

Language and Culture: Motivation of Learning Japanese for the Students Who are in Multicultural Environment

Kiyomi Ando*

Louisiana State University, USA

Language and culture are interactional. Language is a part of culture and culture cannot exist without language. Learning a language is imperative to understanding the culture in which it embeds and is embedded. Considering the cultural effect behind language, I empirically studied the language learning ability of students who have a multicultural background. Considering of one Japanese parent with the other parent being American, Korean or Filipino. These students did not speak Japanese and had little interest in learning Japanese. Motivation to learn Japanese was provided by evoking child-parent attachments, thereby indirectly tying the students to their Japanese parents' native culture and language.

Keywords: language and culture, multicultural environment

*Direct correspondence to Kiyomi Ando, Department of Sociology, 126 Stubbs Hall, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA 70803, USA. (e-mail: soando@lsuvm.sncc.lsu.edu)

Journal of Futures Studies, Vol.2 No.1 (November 1997) : Pp.69~76 69

Language and Culture

Language is more than a communication system. It embodies social functions, such as the speech community, group boundaries and solidarity, physical contact, and performative language (Johnson, 1989). Language is strongly related to culture (Martinez, 1986). Culture cannot exist without a language because language is a medium of transmitting culture. Language per se, however, is a part of culture. When the cultural effect on language is considered, the context of speech is important (Briggs, 1986) since communicational patterns in context are based on culture. Performing communication in a unique environment or context may be a part of one's culture. Each culture is evidenced through the unique communication pattern in the language. Thus, each unique language contains not only communicational patterns but also culture patterns. In addition, using the same language in a group appears to indicate a sharing of the same value system, which implies that language reflects identity or membership in a group (Stevens, 1992). Language transmits the inherent aspects of culture from generation to generation, and introduces culture to those who have different cultural backgrounds. Therefore, the importance of learning a language is not only important for understanding the language itself but also in understanding the culture behind the language. Furthermore, in the global view, learning other languages is imperative to understand other cultural patterns and sharing other cultural values.

Teaching Language in the Multicultural Setting

In the present paper, I explore the effects of culture with regard to language. I used culture as a motivational tool for learning language. Since I had taught Japanese to half-Japanese students (nine students) who have multicultural backgrounds -- they were born in the United States and one of their parents is Japanese and the other parent is American, Korean, or Filipino, I analyzed my performance

of teaching and the students' abilities to learn. All Japanese parents were born in Japan, and Japanese is their native language, though their children, my students, have not realized the importance of the Japanese language as a communication system and the uniqueness of its culture in which to understanding their multicultural backgrounds. It may be due to the fact that first, their parents do not use Japanese at home; and second, their Japanese grandparents are in Japan. Hence, they do not need Japanese as a communication system. Furthermore, since their grandparents do not understand English, and the students rarely see their grandparents, willingness to communicate with their grandparents may be weak. There is no immediate need for speaking Japanese for the students.

In the following sections, I will illustrate the approaches I used to motivate the students' to learn their parent's native language, Japanese.

First Teaching Process

My class meets on Saturday mornings from 9:00 to 11:30 on the campus of the Louisiana State University. The students were seven girls and one boy whose ages range from 6 to 14 years old -- one first grade student, one third grade student, three fourth grade students, one six grade student, and one eighth grade students -- were learning Japanese in my class.

When I started teaching Japanese to these half-Japanese students, I had expected that they could understand some simple words or sentences due to the fact that one of their parents is Japanese. In fact, the students knew a few words and short phrases in Japanese, but they had not had a chance to use these words and phrases; their parents did not speak Japanese at home at all. Moreover, most of them had never learned the *Hiragana* (Japanese alphabet) before. Thus, I spent a great deal of time teaching *Hiragana* and its related words. I taught five letters from the *Hiragana* and several words with each letter during each lesson. To make them practice the letters, I used a spelling drill. The drill illustrated how to write each letter and introduced words containing each letter. When I taught

new letters, I showed the students how to write the letters on the board. For practicing conversation, I asked the students simple questions related to their daily life, such as, "what time did you get up?", "did you eat breakfast this morning?", and, "what did you eat last night?" Even though I asked the same questions every week and the answers are simple -- numbers or names of food -- the students had trouble in answering the questions. It was difficult to observe much improvement in their Japanese. The students appeared to have little familiarity with Japanese and its culture, and they were not interested in learning Japanese. Thus, I changed my focus from directly teaching the language to teaching the language through its culture as I felt that uniqueness of the culture could stimulate the students to learn the language.

Cultural Approach

The first cultural approach was introducing the geography of Japan to the students; I taught them the names of prefectures and their locations while using a Japanese map. The students showed little interest in the map, even less than I thought. They simply enjoyed matching the names of the prefectures with their locations, but little more. To involve the prefectures more in the culture, I assigned the students to find their Japanese parent's hometown and to ask their parent about his/her hometown. However, no one did the assignment the following week.

The second approach was I brought Japanese food, Japanese noodle, in the class. I showed them how to use chopsticks to eat the noodle. All of them knew the chopsticks and some of them knew how to use them. They were very excited to eat the noodle with the chopsticks. I, however, was not sure that they were excited due to be hunger, it was before lunch, or due to be a new experience. They, except one boy, loved the noodle. His father is American and his mother had never cooked Japanese food at home. Other families eat Japanese food occasionally. It seemed that Japanese food was familiar with them.

The next approach was to show Japanese cultural videos to the

students. Each video was a 30 minute program which explained Japanese culture from different perspectives, such as conventional manner; traditional events; school activities; daily life in rural and urban areas; and business trade. The videos were in English with subtitles when people spoke Japanese. I showed the students three videos. They seemed to enjoy watching TV, but did not seem to enjoy the contents of the programs.

Since I found that a visual approach was more effective with the students, I used a new set of videos -- Japanese folk tales. I showed the popular stories, "*Momotaro*" and "*Omusbi kororin*," to them. They enjoyed the folk tales, because the videos were cartoons, and the story lines were very simple. The students picked up on the words that were used many times in the stories, such as *ojiisan*(grandfather), *obaasan* (grandmother), *inu* (dog), and *onigiri* (rice ball) and uttered these words. It appeared that teaching the vocabularies visually and actively was effective. This suggests that context of speech is important to learning the language and may provide more impetus for learning language.

Environmental Approach: Parental Attitude

Learning ability is assumed to be related to ethnic identity. Ethnically, the students could have multi-identities: American and Asian (or more specifically, Japanese, Korean, or Filipino). However, their identity of being Japanese is hardly seen or used. That is, the motivation for learning Japanese does not raise from their identity as Japanese, even though they are half-Japanese. Since the students are in the process of cognitive development, parental attitudes toward Japanese or value judgment of Japanese are influential on their children. I may be able to motivate my students externally, but internal motivation is cultivated by their parents' seriousness or sensitivity to their learning Japanese.

Since one of the students' parents is Japanese, their domestic environment, which may be influenced by Japanese culture, could be related to their interest in learning the language. I visited each student's home to understand his/her domestic environment and the

parent's attitude toward Japanese culture. When I visited the students' homes, I told their parents about my ideas and how their children behaved in class. I took note of the cultural influences in the students' domestic environments. In the family headed by an American father, I saw little influence from Japanese culture, but when a Japanese father was present (both parents are Asian), I saw a good deal of Japanese cultural influence. However, interestingly, after my visit, all parents became serious about their children's learning abilities and sensitivity to Japanese culture, although I did not expect that my visit would motivate their parents' interest in Japanese and its culture, which would, in turn, affect their children's learning ability. The week after my visit, for example, one student, who was always late, came to class on time, and her parent stayed for a part of the class and helped with her daughter's writing. Other parents helped their children's homework more seriously. Moreover, the parents tried to speak Japanese to their children when the sentences were simple and colloquial. After my visit to the students' homes, the students gradually showed interest in Japanese and its culture. The parents behavior encouraged the students to learn Japanese. Assumably, parental attitude toward Japanese or its culture has an effect on the students' learning ability.

Conclusion

Japanese is neither the students' native language nor a school requirement. Instead, learning Japanese is considered an extracurricular activity. Thus, the students had little interest in learning Japanese. Taking a direct approach through culture did not inspire the students' interest in learning the language. This may be due to the fact that they did not recognize language as a communication system, as they have not directly experienced Japanese culture. Since culture is largely transmitted by parents, parental attitude toward their own native language and culture would provide the best motivation for the children's learning ability. Thus, parents should have high regard for their native culture as well as adopt it in their daily

lives, if they wish their children to learn and appreciate their native languages. Motivation arising from the family environment may be the first step in learning language. In other words, the most effective way to motivate the student is to motivate their parents. It is important to evoke parental ethnic identity and to motivate their attitudes toward children's learning ability. As the Japanese proverb (derived from a Chinese poem) says "*Showo into hhosureba mazu umawo iyo* (He who would that daughter win, with the mother must be gegin)." Parental attitudes are strongly related to children's learning ability. Parents appear to be the most significant factors in motivating their children's interest in language and culture.

Language is the system of communication among people, but it is not just about gathering knowledge or exchanging information. It is a dynamic and interactional process. In other words, understanding the context of language, or cultural background of language is significant to understanding language at a deeper level (Bovillain, 1993).

We have seen more cross-cultural or interracial marriages not only in the United States but also in other countries, and, therefore, more children have been growing up in a multicultural environment. The transmission of languages from parent to child will play an important part in preserving the uniqueness of the parents, traditional or native culture. For children to learn the second language, whether it is parental native language or not, is important for understanding other cultures, as a result, they will have multicultural thoughts and global views.

References

- Bonvillain, Nancy. 1993. *Language, Culture, and Communication: The Meaning of Messages*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Briggs, Charles L. 1986. *Learning How to Ask: A Sociolinguistic Appraisal of the Role of the Interview in Social Science Research*. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Johnson, Allan G. 1989. *Human Arrangements*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt

Brace Jovanovich, Publishers.

Martinez, Marco-Antonio. 1986. "Family Socialization among Mexican Americans." *Human Development* 29: 269-279.

Stevens Gillian. 1992. "The social and demographic context of language use in the United States." *American Sociological Review* 57: 171-185.

INVITATION FOR AUTHORS

The Journal of Futures Studies is published by the Educational Development Center, Tamkang University, Tamsui, Taipei, Taiwan. The editors invite contributors from the transdisciplines of sociology, technology, economics, environmental science, and political science. Contributors should be based on the critical and/or empirical research in the field of Futures Studies (Futurology or Futuristics). The journal attempts to attract contributors who can offer distinctive viewpoints on a broad range of important issues. Contributors also should comply with the following guidelines:

IN GENERAL

1. A copy of the original manuscript, written in English, should be submitted to "the Journal of Futures Studies", Division of Futures Studies, Educational Development Center, Tamkang University, Tamsui, Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.
2. Upon receipt, the editor will send the manuscript to a member of the editorial board. The editorial board member generally will provide two referee reports and an editor's report. These will be sent to the author submitting the paper along with a cover letter from the editor conveying the decision whether or not to publish the paper. Referees and editorial board members will remain anonymous. Questions regarding editorial policy should be addressed to the editor or to the managing editor.
3. It is understood that a manuscript that is submitted to the JFS represents original material that has not been published elsewhere. It is also understood that submission of a manuscript to the journal is done with the knowledge and agreement of all of the authors of the paper. Authors are responsible for informing the journal of any changes in the status of the submission.
4. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typewritten on one side of the paper only. The cover page should include the title of the manuscript, the names and surname(s) of the authors and the

author's affiliations, and a suggested running head. A foot-note on this page should contain acknowledgments and information on grants. The next page should contain an abstract of no more than 100 words and keywords of the article. The following pages of text should be numbered consecutively.

5. Once a manuscript is accepted for publication, the author is required to submit a copy of the manuscript on a 5 ¼ or 3 ½ inch diskette using Word 7.0 or earlier versions.
6. A brief foreword and/or an epilogue is not required, but may be included. The authors of published papers are entitled to 3 copies of the issue in which their articles appear and 30 reprints of their contributions for free.

PREPARATION OF MANUSCRIPTS

Order Organize the manuscript in this order: cover page; abstract; text; endnotes; references; tables; figures.

Cover Page Give title; author(s); affiliation(s); and a footnote(*) indicating name, address, and E-mail address of the author to whom requests for offprints or other correspondence should be sent ("Direct correspondence to _____") and acknowledgment (if any) of financial or other assistance.

Abstract On a separate page, preceding the text, write a summary, 125 or fewer words (70 or fewer for a Research Note).

Endnotes Use only for substantive comments, bearing on content. Number consecutively from 1, double space, and append on a separate page.

References in Text Indicate sources as illustrated below:

- when author's name is in text - Lipset (1960); when author's name is not in text (Lipset 1960)

- use page numbers only for direct quotations or specific notes or table - (Braudel 1969: 213)
- for more than 3 authors use "et al."
- with more than 1 reference to an author in the same year, distinguish them by the use of letters (a,b,c) with year of publication (1975a)
- earlier publication should precede later publication in brackets with parentheses (Tocqueville [1835] 1956)
- enclose a series of reference - in alphabetical order - in parentheses, separated by semicolons (e.g., Adler 1975; Adler & Simon 1979; anderson, Chiricos & Waldo 1977; Bernstein et al. 1977; Chesney - Ling 1973a, 1973b).

References Following Endnotes List authors alphabetically, by surname. Spell out first names of all authors and editors. For authors with more than one work cited, list works earliest to latest. For articles, next give title of article (caps and lower case), name of journal, volume number, and pagination. For books and monographs, give title, followed by publisher.

Format of References Please spell out the first names of all authors and editors, unless they use only their initials or a first initial and a middle name in the source cited (e.g., Paul Radin, T.S. Eliot, and J. Owen Dorsey).

Elder, Glen H. 1975. "Age Differentiation and the Life Course." Pp. 165-90 in *Annual Review of Sociology*. Vol. 1, edited by Alex Inkeles, James Coleman, and Neil Smelser. Annual Reviews.

Myrdal, Gunnar. [1944] 1962. *An American Dilemma*. Harper & Row.

Ritzer, George. 1975a. *Sociology: A Multiple Paradigm Science*. Allyn & Bacon.

_____. 1975b. "Sociology: A Multiple Paradigm Science." *American Sociologist* 10: 156-67.

