Parental Factors in Japanese Language Planning Policy in Vietnam[§]
越南日語規劃政策中的家長因素

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Abstract

Embedded in the Soft Power policy of Japan, Japanese language education is promoted to contribute to the expansion of Japan's impacts in Asia. In Vietnam, this program was conducted through a joint project by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and Japan's Embassy. Although English is still regarded as a dominant foreign language in this country, Japanese has been drawing more attention in recent years. However, while English education is well-explored and assessed academically from various perspectives, there is still a lack of research in Japanese teaching and learning. Firmly grounded on Spolsky's model of Language Planning Policy (LPP), this study centralizes parents as an influential factor in the language choices. From the LPP and Self-Determination Theory (SDT) perspectives, it examines the impacts of Japan's Soft Power policy on community's ideologies and perceptions, and how it may influence their language choices. Centralizing parents of junior-high-school learners of Japanese, the results revealed that language was an effective medium to exhibit diplomatic influence on another country. Implications are also discussed.

摘要

在軟實力政策(Soft Power policy)推進下，日本為擴大在亞洲的影響力而推廣日語教育。此政策在越南的實施是由越南教育和培訓部 (MOET) 以及日本大使館聯合舉辦。雖然英語在這個國家仍然被認為是主要的外語，但近年來日語越來越受到關注。不過，日語的教與學，從各個角度來看，仍然缺乏研究，即便英語教育已經有了很好的探索和學術評估。本研究以 Spolsky 的語言規劃政策 (LPP, Language Planning Policy) 模型為基礎，將父母視為語言選擇的影響因素。從 LPP 和自我決定理論 (SDT, Self-Determination Theory) 的角度，它考察了日本的軟實力政策對社區意識形態和觀念的影響，以及它如何影響他們的語言選擇。以國中日語學習者的父母為中心，本研究結果顯示語言是對另一個國家外交影響的有效媒介，還有其他影響亦一併討論。

1.   Introduction

In response to the aging population, increasing the number of foreign workers has been regarded as a compensation for the shortage of domestic human resources in Japan. As such, Japanese language teaching for foreigners overseas and in Japan has become an urgent matter for the government[1]. The expansion of Japanese language learning is believed to serve as a medium to understand Japanese culture, society, politics, and economy, which, eventually, will increase the number of people who bond with Japan.

In fact, since 2011, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs[2] has embedded Japanese language as an element of Japan's 'Soft Power' along with aspects of Cool Japan such as anime and fashion. Thereby, Japanese language has been viewed and presented by the Japanese government concerning Japan's Soft Power and cultural diplomacy. In the document, spreading Japanese language was described as part of Japan's economic strategy in Asia, in which ASEAN is one of the regions that this diplomacy policy aims at. ASEAN was heeded due to its historical factors, and the positive attitudes towards Japanese cultures and values commonly shared by a majority of the society, documented by a large body of work.[3]

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1 Kayoko Hashimoto, "Cool Japan and Japanese Language: Why Does Japan Need "Japan Fans"?," ed. Kayoko Hashimoto (Singapore: Palgrave Macmillan, 2018), 10.

2 MOFA, *Budgetary request for "special projects for revival of vigorous/active Japan" (元気な日本復活)* (2011),
   http://www.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/annai/yosan_kessan/mofa_yosan_kessan/fukkatsuwaku/index.html.

3 Quansheng Zhao, "Japan's Leadership Role in East Asia: Cooperation and Competition between Japan and China," *Policy and Society* 23, no. 1 (2004), https://doi.org/10.1016/S1449-4035(04)70029-6; Lam Peng Er, "Japan's search for a political role in Southeast Asia," *Southeast Asian Affairs* (1996), http://www.jstor.org/stable/27912145; Lam Peng Er, "Japan's Postwar Reconciliation with Southeast Asia," (The Institute for Peace and Unification Studies, Seoul National University, 2015). http://hdl.handle.net/10371/94368; Corey Wallace, "Japan's strategic contrast: continuing influence despite relative power decline in Southeast Asia," *The Pacific Review* 32, no. 5 (2019), https://doi.org/10.1080/09512748.2019.1569115; Nobuko Ichikawa, Michael A. Cusumano, and Karen R. Polenske, "Japanese investment and influence in Thai development," *Technology in Society* 13, no. 4 (1991), https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-791X(91)90046-Y; Yuko Kinoshita, *The role of Japanese language education in the Asian Century* (2014).

In Vietnam, this Soft Power diplomacy of Japan was accelerated by the National Language Project 2020 initiated by the Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training[4]. Alongside acts to improve general English proficiency, MOET also introduced more languages to the general education curriculum, which offered learners a variety of foreign language choices. Amongst those newly introduced languages, Japanese seems to be the most prevalent, which has been stretched out to most schools across the country. In a survey conducted in 2017[5], 68% of the surveyed citizens chose Japanese as their most favorite foreign language apart from English. In addition, the Japan Foundation also supports MOET to introduce Japanese-language education as a first foreign language at the secondary education level in Vietnam, which led to the proliferation of this language in Vietnam's national education system.

In addition to those macro-level attempts, the success of a language planning policy is also dependent on the practice community. According to Spolsky[6], there are three components of a language planning policy, namely practices, beliefs and ideologies, and management. Language management, which is usually referred to as language planning, is "a broad range of decisions affecting the structure, function, and acquisition of language in schools". Regarding the other two components, while practices is language behavior of the community, beliefs reflect motivation for language policy or reflect the power of a language variety within a speech community. As the three components are equally important, researchers should probe into and incorporate both macro and micro perspectives, i.e., "state and institutional policymaking processes" and "local practices in classrooms, families, and other social groups"[7]. Accordingly, in the current Vietnam's context,

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4 Prime Minister, "Decision 1400/QĐ-TTg," (2008). http://vanban.chinhphu.vn/portal/page/portal/chinhphu/hethongvanban?class_id=1&_page=1&mode=detail&document_id=78437.

5 MOFA, *Opinion Poll on Japan - Asian* (2017), https://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/culture/pr/index.html.

6 Bernard Spolsky, "Investigating Language Education Policy," in *Research Methods in Language and Education* (2017).

7 James W. Tollefson, "Language Planning in Education," in *Language Policy and Political Issues*

in accordance with the Soft Power policy of Japan, which attempts to pose more influence on people's ideologies by language and arts, an investigation into learners' beliefs toward the language and their motivation to choose that language variety is quite crucial.

As for the Japanese language learners participated in the program, at the age when they entered junior high-school, they still tend to be reliant on their parents. Thus, their learning in general, and language choice, in particular, are susceptible to their parents' will and conditions[8]. Furthermore, Asian parents have a tendency to control and interfere with their children's learning process[9]. Similar to most Asian countries, apart from the fact that learning a foreign language is a compulsory subject at school, young learners' choices of foreign languages to learn in Vietnam are influenced by their parents. Nonetheless, parents' roles in YLs' motivation to learn a foreign language is not well understood.

Therefore, under the construct of language planning policy, given the roles of parents on children's study in Asian context and influences they may have on their young children's motivation for language learning, and the special context of Japanese language education in Vietnam, this research focuses on parental factors in Japanese language education in Vietnam. Specifically, it employed the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) to explore which factors motivated those parents to choose Japanese as a second language for their children, and how they influence their children's learning process. SDT, which comprises of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, is believed to offer an insightful and comprehensive discussion to bridge the contextual factors (language education trends) and the internally individual factors (language motivation), which can shed lights to this

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in Education (2017), 24.

8 Yuko Goto Butler, "Parental factors in children's motivation for learning English: a case in China," *Research Papers in Education* 30, no. 2 (2015), https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2014.891643; Yuko Goto Butler, "Parental factors and early English education as a foreign language: a case study in Mainland China," *Research Papers in Education* 29, no. 4 (2014), https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2013.776625.

9 Butler, "Parental factors and early English education as a foreign language: a case study in Mainland China."

under-researched issue in Vietnam. This study is guided by three research questions:

1. To what extent did Japan's presentations impact people's perceptions and language motivations?

2. To what extent do parents involve in their children' learning process? What are their ideologies toward Japanese language?

3. What motivate parents to choose Japanese for their children? What motivates young learners to learn Japanese?

2. Literature Review

The Japanese Language as a Soft Power Tool

The concept of Soft Power was first coined by Joseph Nye in 1992. Recently, he defined Soft Power as "the ability to affect others and obtain preferred outcomes by attraction and persuasion rather than coercion or payment"[10]. Accordingly, the essence of Soft Power is "coopts people rather than coerces them", which is to tenderly shape the preferences of others, and gradually make them have the same outcomes as yours[11].

The term Soft Power itself is appealing partly because its positive image allows subjective interpretations by governments. Chitty [12] summarizes basic sources of Soft Power are culture, economics, ethics, legal, military, and politics. These are mediums that enable Japan to have influence on people in other countries[13]. However, Japan tends to overwhelmingly equate Soft Power with

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10   Joseph S. Nye, "Soft Power: the origins and political progress of a concept," *Palgrave Communications* 3 (2017): 2.

11   Joseph S. Nye, *Soft Power: The Means to Success in World Politics* (New York: Public Affairs, 2004), 5.

12   Naren Chitty, "Introduction," ed. Naren Chitty et al. (New York: Routledge, 2017).

13   Stephanie Christine Winkler, "'Soft Power is such a benign animal': narrative power and the

popular culture, based on an assumed metamorphosis from culture to power[14]. Originally, in the proposal entitled "MEXT's international strategies"[15], the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology defined economics as hard power, whereas only culture was seen as Soft Power, excluding Japanese language.

Over the past two decades, Japan's popular culture has been extensively promulgated throughout Northeast and Southeast Asia[16]. In addition to the economic influence in this region, Japan's Soft Power is also presented by a wide range of cultural means, such as music, animation, comics, movies, to name just a few. These products not only introduce a multitude of consumption options but also have an impact on the way young urban consumers imagine and think about Japan. In fact, a census in 2009[17] revealed that Japan was always ranked amongst the top countries that had influential diplomatic, human capital and cultural Soft Power in the surveyed countries in Pacific Asia. In fact, in an opinion poll conducted in 10 ASEAN countries by MOFA[18], Japan ranked the most reliable and important partner to 9 out of 10 surveyed countries. Besides the reputation in economy and technology, Japan's rich culture and tradition were the most appealing aspects of this country which attracted 57% of the respondents to explore more.

Not only can culture act as an effective means to disseminate Soft Power in other countries, but also language is increasingly used for Soft Power proliferation.

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reification of concepts in Japan," *Cambridge Review of International Affairs* 32, no. 4 (2019), https://doi.org/10.1080/09557571.2019.1623171.

14   Jing Sun, *Japan and China as Charm Rivals: Soft Power in Regional Diplomacy* (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 2013).

15   MEXT, *MEXT's International Strategies* (2004), https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/kokusai/senryaku/index.htm.

16   Kadosh Nissim Otmazgin and Nissim Otmazgin, "Japan imagined: popular culture, soft power, and Japan's changing image in Northeast and Southeast Asia," *Contemporary Japan* 24, no. 1 (2012), https://doi.org/10.1515/cj-2012-0001.

17   Christopher B. Whitney and David Shambaugh, *Soft Power in Asia: Results of a 2008 Multinational Survey of Public Opinion* (2009).

18   MOFA, *Opinion Poll on Japan - Asian*.

The expansion of English, as a lingua franca, has massively influenced non–English-speaking countries in Asia. The responses and struggles of these countries in response to the rapid spread of English have been explored in terms of identity, medium of instruction, and education[19]. Nye[20] pointed out that Japan's weakness in languages made it difficult for Japan to practice its Soft Power as efficiently as expected. While Japanese language is not one of the most spoken languages in the world, Japanese' English proficiencies ranked among the worst in Asia, which inhibits the nation's effort to enhance intercultural communication and international exchange in response to its issues of aging population and birth rate reduction.

The situation remained unchanged in the course of a decade: the English proficiency of Japanese people is still low [21] , and Japanese language is acknowledged as an official language only in Japan. In 2011, MOFA defined Japan's Soft Power as the creative power of "Cool Japan" and the power of Japanese culture, positioning Japanese language into this concept for the first time. Since then, it is recorded that there have been more countries offering Japanese as an additional language, particularly in Asia and Oceania[22]. In particular, in the above-mentioned opinion poll in ASEAN countries[23], Japanese ranked the most favorite foreign language to learn in general (61%). Interestingly, the sources of motivation of learners choosing Japanese were their interest in visiting Japan (58%), travelling to Japan for sightseeing (54%) or understanding more about Japanese culture and lifestyle (51%), and enjoying Japanese creative culture such as fashion, music, movies, comics, and animations (42%). The results of this

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19   Kayoko Hashimoto, *Introduction: Why Language Matters in Soft Power* (Singapore: Palgrave Macmillan, 2018).

20   Nye, *Soft Power: The Means to Success in World Politics*.

21   Hashimoto, *Introduction: Why Language Matters in Soft Power*.

22   Hashimoto, *Introduction: Why Language Matters in Soft Power*; Hashimoto, "Cool Japan and Japanese Language: Why Does Japan Need "Japan Fans"?."

23   MOFA, *Opinion Poll on Japan - Asian*.

survey reinforced the fact that Japan Soft Power is efficiently conveyed via culture and language education, between which an interplay was recognized.

While Japan's Soft Power exercises through popular culture and language education and its impacts on the society were academically acknowledged in such Pacific Asian countries as Indonesia, Singapore, Korea, Thailand, Australia, etc.[24]; its practice and influences in Vietnam's society is underexplored. In addition, while studies in every aspect of English education are well documented, even in Japan, studies on Japanese language teaching itself outside Japan is still in its infancy.

Japanese Language Education in Vietnam

Since the 30th anniversary of the establishment of Japan-Vietnam diplomatic relations in 2003, the Japan Embassy in Vietnam and the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) have jointly implemented the pilot project of Japanese Language Education in Junior high-schools in some big cities in Vietnam since the school year 2004-2005. In collaboration with Vietnam's MOET, the Japan Foundation has been implementing a variety of measures to support this language's popularity. The program has stretched to more schools after more than 10 years of implications. As of October 2017, there were more than 10,000 Japanese language learners at the secondary education level, and the number of schools offering

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24 S. Han, "Indonesia, Japanophile: Japanese Soft Power in Indonesia" (paper presented at the GSCIS Singapore 2015, Singapore, 2015 2015); Kaoru Kadowaki, "The Roles of Native Japanese Speaker Teachers in Japanese Language Programmes at High Schools in South Korea, Indonesia and Thailand," ed. Kayoko Hashimoto (Singapore: Palgrave Macmillan, 2018); Esther Lovely, "Accessing the Soft Power of Japanese Language in Australia: Young Korean Migrants Studying Japanese as a Foreign Language," ed. Kayoko Hashimoto (Singapore: Palgrave Macmillan, 2018); Masakazu Matsuoka, "Media and Cultural Policy and Japanese Language Education in Japanese-Occupied Singapore, 1942–1945," ed. Kayoko Hashimoto (Singapore: Palgrave Macmillan, 2018); A. Safril Mubah, "Japanese Public Diplomacy in Indonesia: The Role of Japanese Agencies in Academic Exchange Programs between Japan and Indonesia," *Jurnal Global & Strategis* 13 (2019), https://doi.org/10.20473/jgs.13.1.2019.37-50.

Japanese language education in the national education system reached the number of 70 schools (42 junior high schools and 28 high schools). Since September 2016, Japanese (as a first foreign language) program has been trialed at five elementary schools in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City[25].

During its pilot implementation, the Japanese-language education in Vietnam was fortunately supported by the National Language Project 2020. This project aims at enhancing foreign language competences in Vietnam, by improving its citizens' English proficiency and introducing more foreign languages to junior-high-school curriculums, apart from English, with the hope that foreign language will become a competitive human capital of Vietnamese young workers in both domestic and overseas labor markets[26]. Therefore, since the school year 2018, Japanese was officially acknowledged as an optional second language in general Education system, accompanied by a guideline on educational programs as well as a determination of 6 levels of language proficiency for learners upon their completion of the 7-year-program[27]. The program comprises 735 hours of instruction, which requires students to reach level 2 of the national foreign language benchmark. Notwithstanding its escalating popularity in Vietnam, there has yet to be academic evaluations of various aspects of the program, such as its efficacy, its adaptability in response to socio-economic demands, or its learners' performance and psychological aspects as can be found in English.

Given its escalating number of learners in Vietnam, there is a need to examine the reason why Vietnamese parents send their children to a bilanguage program of a secondary foreign language instead of such a predominant foreign language as English.

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25   Foundation Japan, *Japan Foundation Annual Report 2017/2018* (2017).

26   Prime Minister, "Decision 2080/QĐ-TTg," (2017). http://vanban.chinhphu.vn/portal/page/portal/chinhphu/hethongvanban?class_id=2&_page=1 &mode=detail&document_id=192343; Prime Minister, "Decision 1400/QĐ-TTg."

27   MOET, *Japanese Language Education Programme* (2018), http://news.attachment.vnecdn.net/2018/12/27/26-CT-Tieng-Nhat-pdf.pdf; MOET, *Practical Japanese Language Education* (2018).

Parents' Roles in Language Planning Policy

In the field of Language Planning Policy (LPP), the three-pronged model of language policy proposed by Spolsky[28] is widely used, as it is more multifaceted and multilayered. This model offers policy analysis from high-level *management* (the government-led planning) to a consideration of both the *practices* (the actual use of languages) and the *beliefs and ideologies* (the things that people believe about languages), which can shed light on community's linguistic choices[29]. Although there have been several modified models, they still revolve around three levels of language policy (Figure 1). In addition, Kaplan[30] also stressed that language planning should be critically examined at the *macro*, *meso* and *micro* levels. Hence, conscientious investigation into LPP's national implementation and practitioners' local practices should be taken heed of. Viewing the family as "a key prerequisite for maintaining and preserving languages"[31], various scholars have explored family language policy based on Spolsky's model[32].

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28   B. Spolsky, *Language policy* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2004); Spolsky, *Language policy*.

29   John Walsh, "Language policy and language governance: a case-study of Irish language legislation," *Language Policy* 11, no. 4 (2012), https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-012-9238-7.

30   R.B. Kaplan and R.B. Jr. Baldauf, *Language Planning from Practice to Theory* (Clevedon: Multilingual Matters., 1997).

31   M. Schwartz and A. Verschik, *Successful family language policy: parents, children and educators in interaction* (Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer, 2013), 1.

32   Xiao Lan Curdt-Christiansen and Weihong Wang, "Parents as agents of multilingual education: family language planning in China," *Language, Culture and Curriculum* 31, no. 3 (2018), https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2018.1504394; Xiao Lan Curdt-Christiansen and Francesca La Morgia, "Managing heritage language development: Opportunities and challenges for Chinese, Italian and Pakistani Urdu-speaking families in the UK," *Multilingua* 37, no. 2 (2018), https://doi.org/10.1515/multi-2017-0019; Ana I. Schwartz and Judith F. Kroll, "Bilingual lexical activation in sentence context," *Journal of Memory and Language* 55, no. 2 (2006), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2006.03.004.
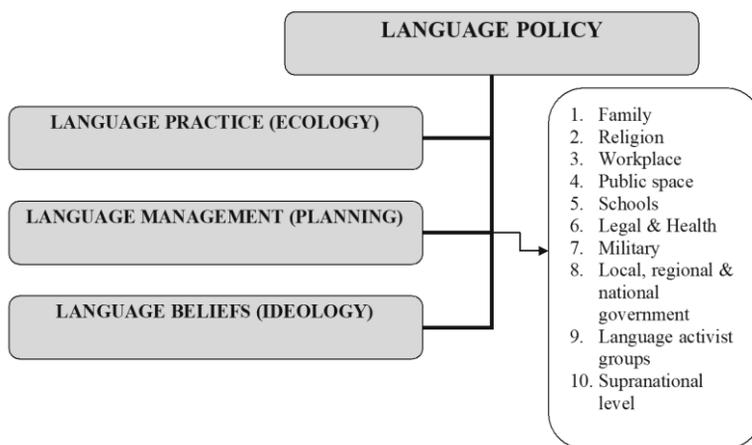
Figure 1:Intersection of language policy and management approaches[33]

Family language policy (FLP) can be defined as "a deliberate attempt at practicing a particular language use pattern and particular literacy practices within home domains and among family members"[34]. It reflects parental factors in language planning policy. Research on FLP usually aims to explain how language policies at governmental and institutional levels impede and prevent or support and promote family language policies[35]. As such, the study of FLP can shed light on parental language ideologies that reflect and refract broader societal attitudes and ideologies about both languages(s) and parenting[36]. In addition, FLP should be explored within the frameworks of language policy and child language acquisition,

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33 *Walsh, "Language policy and language governance: a case-study of Irish language legislation," 326.*

34 Xiao Lan Curdt-Christiansen, "Invisible and visible language planning: ideological factors in the family language policy of Chinese immigrant families in Quebec," *Language Policy* 8, no. 4 (2009/11/01 2009): 352, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-009-9146-7.

35 Curdt-Christiansen, "Invisible and visible language planning: ideological factors in the family language policy of Chinese immigrant families in Quebec."

36 K. A. King, L. Fogle, and A. Logan-Terry, "Family language policy," *Language and Linguistics Compass* 2, no. 5 (2008).

especially from the psychological lens to see how socio-cultural factors influence children's language development[37]. This suggestion necessitates an exploration into parents' ideologies of a language variation, their linguistic choices, in correlation with their children's motivation to learn a language[38].

Parent-Oriented Learning Motivation

Adult and child L2 learners own different types of motivation, which notably affects the efficacy of the teaching methodologies in language classroom. In search of a more appropriate L2 motivation framework for young learners, some research has been conducted to identify the young learners' affective factors at different developmental stages[39].

Parental factors in language learning motivation are conventionally considered external components, which are less influential as learners grow older[40]. In the early years of children's education, their parents' beliefs, attitudes, and involvement are decisive factors in forming and molding L2 learners' learning motivation and L2 achievement. Studies have identified parental/caregiver encouragement as a vital factor for children's L2 motivation[41].

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37 King, Fogle, and Logan-Terry, "Family language policy."

38 Sonia Wilson, "Fostering Harmonious Bilingual Development Through Family Language Policy," in *Family Language Policy: Children's Perspectives* (Cham: Springer International Publishing, 2020); Achilleas Kostoulas and Eleni Motsiou, "Family language policy in mixed-language families: an exploratory study of online parental discourses," *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* (2020), https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2020.1715915.

39 X. Zhang, "Why do children learn Chinese? An exploratory study of parental beliefs, classroom motivational strategies, and young learners' motivated behaviors," ed. Ko-Yin Sung (Lanham, MD, United States: Lexington Books, 2019).

40 Zhang, "Why do children learn Chinese? An exploratory study of parental beliefs, classroom motivational strategies, and young learners' motivated behaviors."

41 Mercè Bernaus et al., "Motivation and Attitudes Towards Learning Languages in Multicultural Classrooms," *International Journal of Multilingualism* March 1 (2010), https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710408668180; Junko Carreira, "Motivation for Learning English as a Foreign Language in Japanese Elementary Schools," *JALT Journal* 28 (2006); Curdt-Christiansen and Wang, "Parents as agents of multilingual education: family language

Recently, there has been a growing body of work on children's motivation that focuses on parent-oriented learning motivation as "a mechanism through which parents' involvement facilitates children's achievement"[42]. Cheung and Pomerantz [43] found that parental motivation correlates with both extrinsic (controlled motivation) and intrinsic (autonomous motivation) motivation. From this study, they also proposed that parent-oriented motivation should be distinct from the extrinsic- intrinsic dichotomy and be defined as a unique form of motivation. In line with this trend, Butler's [44] study concentrated on parental factors in the development of motivation in young Chinese learners of English study. She found that Chinese young learners show high levels of parent-oriented motivation at younger ages (ages ten to eleven) and that parents are "the most influential source of 'imprinting' the utilitarian beliefs on children."[45].

With the inheriting impact of Confucius ideologies, topics on exploring Asian or Chinese learners' characteristics have been drawing much attention due to their unique context. Bao and Lam [46] highlighted the importance of autonomy for children's motivation in collectivistic cultures and found that among three basic psychological needs, '*relatedness*' appears to play a fundamental influence on Chinese children's motivation. Once children have high socioemotional relatedness, they would internalize the choices made by their parents or teachers and still feel autonomous. Li [47] found that Chinese students tend to be both

planning in China."

42   Cecilia Sin-Sze Cheung and Eva M. Pomerantz, "Why does parents' involvement enhance children's achievement? The role of parent-oriented motivation," *Journal of Educational Psychology* 104, no. 3 (2012): 820, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027183.

43   Cheung and Pomerantz, "Why does parents' involvement enhance children's achievement? The role of parent-oriented motivation," 820.

44   Butler, "Parental factors in children's motivation for learning English: a case in China."

45   Butler, "Parental factors in children's motivation for learning English: a case in China," 180.

46   Xue-hua Bao and Shui-fong Lam, "Who Makes the Choice? Rethinking the Role of Autonomy and Relatedness in Chinese Children's Motivation," *Child Development* 79, no. 2 (2008), https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2007.01125.x.

47   Jin Li, "Self in Learning: Chinese Adolescents' Goals and Sense of Agency," *Child Development* 77, no. 2 (2006), https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2006.00883.x.

individual and social, and are both intrinsic and extrinsic. Cheng[48] adapted social goal orientation into Hong Kong context to examine the role of parents and teachers in students' motivation outcomes. Results revealed that internally oriented goals with respect to parents would lead to high behavioral engagement and positive coping; whilst externally oriented goals would result in low behavioral engagement and negative coping. Chan[49] reported that Hong Kong Chinese students are vulnerable to emotional problems including depression and anxiety.

Vietnamese young learners share mutual characteristics with Chinese learners, who are in such a collectivistic culture which is also affected by Confucius's education beliefs. While there are a number of studies triggering different behaviors of Chinese parents/ students compared with their Western counterparts, or Chinese parents' involvement in children's language studies, this topic is still unexplored in Vietnam, even with English – a dominant language in this context, not to mention Japanese education. Given the lack of academic evidence in this area and the escalation of Japanese language in general education, this study was conducted to explore effective mediums of Japan-related factors that might influence learners' perceptions and the relationship between parents and students' motivation.

Motivation to Learn a Language: from Self-Determination Theory Perspectives

Self-determination theory (SDT), proposed by Deci and Ryan[50], is one of the prevalent cognitive psychology theories applied in L2 motivation research, and

48   R. W. Y. Cheng, B. F. H. Leung, and D. M. McInerney, "Social goal orientation, behavioral engagement and coping of Hong Kong Chinese students," ed. G. A. D. Liem and S. H. Tan (Oxon: Routledge, 2018).

49   Siu Chan, Sau Chan, and Wai Kwok, "Ruminative and Catastrophizing Cognitive Styles Mediate the Association Between Daily Hassles and High Anxiety in Hong Kong Adolescents," *Child psychiatry and human development* 46 (2014), https://doi.org/10.1007/s10578-014-0451-9.

50   E. L. Deci and R. M. Ryan, "The empirical exploration of intrinsic motivational processes,"

one of the most dominant and well-known approaches in motivational psychology[51]. It is a human motivational theory that addresses how social factors and individual differences facilitate different types of motivation, and which factors energize and move humans into action. SDT proposes that all human beings have three basic psychological needs, which are autonomy, relatedness, and competence[52], and its centerpiece is to deal with the question on how individuals pursue three core psychological needs.

SDT distinguishes intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with reference to self-determination[53]. In addition, SDT recognizes natural, innate, and constructive tendencies in each individual to get engaged in exploration and to integrate the new experience to the self. In other words, people have tendencies to form the interconnection between their inner self to other individuals in their communities[54]. The issue of internalization is important for examining questions related to "effective parenting", "education", and "environmentalism"[55].

Over the course of its development, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have become "one of the most prominent constructs in motivational psychology"[56]. As being defined by Ryan[57], intrinsic motivation (IM) originates from innate satisfactions of the behaviors, without pressure or impacts of external forces. In other words, if individuals "engaged in an activity freely without being rewarded

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ed. L. Berkowitz (New York: Academic Press., 1980); R. M. Ryan and E. L. Deci, "Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic-dialectical perspective," ed. E. L. Deci and R. M. Ryan (University of Rochester Press., 2002).

51   Z. Dörnyei and S. Ryan, "Motivation," in *The Psychology of the Language Learner Revisited*, ed. Z. Dörnyei and S. Ryan (New York: Routledge, 2015).

52   Dörnyei and Ryan, "Motivation."

53   E. L. Deci, "Promoting Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in People with Mental Retardation,"   (Academic Press, 2004).

54   Ryan and Deci, "Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic-dialectical perspective," 5.

55   Ryan and Deci, "Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic-dialectical perspective."

56   Dörnyei and Ryan, "Motivation."

57   Ryan and Deci, "Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic-dialectical perspective."

and found it highly interesting and enjoyable, the person would clearly be intrinsically motivated"[58].

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation (EM) is initiated by external factors outside the individual self, which is context-dependent, and interconnects with the communities that someone is positioned in. Regarding the interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, a meta-analysis of 128 empirical studies revealed that material rewards undermine intrinsic motivation, while verbal rewards tend to enhance intrinsic motivation for that activity[59].

When being applied into the context of language learning, IM refers to the degree of effort a learner devotes to learn a second/foreign language (L2/FL) resulting from the inherent interest generated by a particular learning activity"[60]; while EM refers to the degree of effort a learner consumes to learn a L2/FL in order to attain some extrinsic rewards or to avoid punishment. Studies following this approach are characterized by an influential work conducted by Noels et al.[61] with the introduction of Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS), which offered free instrument that other researchers could employ. There are two parallel directions of SDT research: bonding with established concepts within the socio-educational model of L2 motivation; or moving towards the sources of motivation either generated within the learners or initiated from micro-contextual determinants[62].

Nevertheless, both the above-mentioned L2 motivation frameworks still have yet to emphasize developmental age as a crucial factor in L2 motivation. In

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58 Ryan and Deci, "Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic-dialectical perspective," 10.
59 E. L. Deci, R. Koestner, and R. M. Ryan, "A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation," *Psychological Bulletin* 125, no. 6 (1999).
60 R. Ellis, *Second language acquisition* (Oxford: Oxford University Press., 1997), 140.
61 Kimberly Noels et al., "Why Are You Learning a Second Language? Motivational Orientations and Self-Determination Theory," *Language Learning* 50 (2000), https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00111.
62 Dörnyei and Ryan, "Motivation."

addition, past studies primarily focused on adult and high-school or college students, and there was a shortage of research work focusing on younger learners, although this age group generally is more susceptible to their teachers and/or parents' behaviors and decisions[63]. Therefore, there is a need to contribute to the exploration of how parental factors influence young learners' academic development. In addition, due to the fact that L2 learners at this age rely heavily on parents' orientation in academic choices, it is vital to examine why their parents choose a secondary foreign language for them to learn.

4. Methods

Context of the Study

This study surveyed citizens in a coastal city in the middle region of Vietnam, which was selected to implement a pilot project on Japanese language education since 2004. There is a growing number of Japanese entrepreneurs investing in this area, as well as more Japanese tourists coming here every year. Therefore, there is a need for human resources in response to new socio-economic development. There were only two junior high-schools offering Japanese language program in the city, and two senior high-schools adopting this special program for students to follow the same foreign language program until they complete their K-12 education. The study was conducted at one of those junior high schools. It was a state school, offering schooling for inhabitants in the surrounding area. For Japanese language program only, this school admitted students from various areas of the city regardless of their household registers.

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63   Butler, "Parental factors and early English education as a foreign language: a case study in Mainland China."

Participants

Participants of this study were the parents of 190 junior-high-school students, grades 6th and 7th (aged 11 and 12) and their corresponding children in a big city in the Middle region of Vietnam. The parents were treated as the primary participants, while children's responses were used to triangulate their parents' opinions.

As Japanese language programs are only available in big cities of Vietnam, the sample of this study shared similar characteristics with parents and students of Japanese language programs across the country[64]. They were all residents in dynamic cities where they had access to good education and facilities. Furthermore, they all intentionally participated in the pilot Japanese language program instead of a mandatory English program. Regarding the students in this study, prior to this pilot Japanese language program, they had never learned Japanese at school as it was only offered from junior high-school upwards. Some of them had chances to learn English at primary schools as English was taught from grade 3rd in the general education system in Vietnam.

Instruments

This study employs a self-built survey adapted from Butler[65] and Noels et al.[66]. Two versions of questionnaire were built up, one for children and another for their parents. Basically, the statements of the two questionnaires shared mutual meaning, tapping into the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of learners and the roles of parents in children's language motivation. They just differed in the tones

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64   Tran, Hoang Nam. "Situation of Japanese Language Education at Selected High Schools in Vietnam." 国際センター紀要・年報, no. 2018 (2019/03/31 2019): 1-4. https://ci.nii.ac.jp/naid/120006713018/en/.

65   Butler, "Parental factors and early English education as a foreign language: a case study in Mainland China."

66   Noels et al., "Why Are You Learning a Second Language? Motivational Orientations and Self-Determination Theory."

and syntax. The parents' items began with "*I want my children to learn Japanese because…*", while children's items commenced with "*I want to learn Japanese because…*". All items were translated into Vietnamese to make it understandable for target participants. To ensure the translations were equivalent to the English version, the items were first translated into Vietnamese and then back translated into English.

The structures of the questionnaires were as follows: as for parents' version, the first part asked about their educational background, their involvement in children's learning, the second part was about Japan presentations that they perceived in their context, the last part was ten 4-point Likert scale questions, in which three questions were about intrinsic motivation, seven questions about extrinsic motivation. In the extrinsic motivation, three questions asked about social/contextual motivation (or instrumental orientation), and four questions explored parent-oriented motivation. The children's version only consisted of the second and third parts of the parents' questionnaire.

The questionnaires were assessed and consulted by two senior colleagues to remove inappropriate items and wordings, then they were piloted with two junior high school students to ensure that there were no lexical ambiguations. Each sheet of questionnaire was given a paired code (a student and his/her parents share a mutual code) to measure the relationship between parents' and children's respective responses. Questionnaires for parents were put in sealed envelope to keep their personal information confidential.

The internal consistency of responses in part three was measured by Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach alpha of parents' questionnaire was 0.74, while that of students was 0.68. According to Hinton[67], this level of reliability (.5 to .75) is generally accepted as indicating a "moderately reliable scale".

67　P. R. Hinton, I. McMurray, and C. Brownlow, *SPSS Explained* (London: Routledge, 2014).

Data Analysis

Due to the structure of the questionnaires, collected data were analyzed separately. Data from background information of 190 respondents revealed the most common and influential representatives of Japan's Soft Power, parents' background and involvement in their children's language choice and learning process.

Responses for Likert-scale questions of the questionnaires were replaced by numeral values, ranging from 1 as "strongly disagree" to 4 as "Strongly agree". A descriptive analysis was conducted to explore the general patterns of those answers. Their level of agreement was divided into three levels according to the statistical means, from 1 to 2 was defined as "low agreement", 2 to 3 was "moderate agreement", and 3 to 4 was "high agreement". Then, paired samples t-test were used to explore if the ideologies of parents respectively correlated with their children, or if there was a mismatch between those agents. Because of some missing values, the final quantitative analysis consisted of 173 responses.

5. Results

Effects of Japanese Representations on Citizens' Motivation

In general, the influence of Japan was perceived through four main factors, in which three were culture-related and only one was economic-related. In total, such Japanese representations as cuisine, languages (Japanese Language centers), or cultural events (Sakura festivals, Cosplay festivals…) accounted for 88% of 6-graders' responses and 81% of 7-grader's answers. In addition, younger children did not pay much attention to economics, as only 12% of the 6th-grade respondents recognized economics as a sign of Japan in their country. In comparison, this proportion from 7-graders was 19%. The specific percentage of those factors can

be found in Figure 2. As for the adults' perception, they paid more attention to Japanese cultural events (31%), followed by Japanese language with the existence of lots of Japanese Language centers (26%). Japanese restaurants were also an effective medium to influence residents' perception of a foreign culture (22%). Economics was the least effective factor to impose Japan's power upon this area (21%). This result reinforces the strength and effects of Soft Power policy in this area. Especially, Japanese language was always the most dominant factor that was easily perceived by both young learners and their parents, which account for 30% of the responses from youngsters, and 26% of those from adults.
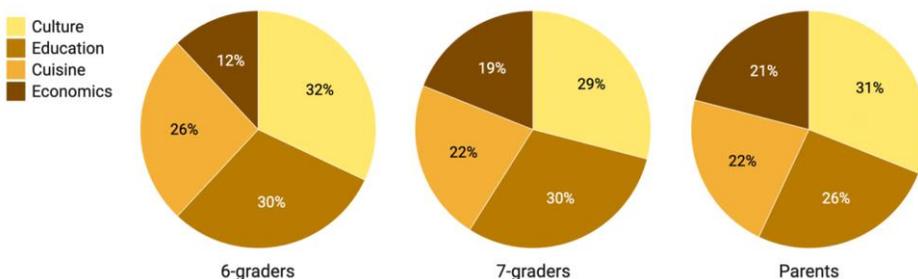

Figure 2: Parents and children's perceptions of Japan's representations[68]

Parents' Behaviors and Their Involvement in Children's Language Learning Process

Data from this part also revealed parents' socio-economic status and their involvement in their children's learning process. In general, most parents who send their children to this pilot program have good educational backgrounds, with almost 80% of either fathers or mothers own bachelor's degrees upwards (Table 1).

68　Results from the data analysis.

Table 1: Parents' educational background[69]

Level of Education	Father (number/percentage)	Mother (number/percentage)
Higher Education	12 (6%)	20 (11%)
BA	139 (73%)	131 (69%)
College	20 (11%)	23 (12%)
Vocational Education	4 (2%)	4 (2%)
K-12	14 (7%)	12 (6%)
Elementary	1 (1%)	0 (0%)
Total	190 (100%)	190 (100%)

Regarding their Japanese competences, most of them didn't know any Japanese, which accounts for 86% of fathers' responses (164 responses) and 83% of mother responses (158 responses). Only 2 fathers and 4 mothers reported being fluent in Japanese (Figure 3). However, nearly half of them (83 out of 190 parents) still used foreign language(s) to speak to their children at home. Therefore, assumingly an extra foreign language was used to communicate instead of Japanese in those families.
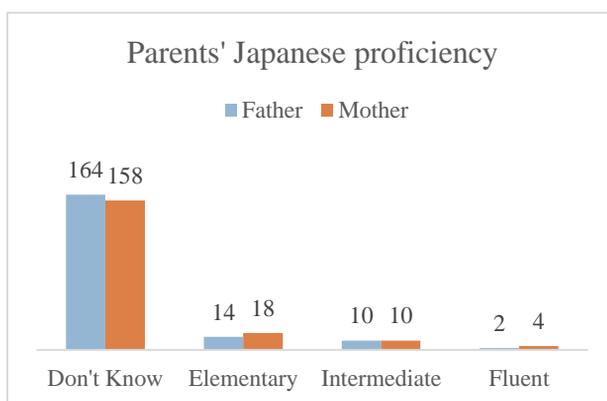

Figure 3: Parents' Japanese proficiency[70]

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69 Results from the data analysis.
70 Results from the data analysis.

In response to their involvement in surveyed students' academic activities, only 40 parents never helped their children with homework (Figure 4). The others supported their children's learning at home to different extents and frequencies, and in various ways, namely examination preparation, vocabulary check, pronunciation practice, or book supply. Some of them even discussed with the teachers to keep track of their children performance or kept reminding their children to focus on his/her study.
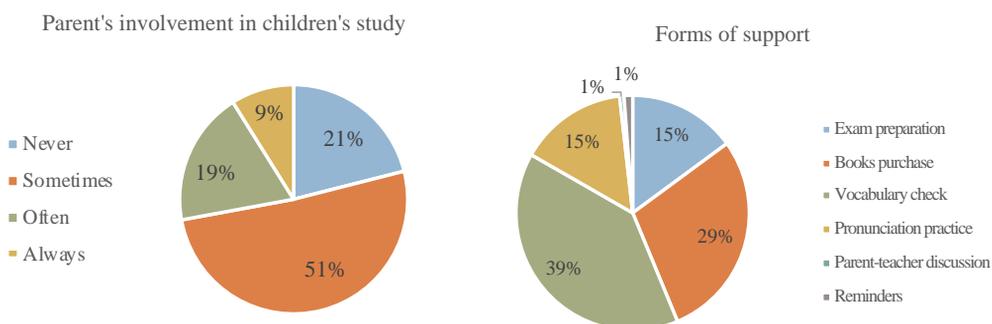

Figure 4: Parents' involvement in their children's Japanese learning process[71]

In addition, three-quarters of the respondents (134 out of 190 parents) sent their sons/daughters to extra language classes after school (Table 2). Interestingly, amongst those who invested into their children's extra-curriculum class, there were only 32 parents who sent their children solely to Japanese language classes, whereas up to 53 parents wanted their children to learn English only after Japanese lessons at school, and 47 respondents chose to take their children to both English and Japanese language centers. The amount of time those students had to spend on extra classes was varied, ranging from 3 hours per week to 6 hours per week for each language.

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71 Results from the data analysis.

Table 2 : Extra-curriculum language class[72]

Yes			No
134			
Japanese	English	Both	56
32	53	47	

From the abovementioned results, the researcher proceeded to classifying parents into four groups: group 1 comprised parents who did not provide their children with extra-curriculum language classes, group 2 consisted of parents who only sent their children to English extra-curriculum class, group 3 were those who sent their children to Japanese extra class, group 4 included those who sent their children to extra classes of both languages. Due to some missing values which were not suitable for quantitative analysis, only answers from 168 adult participants were analyzed. ANOVA was employed to compare the means between the four groups of parents. Statistically, there was no significant difference found in the responses of those groups.

Sources of Motivation in the Choice of Foreign Language Learning

The quantitative data derived from ten Likert-scale questions of the questionnaires presented in Table 3 also revealed some thought-provoking results.

Table 3: Descriptive analysis of questionnaires' responses[73]

Items:	Adults'Mean (SD)	Students'Mean (SD)
Q1: love talking to Japanese people.	3.08 (0.61)	3.30 (0.62)
Q2: love Japan's entertaining programs	2.73 (0.73)	3.30 (0.74)

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72 Results from the data analysis.
73 Results from the data analysis.

Q3 Japanese sounds so good	2.92 (0.67)	3.05 (0.81)
Q4: Job opportunities	3.22 (0.62)	3.21 (0.80)
Q5: Good academic performance	3.03 (0.75)	2.95 (0.84)
Q6: get into good high-school	3.17 (0.54)	3.10 (0.86)
Q7: proud of Japanese's proficiency	3.28 (0.62)	3.13 (0.78)
Q8: enjoyment when children study hard	3.28 (0.66)	3.09 (0.83)
Q9: proud of Japanese's communicative skills	3.33 (0.64)	2.43 (0.88)
Q10: following parent's orientation	2.47 (0.83)	1.94 (0.94)

As for intrinsic motivation towards Japanese language, most parents felt the need for mastering Japanese for communicating purposes (M=3.08, SD=0.61). However, although they did perceive the existence of Japanese cultures in their surroundings, they did not really like Japan's entertaining programs (M=2.73, SD=0.73) or intensely love Japanese language itself (M=2.92, M=0.67), which were proved by a moderate level of agreement. For instance, the elements of Cool Japan, such as animations, comics, entertaining programs on TV, only had impacts on youngsters. Particularly, most of surveyed children agreed that Japanese cartoons and picture books were one of the factors that attracted them to learn Japanese (M = 3.30, SD = 0.74). Nonetheless, their parents did not show high agreement towards this statement (M= 2.73, SD=0.77). Result from the paired-sample t-test later also yielded a significant difference in the ratings for Cool Japan's elements with t(167)=7.36, p <.001.

As for items asking about extrinsic motivation, most of surveyed parents agreed with those items and admitted that learning Japanese was beneficial to their children's academic path as it was expected to facilitate them to get to a good high school (M=3.22, SD=0.62), and increase their job opportunities (M=3.03, SD=0.75). They, therefore, reported an expectation for their children's academic performance (M=3.17, SD=0.54). Concerning social-oriented factors, they also

reflected a feeling of delight (M=3.28, SD= 0.62) and self-esteem (M=3.33, SD=0.64) if their children can master this foreign language. Consistent with part one of the questionnaire, quantitative data revealed high engagement of those parents into their children's study (M=3.28, SD=0.66). From those responses, we can say that their choice of language for their children to officially learn at school did not mainly originate from their intrinsic sources. It indeed initiated from socio-oriented motivation. Remarkably, although those parents imposed their influence on their children's language choice and got involved rather actively in their children's learning process, they still showed disagreement with the last item (M=2.47, SD=0.83), which explicitly asked their opinion towards their children's obedience.

Generally, children reported a higher level of intrinsic motivation towards learning Japanese than their parents, and their perception of parental factors did not correlate with their parents' reflected efforts to impose parental impacts on them. A statistical analysis revealed significant differences in intrinsic motivation (t(503) =8.95, $p < .001$) and parental motivation (t(671) = -10.32, $p < .001$). As clearly depicted in the line graph in Figure 5, the extrinsically social motivations between the two groups were approximately similar, with no discernible difference.
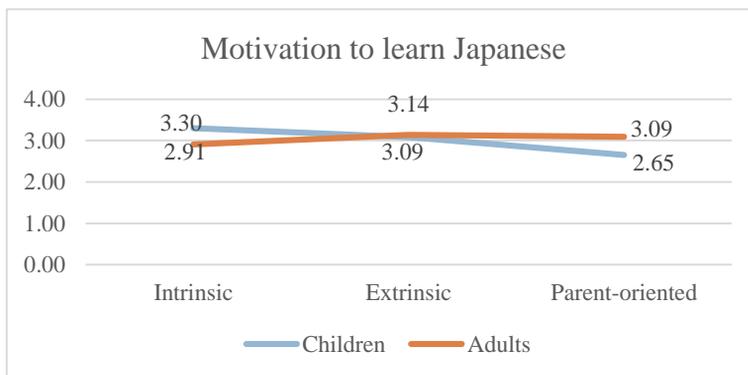

Figure 5: General patterns of motivations[74]

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74 Results from the data analysis.

The data collected from the students also revealed interesting results. As for the intrinsic motivation, most of them reported a strong desire to communicate with Japanese (M=3.53, SD=0.62), high interest in Japan's creative culture (M=3.30, SD=0.74), and positive impression towards Japanese language itself as it sounded quite ear-catching to them (M=3.05, SD=0.81).

Regarding extrinsic motivation, they also minded the social-oriented motivation. Most of them were conscious of the importance of Japanese in their future career (M=3.21, SD=0.80), and they also wanted to get good scores in Japanese class (M=2.95, SD=0.84), and they agreed that their purpose of learning Japanese well was to get to a good high school (M=3.10, SD=0.86).

When being asked about the influence of their parents on their learning Japanese, most of them admitted that they wanted to do well in Japanese because of their parents' happiness (M=3.13, SD=0.78), but they did not clearly perceive if their parents would be proud of their good performance or not (M=2.43, SD=0.88). They also reported a high involvement of their parents in their learning process by encouraging them to work hard (M=3.09, SD=0.83). However, similar to parents' responses, when being asked explicitly about parents' orientation, most of them did not agree that they should follow their parents' language orientation (M=1.94, SD=0.94).

The Relationship between Parents' and Children's Types of Motivation

In general, the elements of intrinsic motivation and parent-oriented motivation recorded the most significant differences. Particularly, two pairs of items under the construct of intrinsic motivation were found to be significantly different, and statistical differences were found in four pairs of items for the parent-oriented motivation. All of the three questions from social-oriented motivation revealed no significant differences (Table 4).

In particular, there was a significant difference in willingness to talk to Japanese people, between adults (M=3.08, SD=0.61) and children (M=3.53,

SD=10.62); t(167)=-6.99, $p < 0.001$. Similarly, the two groups also showed remarkably different opinions towards Japanese creative cultures. Children were recorded to be remarkably more interested in Japanese creative culture (M=3.30, SD=0.74) than adult (2.73, SD=0.73); t(167)=7.36, $p < .001$.

Regarding the influence of parents on student's learning process, parents noticeably minded social-oriented motivation more than children, which resulted in a significant difference in questions 7 and 8 in this part. Responses to question 10 also reveal a remarkable phenomenon. Although parents believed that their children should follow parents' language choice for them, there was a contest from the children's side towards this ideology. However, they still shared mutual extrinsic motivation with their parents, which were indeed social motivation. To some extent, the statistical data revealed that children unconsciously internalized their parents' goals and expectations when sending them to Japanese language class.

Table 4: The difference between parents' and children's forms of motivation[75]

Items	Mean Difference	SD	t	df	Sig (2-Tailed)
Q1: love talking to Japanese people.	.45	0.84	6.99	167	.00**
Q2: love Japan's entertaining programs	.57	1.01	7.36	167	.000**
Q3 Japanese sounds so good	.13	1.01	1.76	167	.080
Q4: job opportunities	-.01	1.00	-.15	167	.878
Q5: good academic performance	-.07	1.11	-.90	167	.368
Q6: get into good high-school	-.07	0.98	-.95	167	.344
Q7: proud of Japanese's proficiency	-.15	1.00	-1.99	167	.048*

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75 Results from the data analysis.

Q8: satisfaction when children study hard	-.19	1.03	-2.39	167	.018*
Q9: proud of children's Japanese's communicative skills	-.89	1.04	-11.08	167	.000**
Q10: following parent's orientation	-.52	1.18	-5.76	167	.000**

Note. *Significant at $p<.05$. ** significant at $p<.001$

5. Discussion

Impacts of Elements of Japanese' Soft Power on People's Perceptions

Results of this study revealed that although Creative culture has long been used as a medium to broaden Japan's influence on other countries, it was less effective than Japanese language in general.As can be seen in part one of children's questionnaire and part two of parents' version, the existence of Japanese language centers was higher noticed than cultural events or cuisine. This might be because language learning is associated with communicating competences which escalates present and future benefits such as fulfilling school's requirements, education, job opportunities and salary potential[76]. Meanwhile, elements of creative culture are usually presented by means of entertainment and popularized by media or electronic devices, which is believed to have negative effects on children's learning and behavioral development[77]. Therefore, parents tend to restrict the amount of time students should spend on it or just use it as a reward for good behavior[78]. Additionally, Japanese' media were significantly more favored by

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76   Kamo Chilingaryan, *Motivation in language learning* (2015).

77   Society Canadian Paediatric, "Impact of media use on children and youth," *Paediatrics & child health* 8, no. 5 (2003), https://doi.org/10.1093/pch/8.5.301, https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20020034

78   Cynthia Chiong and Carly Shuler, *Learning: Is there an app for that? Investigations of young children's usage and learning with mobile devices and apps* (New York: The Joan Ganz

children, compared with their parents. Therefore, we can conclude that creative culture, or Cool Japan policy, only takes effects on young people of this context, and it has yet to attract older citizens. Instead, despite the fact that Japanese language education has only been included in this policy since 2011, it seemed to be an influential factor that brought people closer to perceived and internalized the existence and influences of Japan in this area.

Types of Motivation in Language Learning and Language Choices

The quantitative results echoed the results from previous studies, confirming that students at younger ages tended to have a higher level of intrinsic motivation towards language learning[79]. Although children's L2 learning was decided by their parents, they were still intrinsically motivated to learn Japanese.

In contrast, adults' decisions on their children's L2 learning were primarily determined by social needs and contexts, which was exhibited by the choice of extra language class for their children. Whilst learners were participating in Japanese language education at school, most of their parents still sent them to English classes as English was the dominant foreign language in Vietnam and worldwide. This result also showed an inconsistency in parents' language motivation as their motivation in choosing the foreign language for their children to pursuit at school did not initiate intrinsically but it was driven by social orientation. In addition, this also reflected the roles of parents in the implication of a language variance.

Similarly, it also recorded a phenomenon of internalizing external orientation from children. Although parents in this study chose the foreign language (Japanese, English, or both) for students to learn, and they did impose their expectations and

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Cooney Center at Sesame Workshop., 2010, 2010); Mizuko Ito et al., *Hanging out, messing around, and geeking out: Kids living and learning with new media* (MIT press, 2019).

79 Carreira, "Motivation for Learning English as a Foreign Language in Japanese Elementary Schools."

impacts on children, the youngsters took it as part of their forms of intrinsic motivation and psychological needs for autonomy. In particular, most parents reported that they had some involvement in children's academic activities, but their offspring did not consider them as forms of encouragement or control. In fact, they implicitly took their parents' (or society's) expectations such as getting high scores, enrolling in a good high school, or having better job opportunities as their goals when learning Japanese. This result repeated what were found in previous studies[80]. Moreover, most students opposed the idea of being obedient to their parents' orientation although they still learn to please their parents. It demonstrated a considerable need for autonomy and was in alignment with the higher degree of self-regulation (intrinsic motivation), which, in turn, facilitate the process of internalization of externally initiated tasks and goals. This can only be achieved by positive feedbacks from external agents (parents/teachers), which enhance children's intrinsic motivation. Therefore, this result revealed a good connection between surveyed parents and children, as well as appropriate behaviors of parents whose children were Japanese L2 learners.

Implications

This study reinforced the role and power of Japanese language as a means of Soft Power popularization. It hence can provide policymakers with some evidence to enhance diplomatic affairs via language-related activities.

Under the framework of Noels et al.[81], learning situations also play a crucial role for young learners to maintain their interests in learning an L2, as it affects integrative orientation (the need to communicate with native speakers of L2) as

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80   Bao and Lam, "Who Makes the Choice? Rethinking the Role of Autonomy and Relatedness in Chinese Children's Motivation."; Butler, "Parental factors and early English education as a foreign language: a case study in Mainland China."; Zhang, "Why do children learn Chinese? An exploratory study of parental beliefs, classroom motivational strategies, and young learners' motivated behaviors."

81   Noels et al., "Why Are You Learning a Second Language? Motivational Orientations and Self-Determination Theory."

well as instrumental orientation (getting verbal/material rewards or good grades). Similarly, to facilitate students' internalization of the external forces, the SDT[82] also emphasized three psychological needs: relatedness, competence, and autonomy. Therefore, instead of explicitly and violently impose goals on children, parents and teachers should try to develop the relationship with children (relatedness), provide them with approachable and comprehensible academic activities (competence) and increase their feeling of autonomous by respecting their choices and opinions (autonomy). As suggested by Bao and Lam[83], for children in collectivistic cultures, socioemotional relatedness is the most important factor, which can facilitate internalization. Hence, once adults can establish harmonious relationships with children, they can internalize their parents' or teachers' decisions as their choices without resistances.

Conclusion

This study was one of the first attempts to explore the Japanese language education in Vietnam academically from motivation perspectives. It highlighted the most effective factors which act as mediums to implicitly convey Japan's Soft Power to residents of different ages. Based on its results, a more rigorous and holistic study should be done with other agents of the society, to explore the favorably perceived presentations of Japan, in order to have a more focused and efficient policy.

Moreover, it also explored the mismatch in types of motivation for foreign language learning between parents and children and provided some considerations for parents and teachers to have better approaches to their children's psychological and educational developmental process.

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82 Ryan and Deci, "Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic-dialectical perspective."
83 Bao and Lam, "Who Makes the Choice? Rethinking the Role of Autonomy and Relatedness in Chinese Children's Motivation."

Despite some interesting results, this study remains some limitations. First, most of the surveyed parents had high educational background who intentionally sent their children to a pilot language program. Hence, the transferability of the findings to parents with lower educational level, or those whose children must learn Japanese as a mandatory foreign language is still open to question. Second, although students and parents in this study shared similarities with current Japanese learners in other cities, it is necessary to include Japanese learners and their parents across the country to comprehensively explore Japanese education as part of a national language project. Therefore, rigorous research programs should be conducted to introduce a holistic portrait of Japanese language education and its influential factors. In addition, future research may employ more diverse data such as interviews, learners' academic outcomes (scores) or parents' economic status. The number and diversity of participants should be increased, and the groups of participants should be expanded to other social agents such as language teachers, Japanese employers, or policymakers.

Appendixes：

Parents' Questionnaire

Part 1: Parents' background

1. Father's educational background:

a. Elementary school   e. College

b. Junior high school   f. University

c. Senior high school   g. Higher education

d. Vocational school

2. Mother's educational background

a. Elementary school   e. College

b. Junior high school   f. University

c. Senior high school   g. Higher education

d. Vocational school

3. Father's Japanese competence:

a. Know nothing   b. elementary level c. Intermediate level d. advanced level

4. Mother's Japanese competence:

a. Know nothing   b. elementary level c. Intermediate level d. advanced level

5. Do you use a foreign language to communicate with your kid at home?

a. Yes, we use……   b. No

6. Do you send your kid to extra-curriculum language class after school?

a. Yes   b. No

If the answer is "yes", please provide the information of:

- The language(s) that your kid learn: …

- Weekly learning hours:

- Monthly cost: …

7. Do you support your kid in learning Japanese at home?

a. Never   b. sometimes   c. Often   d. Always

If the answer is (b)/(c)/(d), please clearly state how you support your kid (you can choose more than one way, or fill in with your own answer)

- Check vocabulary, check lesson memorization

- Practice pronunciation with your kid

- Prepare for the examination with your kid

- Purchase reference books for your kids

- Your own methods: ….

Part 2: You can choose more than one answer

In Da Nang, you can approach Japan's culture and its presence through:

a. Japanese cuisine

b. Japan's cultural festivals

c. Japanese entrepreneurs and businesses

d. Japanese language centers

e. Other ideas:

Part 3: Answer these questions (4-point Likert scale)

Why do you want your child to learn Japanese?

I want my child to learn Japanese because…

Intrinsic motivation (title was hidden from participants)

I want to talk to Japanese people.

I like Japan's entertaining programs

Japanese sounds so good

Extrinsic motivation

I think that Japanese will help him/her to get a good job in the future.

I want him/her to get good grades in Japanese.

I want him/her to get into a good high school.

Parent-oriented motivation

I will be happy if my child is good at Japanese

I encourage my child to study Japanese hard.

I will be proud if my child can speak Japanese well.

Children should be obedient to parents' language orientation and decisions.

Children's questionnaire

Part 1: You can choose more than one answers

In Da Nang, you can approach Japan's culture and its presence through:

f. Seeing lots of Japanese restaurants

g. Taking part in cultural festivals

h. Seeing lots of Japanese shops, supermarkets, and companies

i. Seeing lots of Japanese language centers

j. Other ideas:

Part 2: Answer these questions (4-point Likert scale)

Why do you want to learn Japanese?

I want to learn Japanese because…

Intrinsic motivation

I want to talk to Japanese people.

I like Japan's TV programs, cartoon (anime) and comics (manga).

I like Japanese because it sounds so good

Extrinsic motivation

I think that Japanese will help me to get a good job in the future.

I want to get good grades in Japanese.

I study Japanese hard in order to get into a good high school.

Parent-oriented motivation

My parents will be happy if I am good at Japanese

My parents encourage me to study Japanese hard.

My parents will be proud if I can speak Japanese well.

It is important to follow parents' language choice.

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