors (Kellerman, 1983). For the beginner TL learning, cross-linguistic similarities tend to result in negative language transfer that affects students' target learning (Taylor, 1975; Odlin, 1989). Cognates facilitate positive transfer for advanced learners as much for beginner learners of a second language (Kellerman, 1984). For this research study of the beginner Japanese learners, the students' beliefs on language comparisons between Japanese (L3) and Chinese (L2) and their combination tended to result in negative language transfer with the similarity of cognates, and differences of word order; comparison between L1 and L3 in the similarity of word order. Multilingual students' beliefs on 'ought-to TL' centered around their language beliefs about languages comparison, which was interpreted by their language cognitions of avoiding non-structural language transfer of TL language errors. Students' beliefs on the language gap, which also indicated the similarity between the L2 and TL, had been an especially strong influence on their language cognition. In the findings of Chapter 5, the language similarity between L2 and L3 from the same language family stimulated students' foreign language choice of L3 learning. However, they explained the language combination of these two languages affected their L3 learning in lexical semantics, pronunciation and syntax after one or two years' learning experiences. This finding is different from the cross-linguistic similarity in grammar and vocabulary which can enhance both comprehension and production, and thus promotes learning (Odlin, 2004b). Further,

the many cognates between first and second language would make students feel more confident at mastering these two languages (Kellerman, 1977; 1978).

Cognates are words that translate into a bilingual person's other language into largely similar (or exactly the same) word forms (Caramazza & Brones, 1979). From students' language beliefs in this study, only L2 word-form representation had a connection with conceptual, phonological and orthographical memory when combining L2 and L3. Compared with L1 and L3, L2 had a stronger language position in the multilingual context of eastern Inner Mongolia. The long-term L2 learning and usage experiences and the shortage of pedagogy on processing cognates were the main reasons which led to students' inappropriate language use of cognates during comprehension or production in the L3 context. The multilingual learners' cognate access was a language-selective procedure that processed visual and spoken language and spelling with their domain language. For cognates recognition, there are two word-form representations, one for each language, L1 and L2, and one meaning representation common to the two languages (De Grrot, 2000). However, bilingual Mongolian students have needed to allow for the existence of L2-specific meanings elements in the conceptual representations of their memory structure; they lost L3-specific, L2 and L3-specific meaning elements, which formed asymmetrical memory structure of cognate processing. Students' lexical-decision on cognate usage was affected by activation of their strong language, which different with the students processed the dominant language, it is not immune to influences from the non-target language on cognate recognition. Although negative awareness emerged from the process of students' Japanese learning of cognates usage, they tended to take language action to avoid language errors of lexical access to cognate word. The explicit teaching method for cognate applications in different language contexts with authentic examples would deactivate the cognate errors in these two languages. The teacher's instruction of cognate application through a process of inhibitory control reactively suppresses the activated elements of non-target language influence on cognates (Green, 1998), resulting in multilingual learners' highly activated representation of cognates.

In the findings of Chapter 7, the students' contractive analysis through their language beliefs in the self-learning context also focused on word order error. The differences of word order between L1 and L2, and L2 and L3, caused their language transfer errors in L2 accuracy of expression and L3 translation and listening. The students' language habits with 'mixed language usage' (combined L1 and L2 usage) may lead to their 'mixed word order usage' in an L2 context, and further, they applied L2 word order into L3 context, due to L2 being the main teaching language in the class. There were significant gains in understanding, accompanied by some errors of word order; students were used to following the previous language grammar rules and applied these into the new language context. However, another comparison on word order made students realise the similar word order between L1 and L3, reversing previously negative perceptions; L1 could not be the teaching language in the L3 class, therefore, they did not have the chance to experience applying L1's word order into L3 learning. Students who come in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to their native language will be simple, and a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the student, will know better on real learning problems, and could provide rational methods for teaching them (Lado, 1957). In fact, the comparison between these three languages was not used to find the same or different word order, which may have made students' acquisition of the TL easier or more difficult. This indicates the multilingual's linguistic awareness that word order patterns came not only from the structural influencing factor of language transfer but also emerged from the non-structural influencing factors, such as language habit and context.

8.3.4 Avoiding translation direction errors

Based on the findings in Chapter 7, the students' contrastive analysis through their language beliefs in the self-learning context revealed their attempts to avoid the other language error in translation among L1, L2 and L3. The full translation procedure from L3 input to L3 output depended on students' comparative awareness of language

position and proficiency. The function of each language in L3 translation direction, as analysed in the previous findings in Chapter 6 of teaching language arrangements, showed continuity. Further, for multilingual learners, L1 and L2 were used supportively for understanding L3 as they relied on L1 and L2 to mediate access to the L3 at the beginning stage. Low-proficiency learners need the mediation of other native languages to retrieve the meaning of target language words (Ma, Chen, Guo and Kroll, 2017). Both the language context of the class and language transfer affected student language selection in translation direction. Avoiding transfer errors was the main concern of 'ought-to TL' learning for multilingual students; the more translation direction they accessed, the more translation errors they made. The high exposure to L3 lexicon tended to reduce the frequency of the translation procedure, in which the L3 was used only to mediate lexically and conceptually.

8.4 Summary

This chapter has explored the themes of language attitude, motivation and comparisons, with much of the analysis that relates to the research questions having now been discussed. This chapter also discussed the multi-context challenges involved in the process of FLPLP implementation from university, to classroom and self-learning levels. The language learners were inherently part of the context, contributing to the causation of language cognitions and behaviours, dealing with pedagogy elements and self-learning reflections of the evolving language context that tended to their ideal status. The language policy enactment was the interplay of multiple participants, being relevant to the analysis of the ecosystem of all participants-contexts. However, students' reflections are ignored in a hierarchical language policy system, like China. Although the minority higher education was offered a flexible adjustment right in the national foreign language policy requirements, students' language learning attitudes and motivations were still confined by the conflict between local desires and national goals. Students' language perceptions towards the classroom context entailed a richly grounded ethnographic description of the complete classroom setting with a detailed analysis of students, teachers, and administrators' language cognitions and behaviours.

Students' language beliefs tended to identify aspects of the self-learning context that seem salient to the learners, and thus connect the multitude of potential contextual factors affecting TL learning.

Chapter Nine: Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

The analysis and discussion within the preceding chapters show the complexity of the implementation of foreign language policy and language planning at each level for the Mongolian bilingual university students learning Japanese as their foreign language. This chapter aims to discuss the significant findings of the study and the corresponding contributions to the literature. The first section summarises the responses to the research questions. Thereafter, the main points from the analysis and discussion are considered to draw conclusions about the students TL learning experience before suggesting areas for further study, that arise from this research. Finally, it will be time to disembark from this personal learning journey and highlight the key contributions this thesis makes to this field.

9.2 Major findings of the study

As introduced in chapter 4, this study aims to answer two main research questions.

1. Why do Year 1 and Year 2 bilingual Mongolian university students choose to study Japanese at an Eastern Mongolian University?
2. How does the foreign language policy and language planning implement in the language context of an Eastern Mongolian University from university to classroom and self-learning level?

Chapter 2 and 3 set out the theoretical underpinnings and conceptual parameters and surveyed bilingual Mongolian students' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, motivations and behaviours regarding foreign language policy and language planning implementation. The students' language decisions and actions are a completed procedural context that have been recognised by themselves since they began their language learning journey. Their awareness thereof is clearly reflected in their language cognitions toward a change of language context. The students who had never

learned a new language over and above all the languages they had acquired previously, felt the impact on their learning motivations and actions. The investigation into multilingual learners' TL learning situations was mainly to describe the learning procedure of the whole language context from university to classroom and self-learning stages. This section is organised according to the research questions. The relevant discussions from university, classroom, and language comparison contexts aim to summarise the key findings and provide a solid foundation upon which to draw the final conclusions.

9.2.1 Major issues identified in the content and process of FLPLP in the university context

This study focused on the implementation context of national foreign language policy of CECR 2007 at a Mongolian university of China by students, teachers and administrators. The enactment of language policy tends to need the collaboration and communication of all the participants' language cognitions and behaviours to ensure a coherent policy document, as the premise for the successful execution of policy with greater and more positive self-reflection of policy intent (Rogers, 2003; Ball et al., 2012). The students are located in particular types of language contexts, and these contexts function as independent external variables that tend to affect students' internal variables such as motivation and TL development or performance (Ushioda, 2016). The students should not be seen as separate entities, rather usually related to the particular language context. The FLPLP implementation in each language context was identified in relation to the requirements of CECR 2007, together with the lack of implicit understanding of students' attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations of TL learning. In the university context, students' language decision was their comprehension of and ability to proceed towards more foreign language options provided by FLPLP. The representation of prior and current language experience, language motivation and comparisons integrated the cause-effect processing of TL cognition and behaviour. Further, the processes of comprehension, decision and production of students' TL learning are more likely to contribute to understanding the

content and procedure of FLPLP enactment at university level.

9.2.2 Major issues identified in the content and process of FLPLP implementation in the classroom context

The research findings demonstrated that various content, factors and behaviours were involved in the process of FLPLP implementation in the classroom context. To ensure the policy is enacted with more positive language perception, it is imperative to address specific content and procedure of the classroom situation. The major issues identified from the research findings mainly contained the dynamic motivation and perception in the classroom and its content and process.

(1) Motivation and perception with dynamics of the classroom context

The ongoing displayed change of motivation is a critical factor of a dynamic system and is further characterised by occasional states of stability and demonstrated to fluctuate over time (MacIntyre & Serroul, 2016). Furthermore, the analysis of self-organisation and settlement into a relatively stable attractor acts like an ideal L2 self (Hiver, 2016). The students' overall motivational profile is susceptible to change (Campbell & Storch, 2011), and this change is more frequently found in the motivation, which relates to students' current and future learning desires in a classroom context (Pawlak, 2012; Poupore, 2013). Moreover, Campbell and Storch (2011) found that changes in Chinese learners' learning motivation at an Australian university, were most likely associated with the language learning environment. The findings in this study confirmed the students' dynamic motivation process, with the change from a positive attitude towards FLPLP in the university context, to a negative perception of the learning experience at the classroom stage. Students' ideal TL learning showed signs of change; those changes were often related to their language cognitions regarding the ideal quantity and content of the textbook, ideal proportion of teaching language and ideal arrangement of classroom interaction during class time.

The findings in this study also indicate the dynamic operational procedure of learning

experience. The process of students' language cognition resulting in an action change is not a static phenomenon. The completed process of their perception towards teaching approaches begins with their negative perceptions of current arrangements of teaching effects (decisions towards finding proper solutions), to their negative perceptions of new actions (actions towards going back and following the previous arrangement of teaching effects) and then to reviews of the current arrangements of teaching effects. The teachers may be sensitive towards these contents and procedures of students' changed language perceptions, as a result of, perhaps, a piece of homework, a test, or a class that is particularly inspiring or uninspiring, when the changing concepts are related with students' ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009).

(2) Motivation and perception of content and procedure in the classroom context

The classroom context concerns the interaction between the elements of students' learning experiences and expectations of the overall motivational profile. Further, this interaction explores the emergence of domain learning desires through reciprocal self-reflection on the language perception and motivational components in different language contexts. This empirical research considers students' natural language cognition of the self-learning experience and current language learning context to unpack the FLPLP enactment in the classroom context. Whereas motivation has traditionally been labelled an affective variable in applied linguistics (Waninge, 2016), it is the overall approach towards students' classroom experiences that should be considered. Both the field of psychology and applied linguists have witnessed an increased awareness of the importance of effect in learning contexts (Ainley, 2006, 2007; Hidi et al., 2004; Schuta & Pekrun, 2007; Swain, 2013).

The findings indicated that the content and process of students' language perceptions and motivations in the classroom context, which were described as the integrated operation of the effect, cognition, motivation and behaviour of students' TL language learning. The initial tensions and challenges were mediated by the students' ideal

language behaviours in changing class time arrangements. An appropriate amount of class time tended to relate to aspects of course design and an arrangement that might arguably be seen as more dependent on the university foreign language department. The content of minority university foreign language curriculum devoted to the delivery of this curriculum can be regarded as an issue subject to, to a greater extent, the national curriculum framework. However, the amount of class time still strictly followed the requirement of the national curriculum. The minority University has less right of autonomy in this aspect, and has to decrease the amount of class time to adapt to the new national curriculum. A context as diverse as a classroom setting has a clear conflict between teaching effects and school context, and further affected students' TL learning at the self-learning stage.

In this research, the students' negative perception towards FLPLP implementation in the classroom context was important, alongside anxiousness when striving to achieve ideal TL skills, abilities and cultural knowledge acquisition, and instrument motivation. During a period in which a learner experiences flow - the culmination of current language perception, affective reasons, action, ideal language perception and reasons for ideal perceptions - there was a procedure of experience in the classroom situation. Engagement in academic tasks was the essential feature of students' Attitude/Motivation Test Battery in the form of interest in foreign languages (Gardner, 2004), and the emotion of motivation was placed among the first-order together with fear, disgust, enjoyment and sadness (Izard, 2011). The students' cognitive, motivational and contextual factors toward the classroom context were for the initial generation and subsequent growth of learning interest (Waninge, 2016). Furthermore, the students' core or master identity was the affective factor that subsumes such fundamental features as their sex, age, race as crucial components as well as other central personal characteristics that the individual transports from one situation to another (Dörnyei and Kubanyiova, 2014). However, as stated in Chapter 3 and Chapter 5, the student negativities related to TL learning and learning processing, and the individual students would increase their effort which could have a positive effect on

learning outcomes achievement. The students' TL learning cognitive appraisals concerning the cause-effect sequence, was a combination of detailed language cognitions, motivations, and behaviours with their perceptions toward teaching effects. Concerning how to combine students' nature language cognitions, supporting or understanding their TL learning perceptions, motivations and behaviours in the classroom context in a negative learning experience, specifically, teachers and administrators tend to follow the content and procedure of changes in students' learning situation, where a potentially promising standard of FLPLP implications might result in a more positive evaluation.

9.2.3 Content of language comparisons

The research findings explained that various issues are involved in the students' language comparisons during the self-learning stage. To understand students' beliefs, these tend to address their ideal and ought to TL learning selves. The significant issues from the research findings mainly related to the content and procedure of their language cognition and actions in the self-learning context.

(1) The content of 'Ideal to TL' learning at self-learning stage

The explanation of language comparison aims to understand how knowledge of more than one language interacts in the mind (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008), and that language interaction between L1 and TL emerges from language distance, prototypically, and L2 proficiency, which tends to affect TL learning (Ringbom, 1987; Odlin, 1989). This study informed on the content of students' beliefs on FLPLP enactment at the self-learning stage, which was unpacked by 'ought-to TL' in learning desires to avoid learning difficulties and error transfer. The mechanism of students' TL learning beliefs of mental representation on language and context tended to be embedded by being formed, accessed, and combined with other representations in the mind of individuals and alongside contextual factors. The enabling desire for decreased TL learning difficulties was directed towards the content of students' language beliefs. Chapter 3 and Chapter 7 described that in the procedure of implementation of FLPLP, the students' negative

perceptions toward the teaching effects in the classroom context was the domain for students' learning difficulties. For the TL beginner, the language distance and TL proficiency also became barriers to achieving 'Ideal TL' learning. The students' desire at the self-learning stage was to be able to gain TL learning performance, which may be used for academic purposes in TL abilities and skills improvement. In this research study, the students' ideal standards of a successful trilingual learner were the interventions designed to minimise the negative effect of language transfer at the self-learning stage and to take maximum advantage of its positive outcome. Advances in the students' desired learning goals may result in progress in the form of enabling instrumental motivations (Jarvis & Crossley, 2012); the inherited benefits may also work for integrative motivations.

(2) The content and procedure of 'Ought-to TL' in self-learning context

Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) characterise the processing of language transfer from identification and quantification of transfer effects: exploration of the causes of and the constraints on transfer; development of theoretical explanations and description of how transfer takes place in the brain. In this study, the language cognitions on negative language transfer were explained by the causes and consequences, and in developing better language action for TL study. Negative language transfer originated from the language contact and comparison between L1, L2 and L3. The structural influence of transfer errors in cognates and word order and non-structural influence of language habit and context were the landmark findings on students' beliefs on language transfer. Regarding the emergence of word order rules, L1 influence does occur in learners' syntax, the processability constraints that prevent this from occurring during the earlier stages of acquisition (Pienemann, 1998).

A transfer involving bound inflectional morphology extends beyond the direct usage of overt L1 inflexions on L2 words, which take L1's forms, meaning and function to express L2 (Merliäinen, 2010). Students' language background and cognitions in grammatical knowledge formalised as part of the monitoring of the content and

procedure of language comparison. The similarities between L2 and L3 in cognates and the opposite word order between L2 and L3 made the student feel less challenged in L3 learning. While students felt it L3 learning was easy, this was due to the similarity of word order between L1 and L3. All the factors of Ought-to TL worked together in direct translation from L3 to L3; the more translation direction students experienced, the more errors they made. The learners adhered fully to L1 and L2 usages to the L3 constraints from the earliest stage of L3 learning. The sufficient pedagogy with explicit instruction on the assumption of negative language transfer at the beginning stage of TL learning and change in negative perceptions toward the classroom context may decrease language learners' 'Ought-to TL' in the self-learning context.

9.3 Theoretical and practical contributions

Having commenced by stating that this research was on the implementary content and procedure of foreign language policy and language planning in a Mongolian university of China, the findings would be supported as the view that the influences of students' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivation towards the different language contexts of foreign language study at higher education stage. The theoretical contributions are 1) the innovation of the students' language attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and motivations to evaluate and reflect the implementation of FLPLP from university, classroom and self-learning levels, and 2) the innovative combination of the structural and non-structural influence factors of language transfer and reasons behind students' choices, experiences and perceptions of foreign language learning.

The first practical contribution is that this is an effective empirical research, especially research on language cognition and action for bilingual Mongolian students in the process of multi-language learning. The students were regarded as one of the participants to evaluate the FLPLP development from each level based on their learning experience of ideal and ought-to TL learning. Thus, it is essential to identify and assess the content and process of foreign language teaching and learning. This

requires careful, sensitivity to understand the contextual elements that are relevant to students' self-reflection during TL learning. The policy requirements and pedagogies should cover students' TL learning motivations in instrumental and integrative aspects and decrease their TL fears of learning difficulties and transfer errors.

The second practical implication is that it takes qualitative research methodology with quantitative data to consider and investigate the FLPLP assessment from students' perspectives. It is an encouraging innovation in research methodology with using this method to gain wider and deeper data than previous solely quantitative research in this area. Quantitative form data tends to enable the general trends of students' views of TL learning experience. Qualitative data may provide insights into the reasons and procedures underlying findings generated by quantitative form data.

The third practical implication to consider is the bilingual Mongolian characteristics in terms of what FLPLP implementation means in their mind. Thus, it is vital to identify the specific influential factors for bilingual Mongolian students' FLPLP assessment, which provided the fundamental data of foreign language education in the minority areas. Finally, the research model could be replicated and conducted in the other minority areas of China.

9.4 Areas for further research development

In view of the limited attention paid to this area in the past, there is a need for additional research that focuses on the FL learning experience of this distinctive educational cohort in relation to the students' language learning in high school and their future life and work. Research into students' language attitudes towards FLPLP at school provides a valuable understanding of their cognitions and actions, a suggested direction for investigating the completed development and implementation of foreign language policy in Inner Mongolia area of China. Further, research into workplace provides a valuable foundation to develop a curriculum

appropriate for the purpose of preparing Mongolian students for a range of different types of instrumental learning reasons for selecting Japanese learning. The usefulness of Mongolian university's FLPLP, prioritising of students' Japanese skills and abilities indicated that these are crucial for their further education and employment and are worth some further examination, which compared with students' who are learning English.

Due to FLPLP changes, developments and implementations from school to university in one of the Mongolian universities in Inner Mongolia, a suggested direction for further research could be to examine the actual impact on FLPLP in the remaining 52 Mongolian universities and colleges. This limited study has developed an understanding of students' language learning context in the east part of Inner Mongolia based on qualitative data, and further, used quantitative methods for collecting the necessary information, which also resulted in qualitative responses. Quantitative measures of attainment for bilingual Mongolian students' attitudes toward FLPLP are currently available as large data sets. Using these in conjunction with some more focused studies into students; changing attitudes over two years would provide more extensive and in-depth evidence than this small scale and mostly qualitative research. Tracking the students' learning process and changing attitudes from the first to the second year, would also present a procedure of FLPLP implementation from the perspective of individual attainment, which may identify the actual turning point and critical reasons for change in language attitudes from positive to negative.

The current focus of FLPLP in this study is on increasing the pedagogical and individual learning content knowledge of bilingual Mongolian students' Japanese learning, strategies which overlook the importance of understating the language context in the classroom and individual learning, both of which were significant factors that affected students' attitudes. In the light of this study, it seems that students learning Japanese in Mongolian university will become successful trilingual learners associated with

academic and instrumental images. However, this study showed that the importance of a student's identity has been raised and would warrant further investigation. The benefit of Mongolian identity was also the reason for the minority students accessing the optional language context among Mongolian, Chinese and Japanese with positive attitudes, compared with the majority Han student.

This study also demonstrates the diversity within FLPLP implementation in the university, alongside various practical difficulties and potential limitations encountered in this research. First, this research did not consider and investigate the Year 3, Year 4 and postgraduate Mongolian students' attitudes towards FLPLP implementation. The possible arising issues might overlap somewhat with this research, however, it could possibly examine the extent to which the postgraduate students' goals, desires and enjoyment of Japanese learning are the same or different from their responses at the undergraduate stage. Second, this research did not include government officers' attitudes toward FLPLP. This could be a very complex and challenging undertaking given that they are not allowed to accept private interview to evaluate the national policy. Then there are the policymakers, or whom the macro factor in politics is the primary consideration for their decisions (Fulcher, 2013). The interview questions in this study were designed from the policy implementation at the university level, which may well fit with their wider considerations, however, students' understanding of their perceptions and beliefs towards the foreign language learning context were neglected in government policy. The above shows that research is still needed of a more sensitive nature to investigate the barriers of policy implementation; the research design should be more careful planned and strategic measures taken for further research.

9.5 Personal reflection

Overall, the procedure of my PhD study has been very meaningful. I realised that entering into the new research area of language education was a challenge for me with my engineering background. I have learned how to conduct social science

research from start to finish. I would have the confidence to undertake further study and make a contribution to my community of practice on investigation of minority students' foreign language learning attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and motivations, and enrichment of the content of procedure of FLPLP implementation, particularly in the context of Chinese minority areas.

The study has shown the importance of understanding the broader context in which student chose to learn Japanese as their third language at university, including the university, classroom and self-learning situations that helped to define the context of FLPLP implementation in a minority area. One of my concerns throughout this study has been the absence of a clear theoretical framework. However, combining qualitative research with quantitative data and students' clear insights into their own foreign language learning situation, have led to the development of a theory on FLPLP evaluation via students' learning experience, and their language attitudes, perceptions and beliefs as significant factors for FLPLP assessment. The themes, concepts and key findings provide a new perspective for FLPLP assessment, and these need to be fulfilled and developed in further research.

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Appendix A

Title: "Survey on Mongolian university students' Japanese language learning"

I would like to express our gratitude in advance for taking the time in filling out the attached questionnaire which investigates the foreign language choice of bilingual Monoglian students and the factors support your choice of Japanese learning in the university context. This survey has five sections; the first section is about yourself, the second one is about you as a student, the third part is your views on learning Japanese, the fourth section is your views on Japanese learning materials, and last one is about your views on Japanese class.

You have been selected because you are a member of the investigated community. I am interested only in obtaining the needed information that helps me find valid answers for the current study. Thank you very much for your cooperation in this study.

All information provided will be used by the researcher for only scientific research purposes.

Section 1: Yourself (please tick your response)

1.1 Age:

[ ]17 [ ]18 [ ]19 [ ]20 [ ]21or older

1.2 Gender:

[ ] Female [ ]Male

1.3 Where were you born?

[ ]Tongliao [ ]Chifeng [ ]Ulanhot [ ]Manzhouli [ ]Hulunbuir

[ ] Other _____(specify)

1.4 Where have you live most of your life?

[ ]Tongliao [ ]Chifeng [ ]Ulanhot [ ]Manzhouli [ ]Hulunbuir

[ ] Other _____(specify)

1.5 Why are you living there?

[ ] Study [ ] Family relocation [ ] Other _____ (specify)

1.6 What is the first language of your father?

[ ] Mongolian [ ] Chinese [ ] Other _____ (specify)

1.7 What is the first language of your father?

[ ] Mongolian [ ] Chinese [ ] Other _____ (specify)

1.8 What languages are you speaking for everyday use at home?

[ ] Mongolian [ ] Chinese [ ] Mix (Mongolian &Chinese)

[ ] Other _____ (specify)

1.9 Have your parents help you to learn Chinese at home?

[ ] always [ ] frequently [ ] infrequently [ ] never

1.10 How much do you think your parents feel that study a foreign language is very important?

[ ] very much [ ] quite a lot [ ] so-so

[ ] not really [ ] not at all

Section 2: Student

2.1 What is the year of your study in MinDa University (MDU)?

[ ] first year [ ] second year

2.2 What kind of high schools you have completed?

[ ] Ethnic high school

[ ] Ordinary high school (study with majority students)

[ ] Other _____ (specify)

2.3 What was your foreign language learning in high school?

[ ] English [ ] Japanese [ ] Russian [ ] other _____ (specify)

2.4 Which discipline did you choose in high school?

Art [ ] Science [ ] Other [ ]

2.5 What is your Major in MDU?

_____ (Specify)

2.6 Which is you foreign language choice in MDU?

[ ] Japanese [ ] English [ ] Russian

2.7 How long have you been learning Japanese?

[ ] Several months [ ] 1 year [ ] 2 year [ ] longer

2.8 How much time do you spend learning Japanese after class each week?

[ ] less than 30 minutes per week [ ] 31-60 minutes per week

[ ] more than 1 hour [ ] more than two hours

2.9 What Japanese courses have you taken so far?

College Japanese (1) [ ] College Basic Japanese (1) [ ]

College Japanese (2) [ ] College Basic Japanese (2) [ ]

College Japanese (3) [ ] College Basic Japanese (3) [ ]

Section 3: Views on learning Japanese

3.1 Which of these languages do you think is most difficult to learn?

[ ] Japanese [ ] English

3.2 What is your motivation for learning Japanese?

This question is going to be statements some people agree with and some people don't. I would like to know to what extent they describe your own feelings or situation. After each statement you will find five boxes. Please put an '**√**' in the box which best expresses how true the statement is about your feeling or situation.

1: Absolutely true 2: Mostly true 3. Partly true/Partly untrue

4. Not really true 5. Not true at all

	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.1 People around you tend to think that it is a good thing to know Japanese.					
3.2.2 Your parents really encourage you to study Japanese.					
3.2.3 Majority classmates' choice					
3.2.4 You really enjoy learning Japanese.					
3.2.5 Take a trip to Japan without translator.					
3.2.6 Pursue further study in Japan.					
3.2.7 Make Japanese friends.					
3.2.8 Similarity with Mongolian language					
3.2.9 Similarity with Chinese					
3.2.10 Japanese is much easier than English					
3.2.11 Pass the College Foreign language Test Band 4					
3.2.12 Pass the foreign language entrance exams for postgraduate schools					
3.2.13 The things you want to do in the future require you to speak Japanese.					
3.2.14 You like Japanese culture					
3.2.15 Watching Japanese TV or Movie without Chinese subtitles					
3.2.16 Listening Japanese music					
3.2.17 Other: (specify)					

3.3 Which Japanese language ability do you think is most difficult to learn?

[ ] Listening [ ] Speaking [ ] Reading [ ] Speaking [ ] Translation

3.4 Which Japanese language ability do you think has improved quickly after one term of study?

[ ] Listening [ ] Speaking [ ] Reading [ ] Speaking [ ] Translation

Section 4: Views on Japanese learning materials

4.1 Would you agree with the learning materials for learning Japanese were relevant and useful?

[ ] Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Uncertain

[ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree

4.2 Do you agree with the recommended reading books etc. were relevant and appropriate?

[ ] Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Uncertain

[ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree

4.3 Which skills did the materials helped you to learn Japanese?

[ ] Listening [ ] Speaking [ ] Reading [ ] Speaking [ ] Translation

4.4 Which skills of the materials did not help you to learn Japanese?

[ ] Listening [ ] Speaking [ ] Reading [ ] Speaking [ ] Translation

Section 5: Views on Japanese class

5.1 What is language of teaching in the Japanese language class?

[ ] Mongolian [ ] Chinese [ ] Japanese

[ ] Mix (Mongolian & Chinese)

[ ] Mix (Mongolian & Japanese)

[ ] Mix (Chinese & Japanese)

5.2 Do you agree with the overall environment in the class helped you to learn Japanese?

[ ] Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Uncertain

[ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree

5.3 Do you agree with the class stimulated your interest on thought on the Japanese learning?

[ ] Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Uncertain

[ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly disagree

THANK YOU VERY MUCH----I REALLY APPRECIAE YOUR HELP!

Appendix B

Interview questions for administrators

Course director:

1. Do you think the language policy for bilingual Mongolian university students in MDU has influenced the distribution of students? Which language attracts more Mongolian students?

(Assumption answer: Japanese attracts more bilingual Mongolian university students to study; our school encourages students according to their own preference to choose their foreign language course….)

2. When were the Mongolian students given the right to choose their foreign language course implemented in MDU?
3. What is your general impression and understanding of this language policy in MDU?
4. What are the purposes and objectives of this language policy in MDU?

(Assumption answer: This language policy in MDU gives the right to students….)

5. How do Mongolian students benefit from this language policy?
6. How was the curriculum for Mongolian students in MDU worked out in the light of the foreign language policy?
7. Are you happy with the foreign language curriculum for Mongolian students? Is there any part that needs to be improved?

(Assumption answer: The class hours are few, it is quite difficult for us to satisfy the students' interests on Japanese language learning……)

8. Do you provide any special lectures on language culture, history and geography for Mongolian students? Do you think these lectures influence Mongolian students' preference of foreign language study?

(Assumption answer: According to the teaching materials, we arranged some teaching activities to introduce some interesting culture knowledge for students……)

9. If so, how do these lectures influence Mongolian students' preference of foreign language study?

(Assumption answer: After class, some students would search this cultural information

through the Internet, some students like to watch Japanese TV shows, these knowledge could help them to understand contents of Japanese television programs better….)

10. What do you think of the quality of foreign language teaching? Is there part would like to improve?
11. What do you think of the evaluation of teaching of foreign language courses for Mongolian students? Is there anything you would like to improve?

(Assumption answer: We could set up a series of evaluation mechanism to ……)

12. What do you think Mongolian students will have learned when they finish their foreign langue courses?
13. How do you think the foreign language ability of Mongolian graduates from MDU will satisfy the requirements of the job market or postgraduate study?

Dean:

1. Do you think the language policy for bilingual Mongolian university students in MDU has influenced the distribution of students? Which language attracts more Mongolian students?
2. When were the Mongolian students given the right to choose their foreign language course implemented in MDU?
3. What is your general impression and understanding of this language policy in MDU?

(Assumption answer: MDU provides English, Japanese, and Russian for bilingual Mongolian university students to choose……)

4. What are the purposes and objectives of this language policy in MDU?

(Assumption answer: The language policy of MDU gives the right to students…)

5. How do you understand this language policy prepares Mongolian students to learn foreign languages?
6. How do Mongolian students benefit from this language policy?
7. What are the main factors that influenced your decision in relation to the language policy in MDU?

(Assumption answer: Most of bilingual Mongolian students learned English as

compulsory subject during their high school, and their English scores of college entrance examination are very low, so we hope that give them a chance….)

8. How do you understand the language policy in the Inner Mongolia multilingual context?
9. Is there a gap between language policy in MDU and national language policy? If there is, what is it and why does it exist?

(Assumption answer: National language encourages developing English education in China, but the minority areas are based on their real situation to develop their regional language policy……)

10. Are there any local governmental departments providing suggestions and help for your institutional language policy design and implementation?
11. Have you adjusted the MDU langue policy for Mongolian students based on national language? If here has been an adjustment, what was it and why was it necessary?
12. How do you define an appropriate institutional language policy?
13. Did you have to develop any special rules for the MDU language policy from the national policy?
14. How do you think language policy for Mongolian students will develop?

Chancellor:

1. How do you understand the relationship of language policy among state laws, regional administrative regulations and local government rules?
2. Do you think the recent language policy for bilingual Mongolian university students in MDU has influenced the distribution of students?
3. What is your general impression and understanding of this language policy in MDU?
4. What are the purposes and objectives of this language policy in MDU?
5. What are the main factors that influenced your decision in relation to the language policy in MDU?
6. How do you understand the language policy in the Inner Mongolia multilingual context?

7. Is there a gap between language policy in MDU and national language policy? If there is, what is it and why does it exist?
8. Are there any local political departments providing suggestions and help for your institutional language policy design and implement?
9. Have you adjusted the MDU langue policy for Mongolian students based on national language policy? If here has been an adjustment, what was it and why was necessary?
10. How do you define an appropriate institutional language policy?
11. Did you have to develop any special rules for the MDU language policy from the national policy?
12. How do you think language policy for Mongolian students will develop?

Appendix C

Interview questions for 'lecturers'

1. What courses are you teaching in MDU?
2. How long have you taught these courses?

3. Do you think the language policy for bilingual Mongolian university students in MDU has influenced the distribution of students? Which language attracts more bilingual Mongolian university students?
4. What is your general impression of foreign language courses for Mongolian bilingual university students in MDU?
5. How do you understand your language course prepares bilingual Mongolian university students to learn foreign language?
6. What do you think bilingual Mongolian university students will have learned when they finish your course?

7. Are you happy with the course syllabus you are teaching? Why? Why not? What would you like to do differently?
8. Have you adjusted your course curriculum and objectives based on the MDU language policy? If there has been an adjustment, what was it and why was necessary?

9. What are the main problems that you often experience when you are teaching?
10. What is your teaching strategy and procedure in and after the foreign course?
11. What kind of teaching materials do you use in and after your foreign language class? Are you happy with these materials?
12. How does the organisation (e.g. order of actives) of these teaching materials influence your teaching?
13. Do your think these teaching materials influence your students' foreign language learning?
14. Which parts of teaching material do you like and help your students improve their

language ability quickly?

15. What is language of teaching in your class? How much can your students understand? Does the understanding degree on language of teaching affect your students' foreign language learning?
16. Do you think the language of the class helps your students learn foreign language?
17. How about the interaction in and after your class?
18. How do you think the quality of Mongolian students' foreign language learning? Is there any part that needs to be improved?

19. How would you define a successful trilingual Mongolian student?
20. What ability and knowledge they need to learn to become a good student of foreign languages? Do you provide this ability or knowledge in your class?
21. How do you think the recent foreign language courses for Mongolian graduates in MDU will satisfy the requirements of the job market or postgraduate study?

22. What are your students' most common errors in your class? Do you think either Mongolian or Chinese interfere and cause these errors?
23. How do you think the history, culture, etc. of Inner Mongolia influence your students' preference of foreign language study? Do you know some personal reasons for you students choose a particular foreign language?

Appendix D

Interview questions for 'undergraduate students' (full time, preparatory, freshmen and sophomore of Eastern Mongolian university students)

1. What is your age?
2. What is your major?
3. May I know your foreign language grades in national college entrance exam?
4. What kind of high schools you have completed? Ethnic high school or ordinary high school (study with majority students)
5. What is your foreign language learning in high school?
6. What foreign language courses are you learning in your university?
7. How long have you studied it?

8. What are your opinions toward choosing one from three foreign languages?
9. What is your general impression of Mongolian students' foreign language courses in your university?

10. What kind of learning materials do you use in and after your foreign language class? Are you happy with these materials?
11. How does the editing of these learning materials influence your foreign language learning?
12. Which parts of learning material do you like and could help you improve your language ability quickly?
13. What is your medium of instruction in the foreign language class?
14. How much could you understand this medium of instruction?
15. How does the degree of understanding regarding the medium of instruction affect your foreign language learning?
16. Do you like to answer the teachers' questions during the foreign language class? Why? Why not?
17. Do you get any suggestions or actions for changing or improving your Japanese

class?

18. How would you define a successful trilingual Mongolian student?

19. What ability and knowledge do you need to learn to become a good student of foreign language learning? Does your course provide you with this ability or knowledge?

20. What are your most common errors while processing and producing languages that are very similar to the languages you have already acquired (Mongolian language and Chinese language)?

21. How do these common errors of your first or second language affect your foreign language learning?

22. In a conversational context (interaction activity), what is your language selected and sequence among Mongolian language, Chinese and foreign language? (What does this mean? Language selected and sequence?

23. How do you think the history, culture, etc. influence your preference of foreign language study?

24. Could you explain some reasons and influential factors in your selection of a foreign language course?

Appendix E



PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Project title ： Bilingual Mongolian students' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs on the process of foreign language policy and language planning implementation in an Eastern Mongolian university

Researcher's name: NA JIAN

Supervisors' names: 1) Dr. Juliet Thondhlana 2) Dr. Xin Gao

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and voluntarily agree to take part in this study.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.
- I understand that I will be audiotaped during the interviews and classroom observations.
- I understand that data will be stored in a secured database. This data will be treated confidentially and will only be accessed by the researcher, the supervisors and the examiners.
- I understand that I may contact the researcher or supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Research Ethics Coordinator of the School of Education, University of Nottingham, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

Research Participant:

Signature:
Print name:

E-mail:
Date:
Phone Number:
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