IMPLICIT ATTITUDES IN L2 MOTIVATION RESEARCH: THE CASE OF LEARNING ENGLISH AND MANDARIN IN HONG KONG

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Abstract

The field's current understanding of L2 motivation is largely reliant on explicit self-reports (e.g. questionnaires and interviews). While such means have provided the L2 motivation field with a wealth of understanding, the underlying assumptions are that such attitudes take place in a conscious manner and that such representations are adequate. Recent developments have discussed these limitations and have called for a more in-depth and holistic understanding of the motivational psyche of L2 learners (e.g. Al-Hoorie, 2016a; Dörnyei, 2020). This thesis seeks to address this research lacuna by arguing for the inclusion of an implicit dimension into L2 motivation research, using the case of Hong Kong as an illustration.

This thesis is first made up of a systemic literature review which provided an empirical understanding of the unprecedented boom in published studies that occurred between 2005 – 2014. Studying the dataset that was made up of 416 publications allowed for an understanding of the L2 methodological and theoretical trends in the literature. While there were several key findings from this empirical review, specific to this thesis, the most significant lies in the identification of the lack of an implicit dimension in the field. Consequently, this shaped the premise for this thesis, namely to set forth the case for a subconscious dimension of L2 motivation research.

The selection of Hong Kong as a research location was motivated by its unique linguistic landscape. In order to better understand the situation, a qualitative pilot study that sought to determine Hong Kong's viability as a location for unconscious motivation research was carried out. The qualitative results show that indeed, Hong Kong is loaded with ethnolinguistic tension. Regarding the participants' attitudes towards the three languages, Cantonese was found to be synonymous with the Hong Kong identity and English was seen as a superior language that was associated with prestige and professional opportunities. In comparison, Mandarin held little relevance to the participants' everyday lives. Upon further investigation, it was found that *Fear of Assimilation* was the main reason behind the participants' lacklustre attitudes towards Mandarin. Overall, this qualitative pilot study offered an insight into the complexities underscoring Hong Kong's unique, and loaded, linguistic environment; confirming Hong Kong's suitability as a research location for this implicit line of research.

The main study presented in this thesis is made up of two components: an explicit questionnaire and an implicit component that utilised the *Implicit Association Test* to tap into the participants' subconscious attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages. The two components were first analysed as a whole before they were compared against each other. The results show that the dataset was made up of congruent and incongruent participants. The data shows that the dissonance was caused by an explicit preference for English and an implicit preference for Mandarin. This is an interesting finding as it goes against the overall trend that was previously reported. Upon further analysis, implicit attitudes were also found to be significant moderators and predictors of language learning motivation.

The findings presented in this thesis demonstrated the limitations of explicit self-reports. In order to achieve a holistic understanding of learner motivation, this thesis puts forth the argument for the inclusion of an implicit dimension in L2 learner motivation research.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 The inspiration behind this thesis

My foray into the world of language teaching was admittedly an accidental one. Perhaps, because of my recollections of how trying I was as a student, I was adamant not to become a teacher. Life, however, had other plans for me. Years later, I found myself halfway across the world pursuing a Masters in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching at the University of Nottingham. It was whilst researching and writing up my dissertation on the implicit attitudes of Chinese university students towards the learning of English that I fell headlong into the rabbit hole of implicit L2 motivation research. I knew then that I wanted to pursue this line of subconscious motivation research further. Thus, I made my way to Zoltán's office one day, held my breath and braved asking him if he would be willing to be my PhD supervisor. Thankfully, he said yes!

Although I had the general theme for my thesis – subconscious attitudes in L2 motivation research – I struggled to decide on a research location. That was in the early months of 2016 and accounts about the "Fishball Riots" that were happening in Hong Kong were reported in the news. From further readings, I learnt that in the intervening years between 2014 and 2016, a series of post-handover protests had happened in Hong Kong. Of significance were the "Umbrella Revolution" in 2014 and the "Fishball Riots" in 2016 (Gunia, 2019). From that moment on, my scholarly interest in the city was piqued.

Historically, Hong Kong and my home country, Singapore, shared several similarities: both started as cities primarily made up of Chinese citizens and both were previously colonised by the British. However, with regards to their linguistic paths, the two diverged: while my Hong Kong peers grew up with Cantonese as their native language, I was brought up under the Singapore government's bilingual policy (Sim, 2016) where I was exposed to English and, because of my Chinese roots, Mandarin. Unbeknownst to the past me, as an English-Mandarin bilingual in a multilingual state, I was equipped with the two languages that will provide me with the ability to communicate with the majority of the world's population. Thus, I initially found it difficult to fully comprehend the media reports that talked about the animosity and resistance the Hong Kong people displayed towards the Mandarin language. Eventually, I started thinking about Hong Kong from a linguistic perspective and considered the roles English and Mandarin play in Hong Kong. One day, while discussing the potential of Hong Kong as a research location with Zoltán in his office, the direction of this thesis was inspired. It was then that we set my research agenda for the next few years: to learn about Hong Kong's unique linguistic environment and to find out if there is congruence or incongruence in my participants' implicit and explicit attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages. More generally, the overall objective was to successfully put forward a case for the inclusion of an implicit dimension in L2 motivation research!

1.2 Overview of this thesis

There are a total of seven chapters in this thesis and following this *Introduction*, *Chapter Two* presents a literature review. Notably, this is unlike a traditional PhD literature review in the sense that it allows for an empirical understanding of the unprecedented number of L2 motivation research that was published in the past decade. From the dataset totalling 416 publications, a systematic understanding could be obtained and it was from the identified theoretical trends that the premise for this thesis was set, namely that there is a need for an implicit dimension to L2 motivation research. From the observed methodological trend, it was found that "innovative" procedures are opening up new channels for empirical investigations and thus, apart from the main objective, a sub-goal was also derived: to pursue "innovative" research methods. This secondary objective was considered and incorporated into the design of the *Main Study*.

Chapter Three provides the necessary literature support for this line of implicit inquiry by covering four areas. It first offers a discussion of the conscious and unconscious literature found within mainstream psychology. Next, it provides an overview of the three key stages in the L2 motivation field before it moves on with an introduction to several implicit social cognition measurements. Finally, in order to demonstrate the viability of implicit studies in L2 research, it introduces four relevant studies that were conducted at the University of Nottingham, England.

Chapter Four serves one main purpose – to ground this research. It proceeds to introduce Hong Kong as the research location with a short introductory literature review of Hong Kong's unique triglossic environment. This is carried out by looking at Hong Kong's *past* and *present* political affiliations, how its *Medium of Instruction* was instrumental in its present trilingual and biliterate status and discusses the concept of the "Hong Kong identity". The theoretical rationale of this thesis will also be provided. This will be carried out via a) a discussion on multilingualism and the learning of other languages (LOTEs), b) a look at the shifting status of Global English and c) the observation of Mandarin as a rising global language.

Chapter Five presents the research objectives of the thesis and the methodologies employed for the *Qualitative Pilot Study* and *Main Study*. The *Qualitative Pilot Study* is an investigation into the participants' attitudes and opinions towards the three languages. It serves as a hypothesis generating initial pilot and the study design, participants, instruments and data collection procedures are outlined. The results from this qualitative pilot are then reported. The *Main Study* is made up of two components: a questionnaire and a time-response task. With regards to the questionnaire component, a pilot study was conducted prior to the main data collection. Thus, apart from the research details outlined above, information pertaining to the pilot, the findings from the pilot and the corresponding changes made to the final questionnaire were also included. It concludes with the research design of the implicit component.

Chapter Six presents the results from the *Main Study*. The main objectives of this study was to learn if there is congruence or incongruence in the participants' explicit and implicit attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages and to investigate the implications of implicit attitudes on learner motivation.

Finally, this thesis ends with *Chapter Seven* where it consolidates the results presented in this thesis. In this chapter, the implications and limitations of the thesis are offered before it provides several directions for future research. To conclude, it discusses the implications for theory and future research.

Chapter 2: L2 Motivation research 2005-2014

Understanding a publication surge and a changing landscape [1]

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a systematic literature review on the field of L2 motivation and consequently, provides for an empirical understanding into the theoretical and methodological trends of the field. Accordingly, the pursuit by researchers to better understand L2 motivation has traditionally been the most developed area in the study of the psychology of the language learner. Indeed, in their recent book-length overview of individual differences, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) noted that over the past decade, "[o]f all the constructs covered in this book, motivation is the one that has been subject to the most thorough theoretical overhaul" (p. 72). During their analysis of these developments, the authors also observed an unprecedented surge in the number of publications relating to L2 motivation from 2005 to 2014. Based on a preliminary analysis derived from a dataset containing over 200 published works, they not only identified some intriguing features of this boom, but also established that the publication trajectory was still on a significant incline, thereby confirming the unique status of the domain.

The present literature review revisits Dörnyei and Ryan's preliminary study by making the selection of the relevant papers and book chapters on L2 motivation more systematic, with the aim for comprehensiveness, or as close to it as possible, within the sampling frame. The final dataset (N = 416) doubled Dörnyei and Ryan's original article pool, which allowed for a range of quantitative analyses of the patterns the studies displayed with respect to their underlying theoretical and research methodological trends. As a result, the findings help to outline the main features of a fascinating landscape shift that has been taking place in the study of L2 motivation with direct implications for the broader field of SLA. Furthermore, because of the

[1] A version of this study has been published in *System*.
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.10.006

longitudinal dataset that spans a whole decade, the results also allow for projections to be made about certain directions in which the field may take in the coming years.

Although this literature review provides a brief overview of milestones in the development of L2 motivation theory and research (see Section 2.1.1), a point to be emphasised at this juncture is that this chapter does not set out to be a detailed study of what language learning motivation involves or how the understanding of the construct has evolved over the years. Rather, the focus in the following discussion will be on exploring the unparalleled publication surge that has taken place during the last ten years and the various trends and patterns that certain key quantitative (and in some cases quantified) descriptors of the published studies reflect. Admittedly, the approach of this literature review differs from the likes of "traditional" PhD literature reviews. Its intention is to provide an empirical understanding of the observed landscape shift by investigating the salient features of the methodological and theoretical trends found in the dataset concerning the past decade and, from the patterns derived, inform the research direction of this thesis.

2.1.1 Major milestones and stages in L2 motivation research

Standard accounts of the development of L2 motivation theory and research tend to identify three core historical phases (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011): an initial stage continuing into the early 1990s that was very much based on a social psychological perspective; a period of realignment, broadly speaking the 1990s, during which the field moved away from its social psychological origins to show a greater interest in concepts being developed in contemporary cognitive and educational psychology; finally, and roughly equivalent to the twenty-first century, a period in which scholarly interest has focused on contextual and dynamic aspects of learner motivation. Such broad historical brushstrokes can be valuable when outlining the big picture but these descriptions can also be lacking in vital details: periods overlap and theories are not simply replaced in the consecutive stages but are built on and modified, thereby causing subtle interactions.

According to the broad, three-phase outline, all of the research covered in this literature review falls under the third stage, that is, under the umbrella of a broadly conceived socio-dynamic approach. However, consistent with the above qualification the reality is far more nuanced, with certain previous theories and research methodological approaches having lasting effects. Therefore, a primary interest of this review lies in the interplay between the various theories and approaches within the post-2005 timeframe, with a special emphasis on examining (a) to what extent the main tenets of the social psychological period (namely, the dichotomy of integrative and instrumental motivation) are still featured in the current research agenda, (b) how the highly influential notions imported from cognitive and educational psychology during the 1990s (such as self-determination, attributions, and self-efficacy) fit in this shifting landscape, (c) how new theoretical concepts related to the L2 self have become established, and (d) how the evolution of research paradigms has been reflected in changes within the prevailing research practices.

The year 2005 was chosen as the starting point of this literature review because this was the year in which the currently dominant model of learner motivation, the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS; Dörnyei, 2009), was first proposed. Therefore, this starting date offered a useful landmark for observing the impact of the L2MSS on the overall research trajectory of the field, allowing observations on how the new approach accommodated or perhaps side-lined other initiatives. While considering the evolution of the field over the past decade, the emergence of new ideas (e.g. the application of a complex dynamics systems approach) and how they established themselves on the research agenda were also explored. Thus, a broad overview, such as the publication pattern analysis offered in this literature review, is a worthwhile enterprise because as the field continues to expand, it will become increasingly difficult for researchers to keep abreast of the changes. Analysing the anatomy of the extraordinary research surge in the area over the past decade may also be of interest beyond the immediate field of L2 motivation research, by offering lessons concerning the overall development of the field of SLA.

2.2 Methodology

2.2.1 Generating the article pool

A collection of papers – both empirical and conceptual – from databases and anthology chapters published between 2005 and 2014 was used to construct the dataset for this literature review. First, several keyword searches were conducted involving permutations of relevant terms such as 'motivation', 'language learning' and 'attitudes'[2]. This search procedure was conducted in four databases: Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA), Education Resource Information Center (ERIC), MLA International Bibliography (MLA), and PsychINFO, and new search parameters were added until the point of saturation (i.e. new searches produced largely duplications only). Only publications focusing specifically on L2 motivation and written in English for an established journal were considered; that is, articles in working papers and university-specific publications were excluded even if they were available on the internet. Second, added to this article pool were relevant chapters from seven motivation-specific anthologies published over the past decade (Apple et al., 2013; Csizér & Magid, 2014; Dörnyei, MacIntyre, et al., 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Lasagabaster et al., 2014; Murray et al., 2011; Ushioda, 2013). Once the initial article pool has been collated, a critical screening process was performed; whittling the initial collection down to a final number of 416 pieces of work (313 from the journals and 103 from the anthologies; the complete list is available in Appendix A).

The substantial, and frankly, surprising, total figure of 416 publications in the final dataset suggests a fairly comprehensive coverage because it drew on the resources of all the primary databases in the field as well as all the motivation-specific edited volumes published by international publishers since 2005 – indeed, it is difficult to imagine a paper with a prominent motivational focus not being included in any of the search results. Admittedly, this is however not an all-inclusive collection; most importantly, chapters from handbooks, encyclopaedias, conference proceedings,

[2] The keyword searches were restricted to only the title of the articles and included target word combinations such as a) 'language' and 'learning' and/or 'learner' and 'motivation' and/or 'motivating', b) 'L2 motivational self system', c) 'language' and 'learner' and/or 'learning' and 'vision', and d) 'language' and 'learning' and/or 'learner' and 'attitude'.

and anthologies that had a broader scope beyond L2 motivation were excluded because motivation chapters in such edited volumes tend to provide general overviews of the field rather than being representative of research proper. In spite of this restriction, as well as any other unintended sampling omission, it is believed that the article pool provides a representative sample of the relevant research output during the observed period.

2.2.2 Categorisation of the data

Information from all 416 publications were coded in a detailed spreadsheet based on the following main properties:

- The source of the paper: anthology chapter or journal article, with the latter further divided into subcategories (see below).
- The type and focus of the paper: empirical or conceptual, and whether its objectives were to understand motivatION as a theoretical construct or to apply practical motivatING techniques.
- The theoretical paradigm, that is, the motivation theory that guided the paper (see below for more details).
- In empirical studies, the demographics of the participants: the nationality and education level of the participants, as well as the geographical location where the study was conducted.
- In empirical studies, the target language of the learning behaviour under investigation.
- In empirical studies, the type of research methodology employed: quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, and “innovative” approaches (the latter including a range of “novel” procedures, both qualitative and quantitative, such as Q methodology, idiodynamics or retrodictive qualitative modelling).

These properties served as the basis of a macro perspective so as to provide broad temporal patterns and trends. Following that, further sub-categories were devised to conduct fine-tuned analyses that will be seen later in Section 2.3. Although most of the broad categories are self-explanatory, two require further clarification: the *article sources* and the *theoretical concepts* that were chosen.

Article sources: Due to the comprehensive nature of the four databases, the results from this search were composed of published works from as many as 123 journals. In order to make this astonishing figure more manageable for analysis, the periodicals were further divided into five clusters:

- *Group 1* – The five journals that traditionally have the highest profile and generally the highest impact factors in the field of SLA: Applied Linguistics, Language Learning, Modern Language Journal, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, and TESOL Quarterly.
- *Group 2* – International, peer-reviewed applied linguistics research journals published by established publishers or associations (e.g. System, Language Teaching Research).
- *Group 3* – Applied linguistics journals published in English-speaking countries but with a more localised focus (e.g. Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, RELC Journal).
- *Group 4* – Applied linguistics journals published in non-English speaking countries (e.g. JALT Journal).
- *Group 5* – Journals that are traditionally not associated with the field of applied linguistics (e.g. Journal of Language and Social Psychology).

Theoretical concepts: For this literature review, seven theoretical concepts were selected as rubrics for categorisation:

- Gardner's (1985) socio-educational theory of second language acquisition, best known for the concepts of Integrative and Instrumental motivation (hence Integrative/Instrumental);
- Dörnyei's (2009) L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS);
- Bandura's (1977, 1977) Self-Efficacy theory;
- Deci and Ryan's (1985) Self-Determination theory (SDT);
- Weiner's (1976, 2010) Attribution theory;
- MacIntyre et al. (1998) Willingness to Communicate in an L2 (WTC);
- Motivational Dynamics utilising Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST; e.g. Dörnyei, MacIntyre, et al., 2014)

The often intricate research designs that were employed in the papers to address the multi-faceted nature of L2 motivation also warranted an additional category, *'More than one concept'*, to accommodate studies that drew on multiple theoretical paradigms.

2.2.3 Analysis of the data

All the data were entered into a data file using the statistical software SPSS (Version 22) and for the non-numeric variables (e.g. theoretical basis) coding frameworks were prepared to quantify the information. Because the main purpose of the literature review was to illuminate the ongoing research boom, the primary method of analysis involved descriptive statistics, accompanied by various forms of developmental charts in the presentation of results.

Because the dataset included published works that spanned a decade, a crucial element of the analyses was the time factor. Thus, two-year periods were used as principal units of analysis, thereby breaking the decade down into five main blocks starting with 2005/06. The rationale for this clustering procedure was to produce robust time cells that reflect temporal trajectories in a more reliable manner than that of a single-year categorisation.

2.3 Results and discussion

The presentation of the findings will be divided into three parts. First, broad patterns observed in the data will be described; offering an extensive overview of the nature and dynamics of the publication surge. Second, a more in-depth analysis of the methodological and theoretical trends characterising the publications across the years will be presented. Finally, based on the patterns observed over the past ten years, a projection of the various directions in which the future research agenda may progress is offered.

2.3.1 Basic Patterns

2.3.1.1 The surge in research output

Figure 2-1 provides a schematic representation of the amount of research output broken down by the biannual time clusters. As can be seen, there is a steady overall growth trajectory, with the final period covered by the analysis including over four times as many studies as the first. To give a sense of the surge in the rate of output, in 2005/06 the frequency of publications was equivalent to one new paper being published every 22 days and this increased to one paper every five days by 2013/14. This reflects a remarkable level of research activity, which has been acutely felt by anybody trying to stay in touch with ongoing developments in the field.

An early question considered in the analysis of the dataset was whether the surge in motivation research was merely an absolute increase, possibly mirrored across other areas, or was it something unique to the area of L2 motivation. Because of the broad scope of the field of SLA, it is impossible to replicate and provide figures for all avenues of research; instead, the approach taken was to compare research output in the area of motivation with output relating to the other traditionally conceived major individual difference factor in SLA, *learner aptitude*. The reason for this choice is because of how the aptitude-motivation dyad has been found to "exert the greatest amount of consistent influence on the SLA process" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 247).

Figure 2-2 provides a frequency diagram of publications on these two core learner variables over the past decade; the growing gap between the two trajectories demonstrates that the growth in motivation studies is unique and not merely a function of the overall increase in published papers on learner differences. While it might be possible that the chart might look different if another psychological variable had been used as a comparison, as mentioned, it is unfortunately beyond the scope of this thesis to compare all avenues of SLA research.

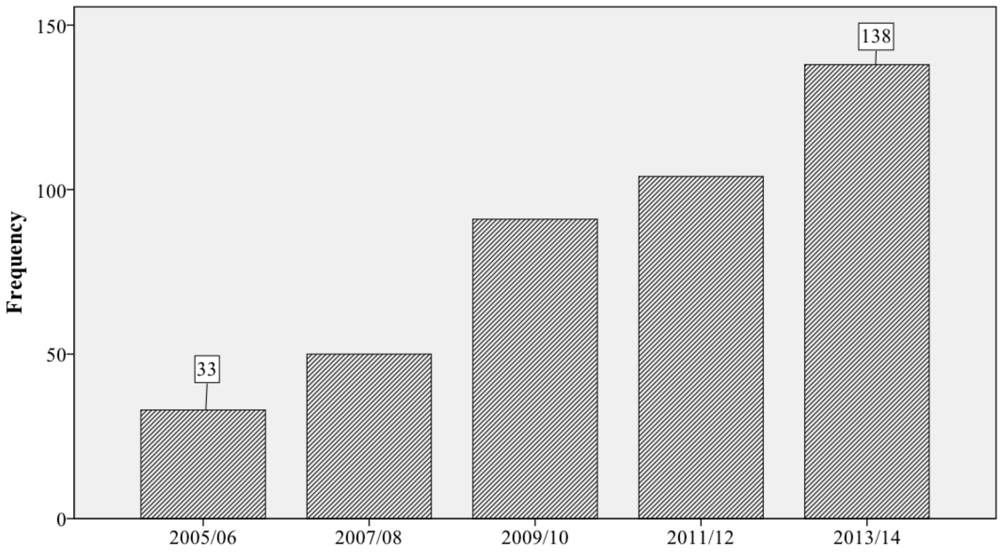

Figure 2-1: Frequencies of publications on L2 motivation throughout the past decade

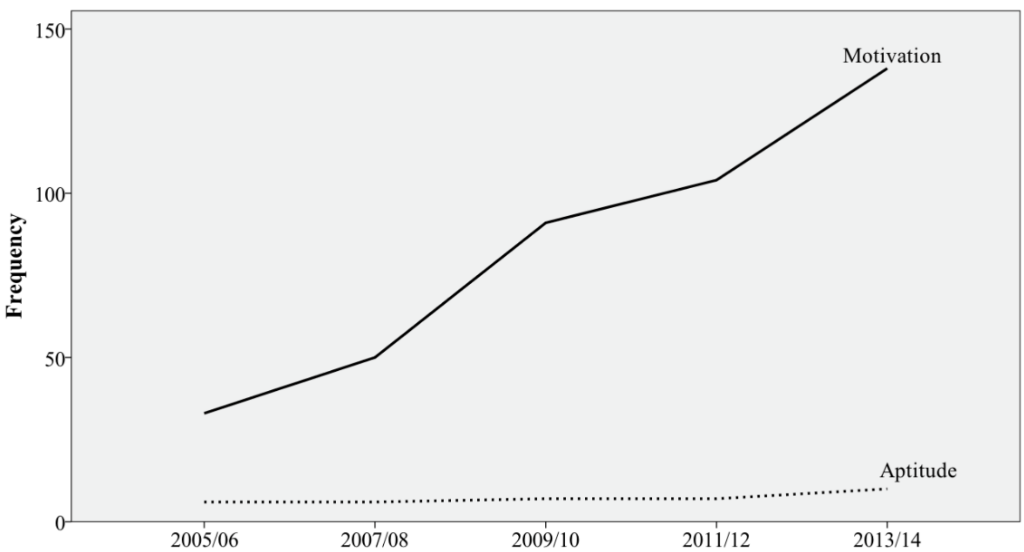

Figure 2-2: A comparison between published works researching learner motivation and aptitude across the decade

There are several plausible explanations for the contrasting fortunes of these two areas of research (i.e. L2 motivation and aptitude). Some of the difference could be attributed to the regular appearance of authoritative and accessible summaries of motivation (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001b; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) which have helped newcomers in the area (e.g. doctoral students) to get oriented and involved in the development of the field. A further factor may be the broader educational climate in which learners and their own learning behaviours are regarded as central to the learning process; motivation is a concept in tune with such an environment, but the same cannot be said for aptitude, which is seen by many as a largely static trait that is mostly beyond the learners' control (for further discussion of this matter, see Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

In order to understand the nature of the unique surge in motivation research, a breakdown of the studies in the dataset according to the various publication categories described earlier was conducted. Table 2-1 presents the frequency and percentage of each publication type's contribution to the overall research output, showing clearly that two forums in particular accommodated the surge: influential (but not the highest-profile) international applied linguistics journals and anthologies dedicated to L2 motivation research. Of these, the second category – edited volumes – came as a surprise because publishers are known to be reluctant to commit to such works as these tend to be commercially unattractive propositions. Therefore, the fact that as many as seven such volumes have appeared in the past six years is testament to the general perceived popularity of the domain – previous growth indicators of journal articles and book sales must have offered publishers convincing evidence of the worthiness of such ventures.

Table 2-1: Frequency and percentage figures of each source category

	Journal articles					
	Group 1	**Group 2**	**Group 3**	**Group 4**	**Group 5**	**Anthologies**
Frequency	35	108	81	47	42	103
Percentage	8.41%	25.96%	19.47%	11.30%	10.10%	24.76%

* Group 1: The five highest profile SLA journals; Group 2: International applied linguistics journals; Group 3: Less-known applied linguistics journals published in English speaking countries; Group 4: Less-known applied linguistics journals published in non-English speaking countries; Group 5: Non-applied-linguistics journals

A further point of interest concerns the papers published in 'non-applied-linguistics journals' (Group 5) as this category not only highlights the interdisciplinary nature of the field of motivation research, but also offers insights into how researchers have broadened the scope of publishing avenues. A check of these journals showed that L2 motivation papers were accepted for publication in the areas of education (e.g. *Educational Research*), communication (e.g. *Communication Research Reports*), intercultural relations (e.g. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*), and psychology (e.g. *Psychological Reports*).

Figure 2-3 further breaks down the data presented in Table 2-1 according to the five temporal clusters. It indicates a steady climb in the number of published works in all the five journal groups from 2005/06 to 2009/10 before there was a general decline beginning from 2011/12. This, however, is likely to be a mere 'dip' that can be attributed to the sharp increase in anthology papers: edited volumes diverted the attention of scholars as these outlets often offer a safer and faster publication environment than many peer-reviewed journals.

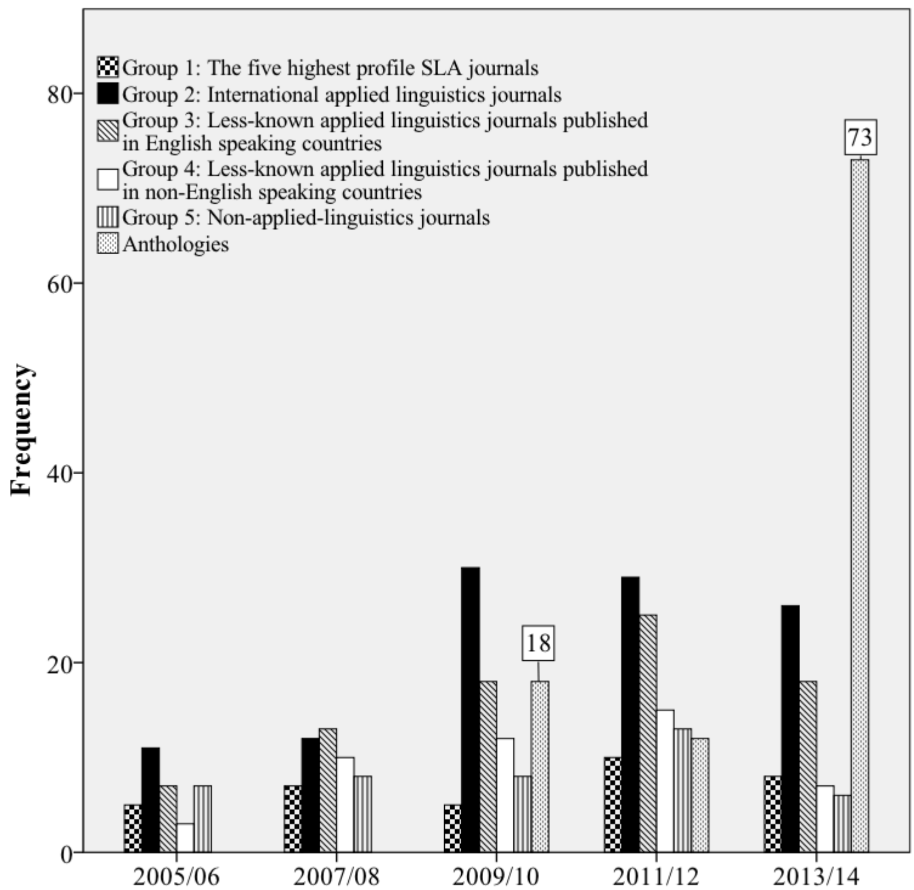

Figure 2-3: Breakdown of sources across the decade

2.3.1.2 The nature of the published works

A view informally held by many researchers about why the field of L2 motivation has attracted so much research activity is that it represents an attractive point of intersection between theory and practice in the psychology of language learning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015), thereby engaging both practically and theoretically minded scholars. In order to test this assumption, the studies in the dataset were divided into two categories depending on whether their main focus was theoretical in nature (motivatION) – for example, aiming to identify relevant motivational components in a specific learning environment – or if they were geared at increasing the learners' motivation in some practically minded manner (motivatING). Although the majority (67%) of the 335 empirical papers in the present dataset focused on motivatION, when this was mapped out across the decade (see Figure 2-4), there was a clear corresponding growth for both motivatION and motivatING studies. This indicated a balanced trajectory and thus reaffirmed the partnership between these two aspects of L2 motivation research. The explanation for the consistently higher output figures for theoretical papers is likely to do with the nature of the publication sources assessed in this investigation: in research journals and anthologies, scholars are more likely to address theoretical issues than in other language teaching forums not included in this chapter (e.g. magazines and newsletters).

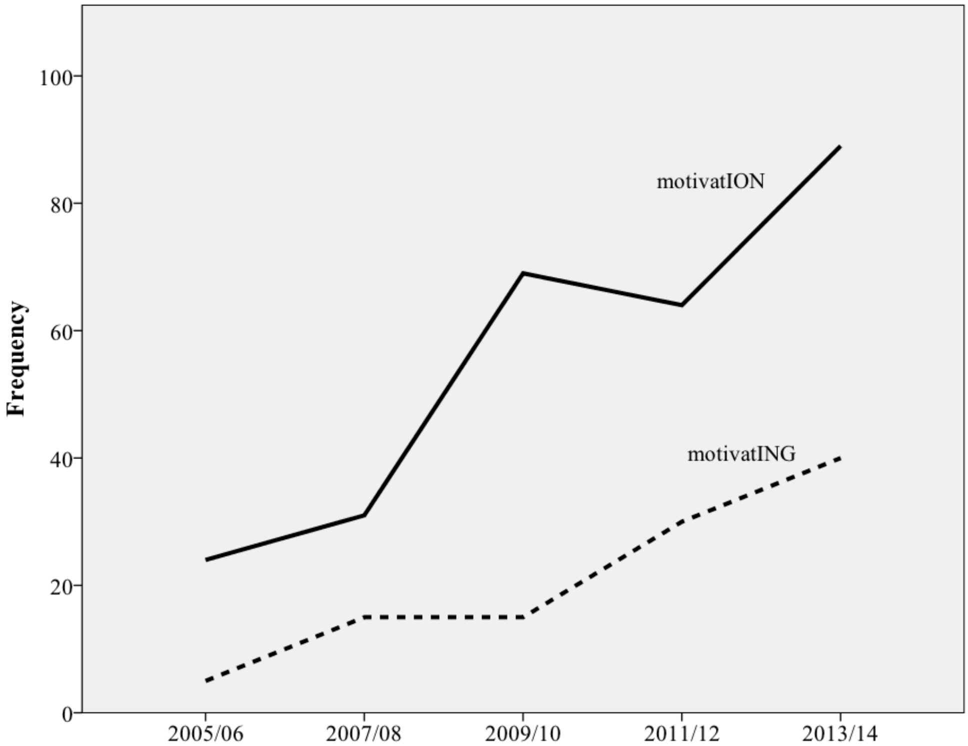

Figure 2-4: The breakdown of "MotivatION" and "MotivatING" studies throughout the decade

2.3.1.3 Demographics of the research participants

The demographics of the participants involved in the empirical studies in this dataset were investigated via three key points of interest: (a) level of education, (b) countries in which the studies were conducted, and (c) the nationalities of the examined language learners.

Education levels: Initially, there was an intention to summarise the main age groups of the research participants but this proved to be problematic because of the lack of consistency and standardisation in the way age data were reported. As a result, a summary of the learners' level of education was considered. However, even this was not problem-free because of the different education systems employed worldwide and the use of non-standard terminologies in different countries. Therefore, the education data was standardised according to the British education system: primary (5-11 years), secondary (11-18) and tertiary education (18+), and collated other institutions (e.g. mixed-age private language schools) into the 'Others' category. The data (Table 2-2) reveal that the largest participant group is made up of college/university students. This is not surprising because, for many researchers, they constitute the most easily accessible convenience sample which is, at the same time, usually linked to the least strict research ethics requirements. However, the predominance of this type of students and particularly the underrepresentation of secondary school pupils – which might be considered the most suitable age group for instructed SLA – is clearly far from ideal.

Table 2-2: Breakdown of empirical studies according to participants' education levels

	Primary	**Secondary**	**Tertiary**	**Others**
Frequency	19	67	173	76
Percentage	5.67%	20.00%	51.64%	22.69%

Geographic distribution of the research: Much of the early research into L2 motivation was criticised for its focus on a single learning context, the unique Canadian setting. The data reveal a far more diverse distribution in recent years: descriptive statistics show that the empirical studies in the present dataset were conducted in 53 countries, with the three leading locations being Japan (38 studies; 11.34%), United States (30 studies; 8.96%), and Mainland China (25 studies; 7.46%). However, if Hong Kong (15 studies; 4.48%) and Taiwan (11 studies; 3.28%) were added to the Mainland China category, the composite score of the Chinese-speaking group doubles to 51 studies (15.22%), making this the largest cluster. These figures indicate a definite geographic shift towards East Asia from the previous centres of motivation research in North America and Europe.

Nationalities of the research participants: An issue closely related to the geographical distribution of the studies discussed above concerns the nationalities of the language learners examined. Once again, East Asian learners dominate: the two most studied nationalities were the Chinese (54 studies; 16.12%) and the Japanese (31 studies; 9.25%). Figure 2-5 presents the temporal distribution of these frequencies across the decade, which shows unambiguously that the interest in East Asian learners' motivation has been growing steadily. Given the magnitude of the body of Chinese learners of foreign languages this is unsurprising, particularly in the light of a worldwide trend sometimes referred to as 'the great China exodus' (Browne, 2014), which also directed the limelight on Chinese students seeking to further their education overseas (Chen, 2011; Luo, 2013). This outflow of Chinese nationals, in turn, has simultaneously educated a new generation of Chinese L2 motivation researchers and provided Western scholars with increased links to, and greater access to, the Chinese population.

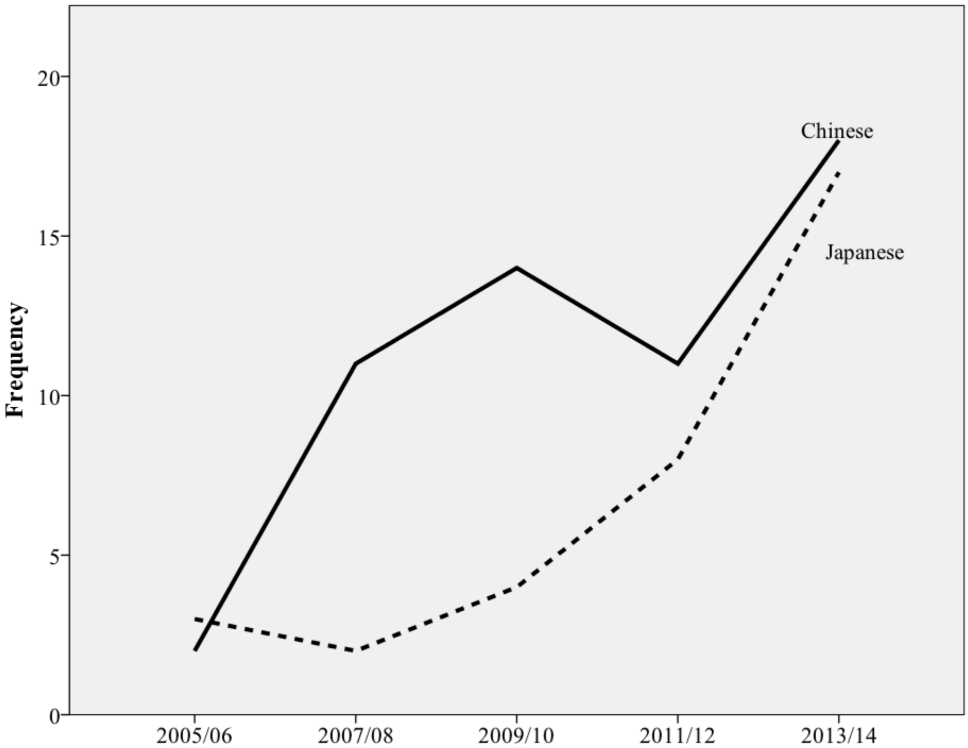

Figure 2-5: The focus of studies on the Chinese and the Japanese across the decade

On the other hand, the salience of Japan and Japanese learners on the L2 motivation research agendas might be unexpected for many and while the reasons for Japan becoming a 'motivation research hub' are intricately complex, it is possible to identify a broad concern underlying this phenomenon: in spite of the significant resources channelled into English education at a national level, there is still a perceived failure of a practical working knowledge of the English language in Japan. In other words, there is a marked discrepancy in Japan between the significant efforts and resources invested and the rate of success in English language learning. As a result of this gap, researchers have been keen to seek a better understanding of this anomaly, and learner motivation has become a compelling explanation for this state of affairs. One recent reflection of this increased interest in L2 motivation in Japan can be seen in an anthology edited by Apple et al. (2013), which was specifically devoted to "pull together the cutting edge EFL motivational research occurring in Japan" (p. xi) in order to provide "a broad canvas on which the details of the specific situations are described, analysed and discussed, to novice and experienced readers within and outside of the Japanese context” (p. xii).

2.3.1.4 The L2 being studied

Interestingly, given the recent ‘multilingual turn’ in the field of SLA, a surprising finding in this study concerns the L2 being studied: the data reveal that a significant majority (72.67%) of empirical investigations was committed to the study of English as an L2. However, in the light of the world language status of English and especially from the discussion seen in the previous section relating to the geographical shift in motivation research, perhaps this finding was to be expected as motivation research in Asian settings is almost exclusively concerned with the learning of English, often in monolingual contexts (e.g. in Japan or many parts of China). Figure 2-6 illustrates relevant developments over the past decade, reflecting the growing dominance of Global English in language education. This trend raises concerns as to whether the theoretical basis of L2 motivation might be affected by the L2-specific bias, and also whether the geographic shift in motivation research may lead to an unintended lack of attention to forms of language learning other than the learning of English in primarily monolingual settings.

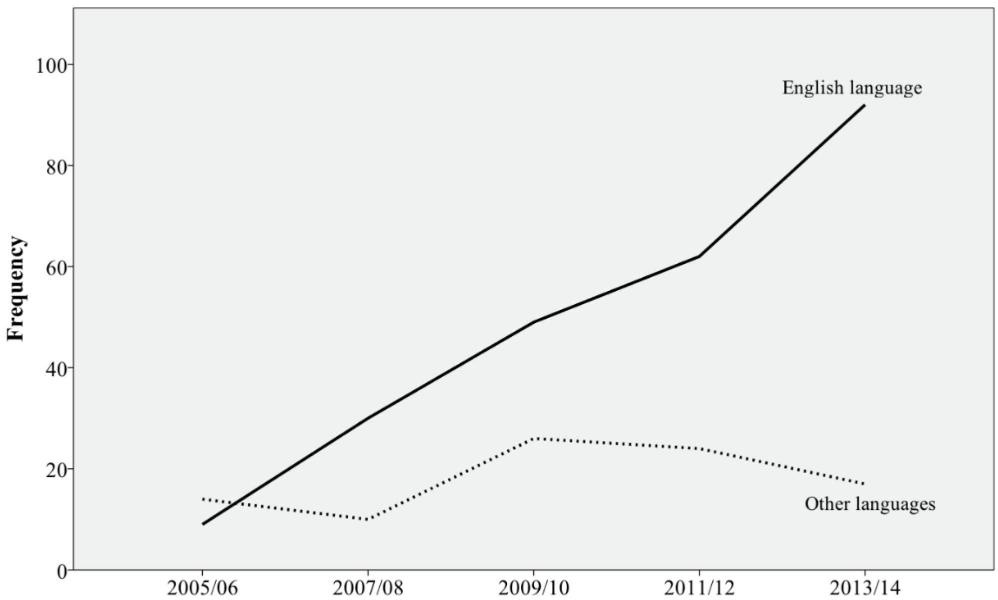

Figure 2-6: A breakdown of the L2 being studied

2.3.2 Research methodological changes

Of the 335 empirical papers in this dataset, 178 were grounded in quantitative research methods, 71 were qualitative studies, 73 employed mixed methodologies, and 13 utilised "innovative" methods. In order to understand the nature of the research base of the studies better, the quantitative dataset was further divided into two categories: studies using (a) standard inferential statistics such as t-tests, correlations and ANOVA, and (b) structural equation modelling (SEM). Similarly, qualitative research methods were separated into 'Interviews' (including both individual and focus group) and 'Other qualitative approaches' (e.g. various forms of observation and discourse analysis).

Figure 2-7 presents the frequency breakdown of the assessed methodological categories across the decade and it indicates that there is still a prevailing strong preference for quantitative research in the domain. However, the dominance of quantitative approaches has been diminishing and this is largely due to the fact that SEM, which had been seen as the 'top dog' in statistical techniques in applied linguistics, failed to display the kind of growth trajectory that one would have expected at the beginning of the decade under investigation (the frequency grew from two papers in 2005/06 to only five studies in 2013/14). This may partly be due to the special expertise its use requires, but it could be that the absence of an increased uptake of the method is also related to the 'dynamic turn' of the field (to be discussed in Section 2.4.1) that did not endorse the kind of linear cause-effect relations that SEM relies on. The slow uptake of SEM provides the field with a salutary lesson. If this literature review had been conducted in 2005 instead of 2015, it is highly probable that SEM would have been identified as the most promising avenue for future research; however, the fact that this has not happened demonstrates the dynamic development of the field and also serves as a timely reminder of the uncertainties in trying to predict longer-term future developments.

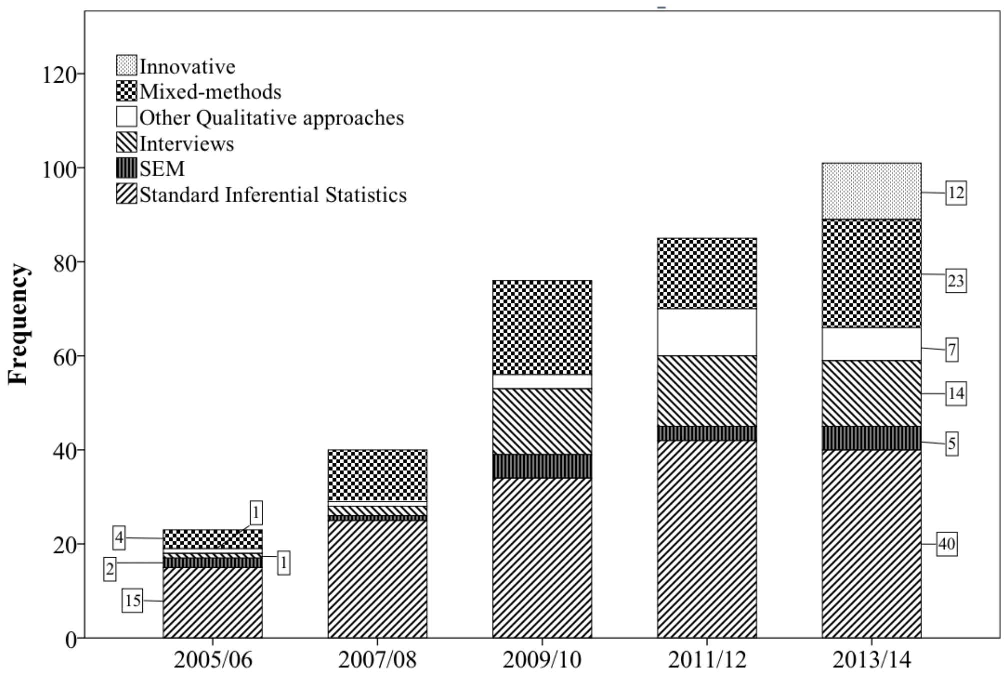

Figure 2-7: Breakdown of the research methods employed by the empirical papers

Another salient pattern revealed in Figure 2-7 is the substantial increase of qualitative studies from two to 21 over the period, which is in line with the repeated calls for such investigations in the field (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001a; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 1994). In view of a similarly robust growth in mixed-methods studies (from four to 23) – which by definition is the addition of a qualitative component to a quantitative study – it is not farfetched to conclude that a major research paradigm shift has taken place in the study of L2 motivation over the past decade. This shift in research orientation has encouraged a new wave of scholars who are skilled in and/or attracted to non-quantitative research techniques to enter the field and the consequent arrival of these newcomers has contributed to a revitalisation of the research environment. A further revealing aspect in the figure concerns the relatively recent emergence of the category made up of "innovative" studies that employed the use of research methods such as *idiodynamics* (e.g. MacIntyre, 2012), *retrodictive qualitative modelling* (e.g. Chan et al., 2014) and *Q methodology* (e.g. Irie & Ryan, 2015). It should be clarified that these research methods are "innovative" in the sense that they are rarely seen in the field and not so much that they are new. For instance, the concept of idiodynamics dates back to when Rosenzweig (1986) demanded a focus on events as opposed to traits and how there was an increased use of Q methodology as a means of extracting subjective opinion among students of the human sciences since *The Study of Behaviour* (Stephenson, 1953) was published. This recent emergence of such "innovative" studies will be discussed in Section 2.4.1 when projections on the future development of methodological techniques are made.

2.3.3 Theoretical developments

Figure 2-8 maps the theoretical foundations underlying the empirical studies across the investigated decade; because the other paradigms did not have a substantial effect on the overall picture, the focus here will only be on the four categories that topped the 2013/14 chart: L2MSS, 'More than one concept', CDST, and Integrative/Instrumental.

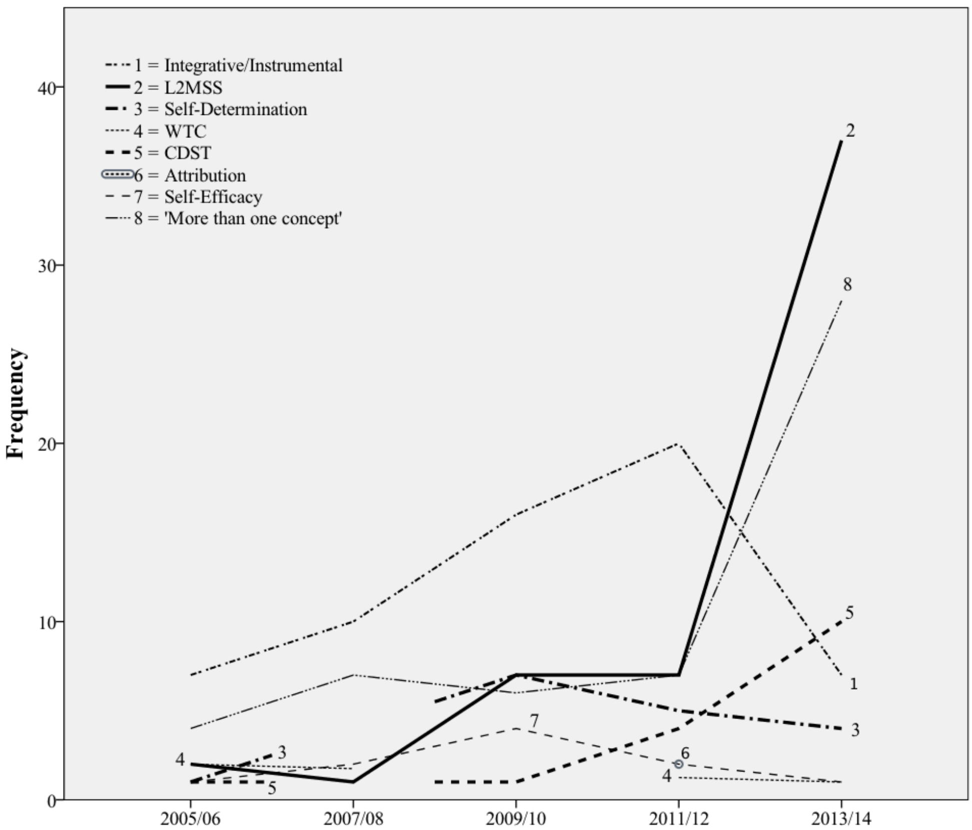

Figure 2-8: Overview of the theoretical trends across the decade

The theoretical trajectories show clearly that Integrative/Instrumental theory enjoyed a steady growth from 2005/06 before it experienced a steep decline from 2011/12. In a sharp contrast, L2MSS saw a spike from 2011/12. The timing of this growth is understandable and it corresponds with Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009) anthology which presented the field with a number of large-scale studies that confirmed the validity of the L2MSS concept and, at the same time, demonstrated the affordance for both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies within its framework. A potential danger concerning the L2MSS, voiced in the same volume, concerned the fact that the term 'self' was perhaps too broad and nebulous to facilitate a meaningful research agenda (MacIntyre et al., 2009); however, Figure 2-8 suggests that researchers have kept exploring 'self'-related motivational components despite these worries.

The contrasting trajectories of the Integrative/Instrumental dichotomy and the L2MSS indicate the field's collective shift in research focus from one concept to the other. This, however, raises an important question: did this shift only involve a 'surface treatment', that is, was it a mere repackaging of existing research efforts by replacing integrative motivation with the ideal L2 self and instrumental motivation with the ought-to L2 self? In this respect a closer inspection of the 'More than one concept' category might offer an answer.

Table 2-3 provides a breakdown of the 52 papers that drew on multiple motivation theories arranged according to their conceptual pairings. It shows that the majority of the studies (41) included the L2MSS concept, and amongst these, two pairing patterns stand out: 22 studies combined it with the Integrative/Instrumental theory and 14 with CDST. The first pairing pattern is to be expected and can be attributed to the transitory period in the field as scholars were trying to find both common and contrasting grounds between the traditional and the incoming paradigm. The second pattern, the fusion of CDST studies (representing the latest theoretical innovation in the field of SLA) with the L2MSS, however, offers some evidence that a self-based approach has provided a welcoming framework for innovation, thereby proving capable of accommodating radically new theoretical perspectives. It may be speculated that a factor underlying both the theoretical shift towards the L2MSS and the observed research boom is related to the versatility of the L2MSS framework: it not only allowed for the engagement with existing theories and methods on their own terms but it also offered a springboard for new approaches. This flexibility will be further confirmed below in the examination of the research methodological correlates of the L2MSS.

Table 2-3: The 52 ‘More than one concept’ studies and their conceptual pairings

Theoretical paradigms	**Combination patterns**																
Instrumental/Integrative	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x									
L2MSS				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			
Self-Determination	x				x			x				x	x				
WTC		x								x						x	x
CDST							x		x				x	x		x	x
Attribution															x		x
Self-Efficacy			x			x		x			x			x	x		
Frequency	4	1	1	16	2	1	2	1	10	1	4	2	1	1	3	1	1

The absence of any ‘fossilisation’ regarding the L2MSS – that is, no sign of rigidity in terms of theoretical innovations and evolution associated with the concept – can be further tested by examining the research methodological underpinnings of studies that adopted the L2MSS. Figure 2-9 presents a schematic representation of the research approaches employed by scholars in the three categories discussed above (L2MSS, CDST, and ‘More than one concept’) over the last four years of the period under scrutiny. Once again, an air of creativity and room for expansion within the L2MSS concept was observed, with non-orthodox (i.e. non-traditional quantitative and qualitative) methodologies playing a decisive part in ongoing research. Indeed, it is interesting to observe how the research methodological make-up of the 2013/14 state of L2MSS is surprisingly similar to the make-up of the ‘More than one concept’ group. Taking the above points together, it may be concluded that a significant contributor to the driving force behind the ongoing L2 motivation surge has been an emerging creative research climate that did not stifle the innovative spirit and one that successfully accommodated a wide range of scholars despite the dominant status of the L2MSS.

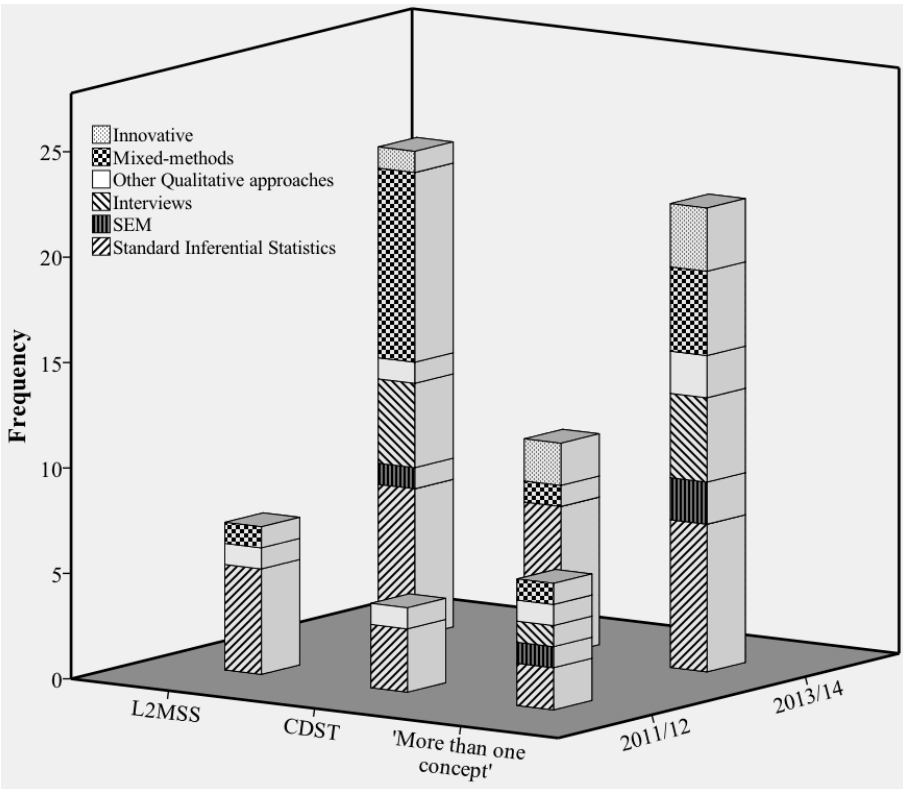

Figure 2-9: Breakdown of research tools employed by researchers

2.4 General discussion

The basic patterns presented in the first part of the results section confirmed the fact that the surge of research interest in L2 motivation has been a substantial one over the past decade: the biannual number of publications quadrupled, with the majority published in influential peer-reviewed applied linguistics journals and high-profile anthologies. Furthermore, as the majority of studies were made up of empirical papers, these figures reflect active research engagement. This scholarly interest was not limited to theoretical agendas because the data indicated a good balance between the theoretical and practical dimensions of L2 motivation research (i.e. between motivatION and motivatING). However, this balanced approach did not apply to the demographics of the examined language learners as, in this respect, tertiary students dominated in the research samples. From the data, an increased interest in the East Asian research environments was observed (as witnessed in Section 2.3.1.3); while this growth indicates the breathing of new energy into the field, when coupled together with the discussion of the L2 being studied, it could also potentially mean an upset in the healthy research balance in terms of the overall geographical context of motivation research and the forms of language learning being studied.

The examination of the theoretical and research methodological climate of the field revealed an environment that is dynamic and accommodating, as opposed to one that is static and stagnant. The consistency of this perception – derived from several different perspectives – suggests that an important key in unlocking the mystery of the unprecedented research boom observed over the past decade is that the domain of L2 motivation research has provided a welcoming research context that drew in a new set of scholars of varied backgrounds, thereby multiplying the size of the dedicated research community. Indeed, at the first ever international conference on Motivational Dynamics and Second Language Acquisition (2014, August; Nottingham, UK) – which itself was a sign of the increasing status of the field – Peter MacIntyre explained jokingly in his plenary talk that at the end of the 1990s most active L2 motivation researchers could have been seated at one large dinner table in a restaurant, which was in stark contrast to the 170+ attendants of this conference coming from over 30 countries. This growing interest in the subject, in turn, initiated a chain reaction, with publishers setting aside any commercial apprehensions about anthologies dedicated to L2 motivation – and more generally, to the psychology of the L2 learner – thereby creating further publication and research opportunities.

Finally, the data suggest that although quantitative research utilising traditional statistical measurement has remained the most popular choice, the dominance of the quantitative paradigm has disappeared and a variety of qualitative and innovative research methods has been increasingly endorsed in L2 motivation research. In terms of theoretical aspects, the Integrative/Instrumental dichotomy saw a decline in popularity beginning in 2011/12 and this was contrasted with the surge in the L2MSS from 2011/12. The current dataset do not indicate the gradual 'fossilisation' of a new orthodoxy, and that, indeed, the increase in the 'More than one concept' category highlights an innovative interest in juxtaposing diverse perspectives. Similarly, the spirit of experimentation has also been evident in the emerging popularity of the concept of CDST and its effects on learner motivation, which positions the study of L2 motivation at the vanguard of implementing research in a dynamic systems vein within the field of SLA (see also de Bot, 2015 which confirms this position).

2.4.1 Future projections and recommendations

In this section, some ideas about what the coming years may hold are offered, bearing of course in mind that in the earlier discussion of SEM, it was mentioned how linear predictions based upon current patterns can be a dangerous enterprise. Nevertheless, this literature review also shows that major shifts are not instantaneous, and therefore some projections about the future trajectories of the field on the basis of the data from the last two time blocks (2011/12 and 2013/14) of this investigation may be attempted.

The first point to be made concerns the observed continuity in the history of research on L2 motivation. Dörnyei et al. (2015) offer an overview of how various developments in the field have built on each other over the years, extending the scope and theoretical basis of the area, giving the introduction and the development of the L2MSS as an example. Indeed, the L2MSS was intended to provide an integrated paradigm that subsumed past theoretical strands such as the theories of Gardner, Noels and Ushioda (for a discussion, see Dörnyei, 2005; McEown, Noels, & Chaffee, 2014), and the findings suggest that this incremental process is ongoing: there is a growing number of studies trying to integrate the L2MSS with other theoretical strands (see Table 2-3). Furthermore, two new theoretical concepts – *L2 vision* (e.g. Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; You et al., 2016) and *'directed motivational currents'* (e.g. Dörnyei, MacIntyre, et al., 2014; Dörnyei, Henry, et al., 2015; Dörnyei, Ibrahim, et al., 2015; Henry et al., 2015) – have recently emerged directly from the L2MSS framework and thus might take the theory of future self-guides to a new theoretical level. It is also noteworthy in this respect that these new theoretical innovations are accompanied by detailed practical recommendations of which some have already been empirically tested (e.g. Chan, 2014; Fukada et al., 2011; Mackay, 2014; Magid, 2014; Magid & Chan, 2012; Sampson, 2012), which is consistent with the complementary pattern of motivatION and motivatING observed in the dataset.

Another expected future theoretical development concerns the reshaping of our understanding of L2 motivation through the lens of CDST, which is seen as a 'new transdisciplinary theme for applied linguistics' (Larsen-Freeman, 2012). Figure 2-8 presented a steady climb in research on motivational dynamics, and viewed against the backdrop of the failure of SEM to capture an increasing segment of the research market, the dynamic systems growth is likely to prevail. If this is indeed the case, the trend will support the growing conviction that scholars who are on the look-out for more sophisticated avenues of motivation research tend to favour less and less those traditional research designs that focus on linear cause-effect relationships. Instead, as observed in the emerging patterns of this review, there has been a definite growth in the range of "innovative" methods. In this respect, it should be noted that research methodological innovations first appeared in the field with mixed-methods research at the beginning of the new millennium, and while that has by now acquired an established, authoritative status, Dörnyei et al. (2014, p. 426) present a list of "novel" procedures that are opening up new channels for empirical investigations (e.g. Q methodology, idiodynamics, and retrodictive qualitative modelling). To reiterate, these research methods are "innovative" in the sense that they are rarely seen in the field and not so much that they are new. Although these authors also stress that dynamic systems methods are unlikely to fully replace other approaches to researching L2 motivation, the innovative spirit in the area is undeniable. Thus, consolidating the above-mentioned points, a safe prediction can be made: that the field will see further changes in terms of methodological advances and that these advances will behave in a manner of dynamic systems and will eventually settle into new 'attractor states'.

While the overall purpose of this review has been descriptive in the sense that its primary aim was to document a salient publication surge and landscape shift, it may not be inappropriate at this point to also offer some recommendations. Without wanting to provide any prescriptive theoretical angles, nevertheless it is believed that the field would benefit from three areas of improvement:

a) The first point concerns the demographics of the participants being studied. From Table 2-2, it is clear that the tertiary student sample dominates the research paradigms and secondary school pupils are underrepresented. It was pointed out that this was not ideal given that the secondary school age is one that is most suitable for language learning within instructional contexts. In addition to this, the virtual absence of systematic research on the motivation of primary school pupils should be noted. Admittedly, due to issues related to implicit and explicit learning, the study of the motivation driving early language learning in instructional context is undoubtedly a complex question, but this complexity should warrant, rather than inhibit, further research on the topic.

b) In terms of research methodology, simplistic research designs – even if accompanied by substantial samples – are unlikely to shed much new light on the critical questions faced by researchers today. Also, while mixed-methods research has great future potential, most of the current practice seems to involve rather superficial mixing of relatively independent qualitative and quantitative components within a study, without maximising the full potential of the approach. Therefore, it is believed that adding further "innovative" methods (such as the "novel" procedures above-mentioned) in the way data is collected and analysed would contribute to the healthy balance of findings in the field.

c) With regards to theoretical developments, mainstream motivation research in psychology (e.g. Ryan, 2012) has looked at the emergence of novel theoretical angles, in particular, the exploration of the *subconscious* dimension of motivation (e.g. automatic or implicit goals, non-conscious motivational processes, conflict between conscious and unconscious attitudes). Our field is ready to expand into exploring these areas because it seems evident that language globalisation has created a linguistic landscape that is characterised by both powerful positive trends and strong negative undercurrents (e.g. the love-hate relationship with English observed in some parts of the world). A second point to be highlighted here pertains to the nature of the L2 being studied. As illustrated in Figure 2-6, a clear need to study the motivation to learn languages other than global English was also observed. The overriding focus on the learning of English in L2 motivation research over the past decade raises the question if current theoretical perspectives are adequate to account for motivation to learn languages other than English. This point will be returned to later in *Chapter Four* where a discussion on multilingualism and the motivation to learn languages other than English (LOTE) will be offered.

2.4.2 Limitations

Although every effort was made to base the observations on as complete a dataset of publications as possible, this literature review does not claim that the article pool is fully comprehensive. Moreover, because in some cases, regrettably, the analysis of the content of a paper was dependent on the information published only in the abstract of the article that this thesis had access to, there is further danger of omission of detail. Also, due to the overlapping nature of research objectives in some studies, it was not always straightforward to decide which categories a particular investigation fell under, and trying to accommodate this fusion under the ‘More than one concept’ rubric inevitably mixed up different patterns. A further limitation of this literature review is that it admittedly offered a somewhat restricted focus in the sense that only seven theoretical concepts were highlighted, largely because only these seven were represented by a sufficiently high number of studies in the literature to make an observable mark in our charts. Yet, because the selected theories did represent all the three developmental stages of L2 motivation research (discussed in the Introduction), it is hoped that the picture outlined is one that is sufficiently inclusive. Thus, on balance, it is the belief that the composite charts and figures presented in this chapter are robust enough to reflect true and meaningful tendencies.

2.5 Conclusion

The intention of this literature review was to understand the observed landscape shift by investigating the salient features of the methodological and theoretical trends in the past decade. A systematic literature review of the L2 motivation field was presented and from it, several salient features of the methodological and theoretical trends were empirically identified.

Bearing in mind that the research observed in this literature review were solely based on self-reports, an implicit research lacuna was thus identified. This observation therefore informs this thesis which seeks to argue for an implicit dimension to L2 implicit motivation research.

Apart from this, it was found that “innovative” research methods are opening up new possibilities for empirical investigations (see Figure 2-7). Taking this into consideration, a sub-goal was also derived for this thesis: the inclusion of “innovative” research methods (that is, research methods that have been scant explored in the L2 motivation field) in the *Main Study*. Specifically, the use of the *Implicit Association Test* which allows for implicit attitudes to be measured (to be discussed in *Chapter Three*). This secondary objective was considered during the design of the *Main Study* which will be presented later in *Chapter Five*.

It was also observed that there is an overriding focus on the learning of English in L2 motivation research. This raises questions as to how current theoretical perspectives can account for motivation to learn languages other than English and a discussion on multilingualism and the motivation to learn languages other than English (LOTE) will be offered in *Chapter Four*.

In the next chapter, a discussion of the conscious and unconscious dimension presented in mainstream psychology will be presented so as to provide literature support for unconscious research in the field of L2 motivation.

Chapter 3: Understanding L2 attitudes and motivation

The conscious and unconscious dimensions

3.1 Introduction

Earlier in *Chapter Two*, an overview of the field of L2 motivation between 2005-2014 was provided. It concluded with theoretical recommendations for the L2 learning field whereby the need for research into the conscious and unconscious aspects of learner motivation was highlighted:

> With regards to theoretical developments, we find in mainstream motivation research in psychology (e.g. Ryan, 2012), the emergence of novel theoretical angles, in particular, the exploration of the subconscious dimension of motivation (e.g. automatic or implicit goals, non-conscious motivational processes, conflict between conscious and unconscious attitudes). We feel that our field is ready to expand into exploring these areas because it seems evident that language globalisation has created a linguistic landscape that is characterised by both powerful positive trends and strong negative undercurrents (e.g. the love-hate relationship with English observed in some parts of the world). (Boo et al., 2015, p. 156)

The purpose of this chapter therefore is to provide literature support for this line of unconscious research in the field of L2 motivation. The outline of this chapter is as follows: Section 3.2 describes the changing perceptions of conscious and unconscious thought in mainstream psychology, from past debates that deliberated the primacy regarding the two mental processes to contemporary dual-process approaches. Following that, Section 3.3 focuses on the conscious and unconscious aspects in L2 motivation research. It is made up of two parts: first, in order to demonstrate the conscious-centric nature of L2 research, Section 3.3.1 offers a review of the three key transitionary periods of the L2 motivation field. Following that, Section 3.3.2 presents a discussion of unconscious attitudes and its relevance towards language learning motivation. Section 3.4 contains a review of several implicit social cognition measures before Section 3.5 presents four initial studies of unconscious research in L2 motivation. The chapter concludes with a summary in Section 3.6. Together, these sections aim to highlight the potential and relevance of an unconscious dimension in the L2 motivation field.

3.2 The conscious versus unconscious contrast in mainstream psychology

The interest of mainstream psychology lies mostly in understanding how "the mind controls and determines behavior" (Newell & Shanks, 2014, p. 1) and while this is one of the most prominent pursuits of scholars, it is also one of the most significantly debated topics in the field of psychology. In particular, how primacy regarding the mental processes of the brain should be determined: whether one aspect – either the conscious or the unconscious – is more superior and more dominant in one's decision-making process. The debate over primacy of these two mental dimensions could be said to be broadly divided into two phases: in the past, the focus was in pitting the two extremes against each other, whereas in current research, the interest has shifted towards examining how the two mental processes *complement* each other. This section considers these differing viewpoints.

3.2.1 Consciousness versus Unconsciousness

Mental processes are made up of rule-based and associative activities (e.g. Strack & Deutsch, 2004): generally speaking, rule-based processes are typically controlled and conscious whereas associative processes are driven by automaticity and impulse. Conscious-centric scientists are of the opinion that the key source of all judgments and behaviours lies in consciousness, with one prominent scholar who subscribed to the consciousness as primacy theory being Gordon Allport (1954), who firmly believed that conscious thought is the "whole truth". Indeed, consciousness was held in such high esteem that it was highly surprising, if not shocking, to conscious-centric academics when it was found that "there may be little or no direct introspective access to higher order cognitive processes" (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977, p. 231; see also Wilson & Brekke, 1994).

Naturally, this was not news to the scholars who were already convinced of the power of unconscious mental processes. After all, the case for unconscious thought predates Freud's persuasive argument where he posited that people are unaware of their own thoughts and that consciousness is just 'the tip of an iceberg' whereas the unconscious dimension functions as a rich repository. For instance, Thomas Huxley (1874) came up with the "steam whistle hypothesis" where he likened consciousness to the steam whistle on a train locomotive:

> the steam whistle's activity is caused by what is happening in the engine and may also reveal something about the inner state of the engine, but it does not move or steer the train. By analogy, consciousness may be a rich subjective experience of one's own life that derives from unconscious processes and reveals something about these inner states, but it does not have any influence on behaviour. (as cited in Baumeister & Bargh, 2014, p. 36)

Considering the arguments provided by unconscious-centric scholars, the dismissal of unconscious thought processes could come across as somewhat perplexing. Perhaps, this ambiguous view of unconsciousness could be attributed to how it was originally defined: it was associated with hypnosis and mesmerism in the early 1800s (Goldsmith, 1934), viewed as the shadow of a 'real' conscious mind and was disregarded through a simplified monolithic understanding along the line that "if a process does not possess all of the qualities of a conscious process, it is therefore not conscious" (Bargh & Morsella, 2008, p. 73). Certainly, when contrasted with the intentional, controllable, purposeful characteristics of conscious thought, such dismissive definitions did not present unconscious processes in a flattering light.

In his in-depth analysis of the subject, Bargh (1994) divided the features of automaticity into 'four horsemen': awareness, intentionality, controllability and efficiency, and concluded that such mental processes "are not exclusively automatic or exclusively controlled, but are in fact combinations of the features of each" (p. 3). See also Fazio (2001), Hofmann et al. (2007) and Strack and Deutsch (2004). What this means is that intentionality no longer differentiates between the two mental processes and as a result of this revelation, what separates the two mental processes have now been redefined: "it is the *awareness* and *reportability* [emphasis added] of a mental process that most clearly distinguish between what is considered a conscious versus an unconscious mental process or experience" (Baumeister & Bargh, 2014, p. 36). Furthermore, through the exploration of priming and automaticity effects as well as the change in the operational definition of the unconscious, the perception of the unconscious shifted from one that is dumb (Loftus & Klinger, 1992) to one that is "highly intelligent and adaptive" (Bargh & Morsella, 2008, p. 75). Informed with this renewed perspective and supported by decades of empirical studies (see review in Bargh, 2006a), this improved opinion of the unconscious thought contradicts the traditional position which emphasised conscious processes. As a result of this shift in opinion regarding unconscious thought, the dominating viewpoints of consciousness as intentional, controllable and purposeful are now perceived to be an 'illusion' (Wegner, 2004), viewed to be 'not very helpful' (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006) and thought to be 'fallible' (Wilson, 2002).

Nevertheless, in an attempt to seek a compromise and an end to this primacy debate, several authors have thus urged that "the way forward for psychological theory is to stop pitting conscious against unconscious and instead figure out how the two work together" (Baumeister et al., 2014, p. 20). While several attempts have been made to regard conscious and unconscious processes as complementary rather than competing, once again, two separate approaches emerged: one point of view would accept that conscious thoughts are ultimately in charge and would allow for the unconscious to have a considerable influence in the shaping of the content of consciousness, whereas the alternative viewpoint would be that behaviour is normally carried out by the unconscious and that the conscious dimension plays a supporting role which can "occasionally intervene to override, regulate, redirect, and otherwise alter the stream of behavior – often at a distance, with unconscious processes filling in" (Baumeister & Bargh, 2014, p. 37). Notwithstanding these two points of view, it is nevertheless clear that scholars today are actively interested in how the two aspects work together, trying to understand the mental processes from a dual-process point of view.

3.2.2 A dual-process approach

Historical reviews report that dual-process approaches actually begun as early as in the 1980s (see Gawronski et al., 2014; Payne & Gawronski, 2010). However, it was not until the 1990s when, after reviewing the results from earlier research, Greenwald and Banaji (1995) introduced the term *implicit social cognition* as a "broad theoretical category" (p. 4) to include the unconscious aspects of attitudes, self-esteem and stereotypes so as to complement the field's conscious-centric understanding of the three constructs. This addition of an unconscious aspect effectively provided a reinterpretation of extant literature and at the same time, offered a direction for future research.

One significant methodological development that emerged from this line of scholarship was in the automatic activation of attitudes and the use of sequential priming measurements – which was based on Meyer and Schvaneveldt's (1971) pioneering work on word associations (e.g. ocean-water) – to empirically capture unconscious attitudes. Such sequential priming procedures measure "how activation spreads automatically from one node in memory to others to which it is strongly associated" (Bargh, 2006b, p. 16) and despite the debates that questioned how 'real', 'meaningful' and 'accurate' such findings are, these sequential priming procedures soon became "important across many areas of psychology and ultimately a central characteristic of implicit social cognition" (Payne & Gawronski, 2010, p. 2). At the same time, the question about what is "implicit" about implicit social cognition emerged: whether it refers to a characteristic of measurement procedures or if it is used to describe the constructs that are being assessed.

To counter such terminological confusion, taxonomies were developed and the outcome from the ensuing comprehensive conceptual analysis (see De Houwer et al., 2009) resulted in the use of "the terms *direct* and *indirect* to describe features of measurement procedures and the terms *implicit* and *explicit* to describe features of the psychological attributes that are assessed by different measurement procedures" (Payne & Gawronski, 2010, p. 4). Although such semantic and linguistic conventions might appear to be bothersome to some, at the root of it is actually a reminder for researchers to practise terminological precision when referring to the term "implicit". In spite of the many debates associated with this matter of consciousness and unconsciousness, it is nevertheless widely agreed that this line of research is one that is rich in potential. A salient indication of this spotlight on the unconscious mental processes could be seen in how it has been underlined in the recent *Oxford Handbook of Human Motivation* (Ryan, 2012) where the "renewed interest in nonconscious process and the motivated behavior they can organize" has been highlighted as a future research "buzz" (p. 563).

3.3 L2 learning: the conscious and unconscious dimensions

In comparison to mainstream psychology, the L2 motivation field is fairly young. While the field has been greatly enriched with the 60 years of accumulated research, it is undeniable that the domain's current understanding the psyche of language learners is one-dimensional; that is, while the reliance on explicit self-reports (e.g. questionnaires and interviews) has provided the field with a substantial understanding of conscious motivation, the current lack of an unconscious component signifies the omission of a notable proportion of learner motivation. As seen in the previous section, such conscious-centric representations are inadequate in themselves and one may argue that the over-reliance on self-report measures is an oversight. Indeed, there have been calls for a more in-depth and holistic understanding of the motivational psyche of L2 learners in recent years (e.g. Boo et al., 2015; Dörnyei, 2020; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017) and initial attempts to address this incomplete picture of learner motivation have been made (e.g. Al-Hoorie, 2016a, 2016b).

To discuss this matter, this section will be made up of two parts: to illustrate the conscious-centric tradition of the L2 motivation field, Section 3.3.1 will describe the three key periods of the field. Following this, the topic of unconscious attitudes will be discussed in Section 3.3.2.

3.3.1 Conscious dimension in the L2 motivation field: The three key stages

The field of L2 motivation has been set apart from that of mainstream motivation research in educational psychology mainly because of the social aspects of L2 learning – as the desire to learn an L2 is dependent on one's attitudes to the language and the identification with its corresponding ethnolinguistic community (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). We can identify three broad time periods in the field of learner motivation: the *social psychological* period, the *cognitive-situated* period and last but not least, the *socio-dynamic* period.

The first stage: The social psychological period

The origins of scholarly interest in the L2 motivation field can be traced back to Gardner and Lambert's seminal paper (1959) where affective variables made up of motivational effort, the desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning a language were identified to be the significant causes for language learning motivation. Labelled as the *social psychological period*, this is an umbrella term that broadly categorises the time period in which the understanding of language learner motivation was approached from a "macro-level analysis of interrelationship between social groups and contextual variables" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 77).

In order to ground this period in its social psychological milieu, it is important to start the review with a discussion on the notion of *social identity* which studied the emotional significance that individuals attach to their membership in social groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). It was found that such identities are not static but are constantly developing and changing. At the same time, it was also recognised that one's feelings of value and worth can be derived from both his or her personal and social self-views through such social interactions (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Indeed, some scholars argue that social identities are the building blocks of personal identities and as a result, are more apt to influence behaviour than personal identities (Turner et al., 2007). For instance, in Festinger's (1954) *social comparison model*, it was found that individuals make upward versus downward comparison with those of similar others (Suls & Wills, 1991) and depending on the direction of the comparison made, an individual's self-view and self-esteem are influenced (e.g. Helgeson & Mickelson, 1995). Specifically, an upward social comparison is made when the idea of excellence is embodied (Blanton et al., 1999) whereas a downward social comparison is made when people feel threatened (Taylor & Lobel, 1989); it is in the latter condition that negative outcomes such as intergroup conflict and prejudice develop (e.g. Branscombe & Wann, 1994; Feather, 1994; Jetten et al., 1996).

These upward and downward social comparisons play a relevant role in the context of language learning. That is, to maintain a status of solidarity, members of a subordinate ethnic group which considers language to be an important dimension of its identity will choose to unite and not conform. Such behaviour occurs when they:

a. identify very strongly with their ethnic group,
b. make insecure social comparisons with the outgroup,
c. identify with few norms and values that do not overlap with their ethnic group and perceiving such social identities as relatively inadequate and perceive their status to be higher than the intragroup status and
d. perceive their ingroup boundaries to be hard and closed when they perceive their ethnic group to have low vitality or
e. perceive their ingroup boundaries to be soft and open when they perceive their ethnic group to have high vitality.

From the above points, it is clear that language plays an important role in ethnicity and intergroup relations, yet the nature of such relationships is complex and often conflicting. Notwithstanding such complexities and conflict, one key theory that has helped in the understanding of such interrelationships among language, ethnicity and intergroup relations is that of the *ethnolinguistic vitality* concept.

Coined by Giles et al. (1977), this framework defines the "vitality" of an ethnolinguistic group as "that which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and active collective entity in intergroup situations" (Clément et al., 1977, p. 294). The rationale behind this framework is based on the idea that the individual's level of competence is influenced by the ethnolinguistic vitality of a language within a community (i.e. a higher status is reflected in a higher vitality score). Because subordinate groups are influenced by how they perceive and identify with the ethnic group, plausible language attitudes "may be considered in terms of their predispositions to act in terms of ethnic solidarity/conformity to ingroup norms/conformity to societal norms" (Giles & Johnson, 1987, p. 90), and this viewpoint was echoed by Clément (1986) when he proposed that "motivation is determined by two processes, respectively influenced and activated by two aspects of the environment: (a) the relative ethnolinguistic vitalities of the first and second language groups, and (b) the frequency of contact with the second language group" (p. 272).

To digress slightly, the relevance of *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* to this thesis was not obvious at this point in the writing of this literature review. However, it entered the research paradigm during the analysis of the pilot interviews where the variables of *status*, *demographic* and *institutional support and control* were revealed to be key influences in the Hong Kong participants' attitudes towards the three languages. When I returned to review the literature on ethnolinguistic vitality, it was obvious that a variable like this might have implications for the Hong Kong context because there were so many parallels; potentially, a crucial component in my study. A decision had to be made: the inclusion of *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* as a variable would lengthen the quantitative component significantly (risking the likelihood of participant fatigue). However, its potential to afford for a better understanding into the participants' motivational psyche during the *Main Study* could not be overlooked and as a result, the addition of the Subjective Vitality Questionnaire (SVQ; see below) to the questionnaire was decided (see *Chapter Five*).

The Subjective Vitality Questionnaire was developed to determine a "group member's subjective perceptions of their own and salient outgroups' ethnolinguistic vitality" (Bourhis et al., 1981, p. 147). This questionnaire is made up of three main levels whereby they measure the social status of the language, the demographic distribution of its speakers, and its institutional support (see Figure 3-1).

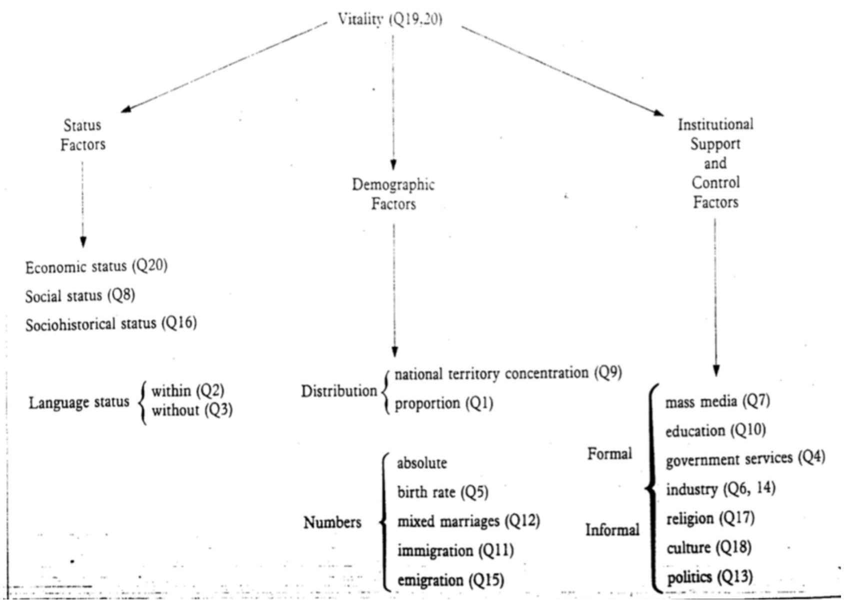

Figure 3-1: A taxonomy of the structural variables affecting ethnolinguistic vitality (Bourhis et al., 1981, p. 149)

Under this taxonomy, *Status Factors* are made up of four aspects: economic status, ascribed social status, sociohistorical status and language status. These four components were selected because “the more status a linguistic community is recognized to have on these dimensions, the more vitality it could be said to possess as a collective entity” (Bourhis et al., 1981, p. 147). Following that, the *Demographic Factors* are made up of eight demographic variables that are broadly divided into two separate groups: group distribution and group numbers. Last but not least, because “it is suggested that a linguistic minority is vital to the extent that its language and group members are well-represented formally and informally in a variety of institutional settings” (Giles et al., 1977, p. 316), the *Institutional Support and Control Factors* component consists of eight questions which look at the usage of language within the domains of mass media, education, government services, industry, religion, culture and politics. Altogether, there are a total of 22 questions (to be discussed further in *Chapter Five*) and from them, the resulting outcomes of low, medium or high vitality scores obtained are potentially helpful in “identifying and comparing the types of ethnolinguistic groups one is dealing with in cross-cultural research” (Bourhis et al., 1981, p. 146).

The relevance of ethnolinguistic vitality has been investigated in several language settings and it was found that such vitality scores play an influencing role in one’s decision to acquire a second language (Clément, 1980; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Giles & Byrne, 1982). Crucially, because once seen as a dimension of comparison with outgroups, such vitality scores were also found to be a factor in intergroup discrimination (Giles & Johnson, 1987; Sachdev & Bourhis, 1991). For instance, results obtained by Berry et al. (1977) suggest that positive attitudes towards outgroups, multi-culturism and multilingualism will be embraced if individuals feel secure within their own language and culture. Correspondingly, negative emotions towards the outgroup will emerge if there is a threat to the ingroup by way of a perceived low vitality score and this will result in a fear of assimilation (Clément et al., 1977, 1980). This sense of threat will in turn trigger the promotion of a psychological climate that is necessary for language maintenance.

The concept of language maintenance refers to an intergroup phenomenon to the extent that it is being fostered side by side or in conflict with another group’s language, cognitive processes relating to social categorization, identity, comparison, attitude formation and attribution. In this case, second-language acquisition (among many others) has an important part to play even at the macro-level (Giles & Johnson, 1987) and such a psychological climate is especially likely in the event of subtractive bilingualism "wherein, in some contexts, the acquisition of a second language can lead to the loss of the first cultural heritage" (Clément et al., 1980, p. 294). Individuals who highly value their self- and collective-views will have two options: they will either try to maintain their important self-views by maintaining a hard social boundary (Huffiness, 1986), which when successful, allow for an increased salience of ingroup membership or to sustain their identities by remooring their identities within the new social structure (Ethier & Deaux, 1994).

Apart from the concept of ethnolinguistic vitality, there were also other key models that sought to make sense of learner motivation within this social psychological period, most notably Clément's *social context theory* (1980), Giles and Byrne's *intergroup model* (1982) and Schumann's (1978) *acculturation theory*. However, it was two notions of language motivation in Gardner's *socioeducational model* (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1959) that dominated the research field – *instrumental* and *integrative* motivation: instrumental refers to the utilitarian value in one's linguistic achievement and integrative refers to the open-mindedness the language learner has towards the linguistic community (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The prevalence in the popularity of this dichotomy as a research framework could be seen in the large body of significant works (e.g. Clément et al., 1994; McEown, Noels, & Saumure, 2014) and together the findings that emerged from this huge body of scholarly effort cumulatively shaped the field of L2 motivation.

However, in spite of its popularity as a research concept, researchers soon found the concept of integrativeness 'untenable' (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006) for two reasons: conceptual ambiguity and the globalisation of English as a world language (to be further elaborated on in *Chapter Four*). As the lingua franca, it comes as no surprise that a majority of L2 research attention has been paid towards the learning of English (see *Chapter Two*, Figure 2-6) and while long associated with native English-speaking countries such as that of the United Kingdom or the United States of America, in today's globalised context this exclusive "ownership" of English is now generalised into that of an international identity (Crystal, 1997, 2003). As a result of how "English now represents the language of the 'world at large'" (Csizér & Lukács, 2010, p. 2), the definition of integration in relation to this evolved status of English became confusing. That is, there is a lack of clarity of the identity in which language learners are identifying with, and in an attempt to compensate for this ambiguity, ideas such as international posture (Yashima, 2002, 2009) and the development of bicultural identities (Kanno, 2003; Norton, 2001) emerged. Because this dissatisfaction with the framework was echoed in different language learning contexts across the world, for instance in Indonesia (e.g. Lamb, 2004), Japan (e.g. McClelland, 2000) and Hungary (e.g. Dörnyei et al., 2006), the dissonance between the theoretical knowledge and applicability to the current reality eventually gave rise to an improved understanding:

> What these studies were encountering was a much broader form of psychological and emotional identification, a sort of a virtual or metaphorical identification with the sociocultural loading of a language, and in the case of the undisputed world language, English, this identification would be associated with a nonparochial, cosmopolitan, globalized world-citizen identity. (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 80)

Notwithstanding the above-mentioned critiques, it is undeniable that in spite of the 'reductive misrepresentation' (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) of the Gardnerian concept of integrative and instrumental motivation, this dichotomy played a pivotal role in the field of learner motivation and much of our current day understanding could be credited to the foundation formed on the back of these two concepts. However, in the spirit of scholarship and the desire for change, that 'era' of a simplified perception soon passed and the L2 field transited into the second phase: the cognitive-situated stage (Dörnyei, 2005).

The second stage: The cognitive-situated period

This second phase in the field involved a period of 'motivational renaissance' (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) which sought to provide an educational perspective to L2 motivation research. This stage was fuelled by two interrelated trends: to seek alignment with the cognitive revolution in mainstream motivational psychology and the desire to "sharpen the focus on a more situated analysis of motivation in specific learning contexts" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 46). Emerging from this new focus, was the birth of the *cognitive-situated period* which comprised of a widened research agenda that adopted ideas such as that of *Self-determination Theory* (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Noels et al., 2000) and *Attribution Theory* (Weiner, 1976, 2010) from mainstream educational psychological research. While these theories allowed for a wider understanding of learner motivation, the L2 motivation construct is one that is uniquely multifaceted. Thus, a need to approach it from a multilevel perspective was identified. To address this matter, a three-tiered framework that consolidated the various motivation types and components involved in the process was proposed by Dörnyei (1994). Image 3-1 provides a breakdown of the components that make up the three levels: the *Language Level*, *Learner Level* and the *Learning Situation Level*.

FIGURE 1
Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence * Language Use Anxiety * Perceived L2 Competence * Causal Attributions * Self-Efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	
Course-Specific Motivational Components	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
Teacher-Specific Motivational Components	Affiliative Drive Authority Type Direct Socialization of Motivation * Modelling * Task Presentation * Feedback
Group-Specific Motivational Components	Goal-orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

Image 3-1: The three components of Dörynei's model (1994, p. 280)

The *Language Level* is made up of two components – integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems. As mentioned earlier in the *first stage*, these two factors address the affective and extrinsic motives of L2 language learners. Next, identified at the *Learner Level,* are two main characteristics that are made up of affective (e.g. language use anxiety) and cognitive (e.g. self-efficacy) components. At this level, the motivational processes and personality traits of the language learner are addressed. Last, but not least, *Learning Situation Level* looks at the motivational components that pertain to three main areas: course-specific, teacher-specific and group-specific. This final level allows for an understanding of the issues and experiences at the classroom level.

Through employing Dörnyei's (1994) three level model and by embracing key concepts from cognitive psychology and applying it to the L2 learning context, the field transited smoothly from a macro understanding approach of learner motivation to one that considers the micro contextual aspects. Over time, however, a dynamic understanding of motivation was initiated. For instance, Ushioda (1996) proposed 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). In response to this rallying call, the field experienced a methodological shift as an increased interest in qualitative and longitudinal studies emerged (e.g. Dörnyei et al., 2006; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). From this point on, the field transited on to the third stage: the present time *socio-dynamic period*.

The third stage: the process-oriented period and the present time socio-dynamic period

The turn of the millennium saw the field enter what has been labelled the *socio-dynamic period* (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), with the name highlighting the dynamic character and temporal nature of the perception of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). This renewed understanding encouraged a more robust research environment based on the interface between the concept of self and learner motivation. Of particular mentions are Ushioda's *person-in-context approach* (2009) and Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* (L2MSS; 2009) that sought to better understand learner motivation through a self perspective. Considering the active involvement of the language learner, the call to revisit learner motivation from this angle is not new. As a matter of fact, this interest has been reflected in theories that were introduced over the years and the inadequate linear understanding of learner motivation was already earlier mentioned in Dörnyei and Otto (1998), who proposed a process model of L2 motivation.

Ushioda (2009) highlighted the dominance of a linear approach in language motivation research and argued the insufficiency of such linear cause-effect models to accurately capture the dynamic nature between the learner and his/her context. To address this matter, she proposed a *person-in-context approach* to view the learner as a real person and to regard "the interaction between this self-reflective intentional agent, and the fluid and complex system of social relations" (p. 220). However, there was a lack of clarity in the definition of what the self entails. To close this gap, the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009) was introduced, representing "a major reformation of previous motivational thinking by its explicit utilisation of psychological theories of the self, yet its roots are firmly set in previous research in the L2 field" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 9).

Incorporating Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible selves and Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theories, Dörnyei's three-part L2MSS (2009) framework is composed of the *Ideal L2 Self*, which refers to a language learner's vision of what he or she would like to become, the *Ought-to L2 self*, which refers to the language-related obligations of others (e.g. family and friends) towards the learner and the *L2 Learning Experience*, which consists of the many influences from the learners' immediate learning environment and experience. Since its introduction, a wide variety of research encompassing different learning contexts has confirmed the efficacy of this theory (see Csizér & Magid, 2014) and to date, it is the research framework that is dominating the field (see *Chapter Two*, Figure 2-8).

Apart from this construct, new research perspectives have also emerged in the field, for instance, the exploration of the role of *Vision* and its effectiveness as a motivational tool and strategy (Dörnyei, 2014a; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014); the role of *Directed Motivational Currents* (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, et al., 2015; DMCs; Dörnyei, Muir, et al., 2014; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013) in learner motivation and ways in which to apply it to language classrooms; and the exploration of *Complex Dynamic Systems Theory* (CDST; Cameron & Larsen-Freeman, 2007; de Bot, 2008; Dörnyei, 2014b) so as to better understand the complexities involved in learner motivation. With these theoretical developments, a revision of methodology has also taken place and "innovative" research methods such as that of retrodictive qualitative modelling, Q methodology and idiodynamics have been introduced (see Dörnyei, MacIntyre, et al., 2014).

The brief review above illustrates how the field has seen its fair share of transitions in the past 60 years (see Al-Hoorie, 2017, for a recent review of the language motivation field) and it also evidences the field's vibrant scholarship searching for a better understanding of learner motivation. However, as mentioned earlier, the conscious-centric nature of the body of research falls under two assumptions: that such attitudes exert their impact only in a conscious manner and that the information derived from self-reports are sufficient representatives of one's attitudes. Let us therefore turn to examining the notion of attitudes in more detail.

3.3.2 Attitudes

The term attitude was introduced by 20th century scholars to refer to the concept of human preferences, and throughout the years the study of attitudes has continued to be a cornerstone of social psychology (Ross et al., 2010). Although the field of attitude research stretches across decades, there are several specific landmarks: the 1920s and 1930s were committed to the measurement of attitudes; the 1930s saw a shift towards the cognitive unconscious which resulted in the focus on epistemological questions such as the nature of attitudes; and emerging in the 1950s and 1960s were two strands of thought: a) the idea of cognitive responses as determinants of attitude change and in particular, and b) the emphasis on attitude change and the bidirectional relationship between attitude and behaviour; of which the latter has dominated research since the mid-20th century (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010).

As the single most indispensable construct in social psychology (Allport, 1954), attitude is a concept that has been widely defined (see Allport, 1935, for 17 definitions of Attitudes). At the core of the concept is the notion of evaluation that is formed from an affective belief (Katz, 1960; Petty et al., 1997). For instance:

> Attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Opinion is the verbal expression of an attitude, but attitudes can also be expressed in nonverbal behaviour. Attitudes include both the affective, or feeling core of liking or disliking, and the cognitive, or belief, elements which describe the

> object of the attitude, its characteristics, and its relations to other objects. All attitudes thus include beliefs, but not all beliefs are attitudes. When specific attitudes are organized into a hierarchical structure, they comprise value systems. (Katz, 1960, p. 160)

While scholars generally recognise four functions of attitudes: utilitarian function, knowledge function, ego-defensive function and a value-expressive function (Katz, 1960), a traditional theme in attitude research is the investigation of "the underlying bases and structure of these evaluations" (Petty et al., 1997, p. 611), which begins firstly, with an understanding of one's self by way of introspection that "involves deliberate attempts to achieve self-knowledge by directing attention 'inward'" (Swann & Bosson, 2010, p. 602). However, such a reliance on one's ability to introspect was not unproblematic as it was found that human beings may not know their own thoughts and, therefore, may be unable to report the reasons for their behaviours (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977). To complicate matters further, one has to also consider the differing level of one's agentic ability (see Al-Hoorie, 2015, for a discussion on human agency) which is dependent on two key prerequisites: free will and one's cognizant levels (Bargh & Chartrand, 2000; Wegner & Bargh, 1998). Consequently, as a result of the field's concentrated efforts towards the understanding of the cognitive unconscious (see Hassin et al., 2005; Uleman & Bargh, 1989), attitude research has since returned to epistemological questions that concerns how such human preferences may be better understood (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010). This section looks specifically at two aspects of unconscious attitude research: the dissociations between conscious and unconscious attitudes and the malleability of attitudes.

The dissociations between conscious and unconscious attitudes

The topic of dissociations between conscious and unconscious attitudes has been widely researched in the context of intergroup attitudes because the complex dynamics involved in intergroup relations "have offered up a perfect place to observe disparities between expressed and elicited attitudes" (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010, p. 373). Such dissociations between conscious and unconscious attitudes have been best demonstrated by studies that investigated a range of domains such as prejudice and stereotypes and the incongruence found in the two aspects of attitudes that emerged from such studies have been a key result of modern research (Fazio & Olson, 2003; Greenwald & Nosek, 2008).

Such incongruent findings between the consciousness and unconsciousness have been found to be especially interesting as, for example, strong positive relationships were obtained on attitude topics such as race (e.g. Black-White), brand preferences (e.g. Coke-Pepsi) but weak correlations were found on topics that do not involve intergroup contexts (Nosek, 2007). With regards to the topic of L2 motivation, because of how an individual's attitude to the language and its speakers is argued to be one of the most important dispositional factors for second language learning (Spolsky, 1969), such intergroup-related dissociations between attitudes are thus worth a closer investigation.

Automatic attitude malleability

The nature of unconscious attitudes was previously thought to be rigid and unresponsive to change due to their lack of openness to conscious awareness and control (Banaji, 2003). However, this was found to be inaccurate as it was discovered that changes in unconscious attitudes occur in response to cognitive factors, contextual variables and motivational states (see Blair, 2002; Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006). Such malleability has been reported in studies that explored domains relating to racial attitudes and choice in presidential candidates (see Ferguson et al., 2005; Ferguson & Bargh, 2004) and it was found that the malleability of unconscious attitudes extends to that of the neural level (Hariri et al., 2003). At the same time, while the changes to one's conscious and unconscious attitudes may be in the same direction, the magnitude of the change may not be equivalent (Smith et al., 2008) and it was noted that the concept of ideology could be responsible for such variation in intergroup attitudes (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010).

Thus, a key focus of attitude research has been to "study the processes of preference acquisition and change" (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010, p. 366), with one particular interest being in the malleability of attitudes. This characteristic has been especially explored in the context of negative intergroup attitudes where studies were conducted to investigate how negative attitudes towards the outgroup could be mediated by way of imagery techniques. For instance, in their intervention study that employed the use of visual imagery, Crisp and Turner (2009) found that their participants demonstrated a more positive unconscious attitude towards the outgroup, thereby demonstrating the effectiveness of indirect contact strategies in improving intergroup relations (see also Turner et al., 2007; Turner & Crisp, 2010). The implications of such positive outcomes is an interesting point that will be picked up later in *Chapter Seven*.

Unconscious attitudes in the language learning context

Early attempts to include unconscious language attitudes in research paradigms were made as early as in the 60s. For instance, Lambert et al. (1960) employed the matched-guise technique (MGT) to evaluate reactions to spoken languages (see Section 3.4 for a discussion on this study). Unfortunately, such initial efforts were thwarted due to a) the notoriously complex nature of unconscious attitudes and b) the limitations of the methodological techniques available to tap into and measure this complexity. Fast forward several decades and equipped with several methodological breakthroughs, it is now possible to tap into such unconscious processes.

As seen earlier in *Chapter Two*, the field's over-reliance on explicit self-reports has been highlighted and a call for a unconscious dimension to learner motivation has been recommended. In response, several studies adopting alternative approaches have been conducted at the University of Nottingham, and the findings from these studies demonstrate the viability of unconscious language learning research. A review of four studies in this vein will be further discussed in *Section 3.5*. First, to allow for an overview of the implicit tools available today, a review of several implicit social cognition measures is offered next in Section 3.4.

3.4 Implicit social cognition measurements

As previously mentioned, attitude research in the 1920s and 1930s was dedicated to the measurement of conscious attitudes and it was proposed by Thurstone (1928a) that attitudes can be measured just as how "we measure a man when we take some anthropometric measures of him... his height or weight or what not. Just in the same sense we shall say that we are measuring attitudes" (p. 530). Indeed, this was achieved by way of early self-report measures such as that of the *Equal-Appearing Intervals Method* (Thurstone, 1928b), the *Method of Summated Ratings* (Likert, 1932) which is more commonly known as the *Likert scale* and the *Semantic Differential Scale* (Osgood et al., 1957). However, "because social psychologists have always gravitated toward studying the contents of consciousness that matter to people, this question of reaching the core of what a person 'really thinks' has been a perennial worry" (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010, p. 357).

In their review, Greenwald and Banaji (1995) called for an 'efficient form' of individual difference measures of implicit social cognition and predicted that once available "there should follow the rapid development of a new industry of research on implicit cognitive aspects of personality and social behaviour" (p. 20). Certainly, with the technological advances as well as breakthrough in research methodologies throughout the years, mainstream psychology has seen a proliferation of such implicit social cognition tools that tap into the unconscious processes. In relation to implicit social cognitive studies where the concern is in "automatic/implicit/unconscious processes underlying judgments and social behaviour" (Payne & Gawronski, 2010, p. 1), there is also a different class of tools where their emphasis is on indirect measurement procedures or sequential priming tasks (see De Houwer et al., 2009, for a review of the multiple measures).

Because social psychologists have traditionally been drawn to examining the relationship between attitudes and preferences as well as knowledge and stereotypes (Nosek & Banaji, 2001), this section will introduce several of such attitude-related implicit social cognition tools. A point to note is that investigations of implicit social cognition are largely dependent on the specific tools of measurements and the term "implicit measure" refers to certain functional properties of measurement outcomes; as De Houwer (2006) summarises:

> the outcome functions as an index of an attitude or cognition despite the fact that participants are unaware of the impact of the attitude or cognition on the outcome, are not aware of the attitude or outcome, or have no control over the outcome. Because a measurement outcome can only function as a measure by the grace of certain underlying processes, the functional properties of a measurement outcome therefore actually refer to the conditions under which the underlying processes operate. (p. 12)

It should also be noted that although:

> the term *implicit social cognition* was originally interpreted in a much broader sense, it has become almost synonymous with research using indirect measurement procedures such as the *Implicit Association Test* and its derivations, sequential priming tasks, and sophisticated indirect paper-pencil methods. (Payne & Gawronski, 2010, p. 4).

To demonstrate the range of implicit measurements available today, this section offers a brief introduction to several of such indirect measures. They are grouped by measures that *are not* based on response latency and measures that *are* based on response latency. Because of its key role in this thesis, a closer look will also be taken at the *Implicit Association Test* and its derivations.

3.4.1 Measures that are not based on response latency

i) Matched-guise technique

The matched-guise technique (MGT) is an evaluating tool that was introduced by Lambert et al. (1960) to evaluate reactions to spoken languages. In this blind test, participants listen to audio recordings of different speakers and are then asked to make an evaluative judgement of the speakers. Unbeknownst to the participants is that the "different speakers" are actually the same person and from the different opinions regarding the same speaker elicited, researchers have been able to study the attitudes associated to language, dialects and accents. In its initial study, the matched-guise technique was employed to evaluate the participants' reactions to English and French. In the test procedure, participants were first asked to listen to several French and English audio-recordings. Following that, they were to rate the speakers based on traits such as that of 'intelligence', 'height' and 'sense of humour'.

As the development of and the interest in the tool increased, the matched-guise technique was soon found to be popular and widely used in attitudes research. However, interest in the matched-guise technique soon dwindled and this lack of interest was attributed to two reasons: the artificial nature of the required recordings and the lack of conclusive results derived from such matched-guise technique studies (see Garrett et al., 2003, for a discussion).

ii) Autonomic Responses

The autonomic nervous system refers to giveaway behaviours such as that of an increased heartbeat, the flickering of an eye and sweaty palms. Such responses are useful indicators of one's attitude towards the stimulus (e.g. a picture of a fearful looking dog would result in the hastening of one's heartbeat) and some examples of physiological measures include the electrodermal activity (EDA) which measures the amount of sweat produced by eccrine glands (Mendes, 2009); this aspect has been used, for example, to measure Black-White people attitudes. While the EDA was useful in recording a physiological response, it unfortunately could not determine if the increase in EDA signalled a positive or negative evaluation (Krosnick et al., 2005; Mendes, 2009).

Another such autonomic measure is that of facial electromyography (EMG) which uses muscle contractions to detect an evaluative response; the stronger the contracting force, the higher the measurements. Such cheek and brow activity has helped to reveal the unconscious nature of attitudes, for instance, responding to a smiling face or an angry face which can help to indicate positive or negative attitudes (Bourgeois & Hess, 2008).

iii) Neural activity – ERPs and fMRI

Equipped with the ability to measure the brain's activity (electrical, blood flow, oxygenation levels), neuroscientists have employed the use of neural activity to look at dissociations between conscious and unconscious attitudes. Employing the use of ERPs, brain activity in response to specific events can be measured, which in turn allows researchers to "determine the consistency and affective valence of attitudinal reports" (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010, p. 364). To complement the ERP procedure, the fMRI technology allows for neural imaging: by measuring and recording the difference in blood oxygenation levels in various brain regions, the measurements can reveal if participants are consciously thinking about particular aspects on an attitude object or if they are responding too quickly (Cunningham & Zelazo, 2007).

3.4.2 Measures that are based on response latency

The use of time response tasks as a measurement of attitudes was demonstrated by Donders (1969) who demonstrated that by computing the time taken to react to a stimulus presentation, an understanding of the invisible thought processes could be derived (see also Lane et al., 2007). This section will introduce the *Emotional Stroop Task* and the *Extrinsic Affective Simon Task*. Because of its special role in the third study of this thesis, the *Implicit Association Test* – which is also a measure based on response latency – will be discussed in Section 3.4.3.

i) The Emotional Stroop Task

The *Emotional Stroop Task* (e.g. Pratto & John, 1991) is a modification of the original Stroop colour-interference paradigm (Stroop, 1935). In the original Stroop Task, participants are to name the colours in which a set of words is presented; however, the *Emotional Stroop Task* differs from the standard Stroop Task in that it requires participants to name the colours in which desirable and undesirable traits were presented. Findings from this task showed that "color-naming latencies were consistently longer for undesirable traits" (Pratto & John, 1991, p. 380); indicating that they require more attention than desirable traits. It was concluded that this task could be used to determine the preference of a participant between two stimuli, that is, a quicker colour name response will be associated with a positive stimulus (De Houwer, 2003).

ii) The Extrinsic Affective Simon Task

The *Extrinsic Affective Simon Task* (De Houwer, 2003) uses coloured words to determine participants' evaluations of stimulus items. It is a modified version of the *Implicit Association Test* in that it is "based on a comparison of performance on trials within a single task rather than on a comparison of performance on different tasks" (p. 77). In place of an attribute-categories pairing, participants are asked to press a left or right key upon seeing the stimulus – according to the valence of white words and the colour of coloured words. With these left-right key assignments, the positive and negative associations were captured.

3.4.3 The *Implicit Association Test* arsenal

This section presents an explanation and discussion on the standard *Implicit Association Test* and its variants, which include *the Brief Implicit Association Test (BIAT)* and the *Single-Category and the Single-Target Implicit Association Test.* At the same time, because of its similarities to the *Implicit Association Test*, this section will also discuss the *Go/No-go Association Task*.

i) The standard Implicit Association Test

The *Implicit Association Test* is a time-response task that measures the relative scores of dual target categories. It assesses implicit attitudes by their underlying automatic evaluation (Greenwald et al., 1998) and it is one of the more established instruments in the implicit social cognition toolbox. It has been used in numerous studies that looked at issues regarding racial prejudice (e.g. *Black* versus *White*), gender stereotypes (e.g. *Male* versus *Female*), subject-based performance (e.g. Math = Male/Female, Nosek et al., 2002) and consumer preferences (e.g. Coke versus Pepsi), and its popularity has been largely attributed to its "ease of implementation, large effect sizes and relatively good reliability" (Nosek et al., 2005, p. 166). As a result of this widespread application across various domains, it has generated a sizable amount of literature, which in turn allows for a scrutiny of its reliability and validity. Indeed, in a meta-analysis conducted by Hofmann et al. (2005), the *Implicit Association Test* was found to have the highest reliability when compared to other implicit measures of attitudes.

Because of its reliance on dual and competing categorisations, the *Implicit Association Test* is particularly useful in providing relative evaluations (e.g. pleasant/unpleasant) across two categories, for instance, between natural pairs such as *male* vs. *female*, *old* vs. *young*, and *Coke* vs. *Pepsi*. In the *Implicit Association Test* procedure, participants are required to sort four categories of stimuli by quickly pressing two response keys. There are typically seven blocks in total and they alternate between compatible (e.g. "*Coke + pleasant*", "*Pepsi + unpleasant*") and incompatible (e.g. "*Coke + unpleasant"*, "*Pepsi + pleasant*") tasks (a detailed explanation of these tasks blocks will be provided in *Chapter Five*). The difference between the compatible and incompatible blocks forms the basis of the *D* algorithm (Greenwald et al., 2003), from which the implicit scores are reported (see *Chapter Five* for an explanation on how the *D* score is calculated).

The *D score* is believed to reflect underlying association strengths and assess relations between association strengths and variables of interest. Ironically, it is this characteristic of the *Implicit Association Test* in which its limitation lies: the relative scores derived make for an ambiguous interpretation of the results. For instance, in the above *Coke*/*Pepsi + pleasant*/*unpleasant* example, a participant's positive score towards *Coke* could be read as a favourable attitude towards *Coke* and a negative attitude towards *Pepsi*. However, this is not a conclusive interpretation as it could also mean that the participant has positive attitudes towards both *Coke* and *Pepsi* just that he or she is more inclined towards *Coke*. Apart from the issue of its relative scores, two aspects that have drawn the most debate are its validity of measures (for example, its internal validity and fakeability). To address its detractors, the *Implicit Association Test* has been discussed and widely reviewed; for example, it was scrutinised when it was at Age 3 (Greenwald & Nosek, 2001) and at Age 7 (Nosek et al., 2007). Although, debates about the *Implicit Association Test* are still ongoing, the *Implicit Association Test* is admittedly the reigning implicit attitudes tool and it has inspired several variations such as the *Brief Implicit Association Test*, the *Single-Target Implicit Association Test*, the *Single-Category Implicit Association Test* and the *Go/No-go Association Task*.

ii) The Brief Implicit Association Test (BIAT)

The *Brief Implicit Association Test* is a truncated version of the standard *Implicit Association Test* and the intent behind the *Brief Implicit Association Test* is so as to "reduce spontaneous variation in subject strategy" (Sriram & Greenwald, 2009, p. 283). Because it only has two blocks of trials with the same four categories, the number of trials have been reduced to only 1/3 of the standard *Implicit Association Test*. Made up of two combined-task blocks, each one focuses on a category (e.g. *pleasant* + *Coke* followed by *pleasant* + *Pepsi*) and the contrasting category (e.g. *unpleasant* + *Coke* and *unpleasant* + *Pepsi*) remains nonfocal.

In their introduction to the *Brief Implicit Association Test*, four studies that tested the range of domains previously used by the standard *Implicit Association Test* were conducted by Sriram and Greenwald (2009). It was found that while the *Brief Implicit Association Test* behaved similarly to the standard *Implicit Association Test*, "privileged categories" were noted (i.e. expected correlations with parallel self-report measures occurred strongly only when a positive valence was in focus). That is, in the *Brief Implicit Association Test* measures of implicit attitudes, categories such as good or pleasant should be used and when investigating implicit identities, the focal category should be that of self. Apart from this important finding, an "order effect" that was attributed to the reduced number of practice blocks was also observed (i.e. stronger associations were found in the first test sequence than that of the second test sequence). Consequently, the authors concluded that more clarification about the *Brief Implicit Association Test* is required.

iii) The Single-Category and Single-Target Implicit Association Test

The *Single-Category Implicit Association Test* (SC-IAT; Karpinski & Steinman, 2006) and the *Single-Target Implicit Association Test* (ST-IAT; Bluemke & Friese, 2008) are two derivations of the standard *Implicit Association Test*. These two variations are conceptually identical and they differ from the standard *Implicit Association Test* in the sense that they only have a single category or target.

For instance, compared to the standard *Implicit Association Test* where comparative categories are required (e.g. *flowers* versus *insects*), the *Single-Category Implicit Association Test* allows for implicit attitudes towards *flowers* to be obtained without the need for an *insect* category. Made up of two parts, the first requires the participants to respond to "*flowers* + good" versus "bad" before the evaluative dimension is switched around in the second stage with "*flowers* + bad" versus "good".

These variations are particularly useful for when "a comparative attitude or associative measure is not ideally suited for all contexts" (Karpinski & Steinman, 2006, p. 22). However, it should be noted that there are also several drawbacks of these derivations. For example, with regards to the *Single-Category Implicit Association Test*, one important flaw lies in the fakeability of the participants' responses. This shortcoming goes against the key advantage –being impervious to conscious manipulations – of implicit measures of social cognition.

Nevertheless, it was found that "in comparison to the standard IAT (*Implicit Association Test*), such "single category/target assessments can extract information beyond that gained by comparative IATs" (Bluemke & Friese, 2008, p. 38) and this could largely be attributed to the lack of a contrasting category whereby an absolute score is achieved. However, in order for attitudes to be formed, comparisons are necessary. Thus, such absolute scores should be interpreted cautiously (Festinger, 1950). Apart from this, although they may reveal additional information compared to the standard *Implicit Association Test*, additional research is needed to determine the validity of these derivations across content domains and their imperviousness to self-presentations. For a comprehensive read on these derivations, see Karpinski and Steinman (2006) and Bluemke and Friese (2008).

iv) Go/No-go Association Task (GNAT)

Proposed by Nosek and Banaji (2001), the *Go/No-Go Association Task* (GNAT), is used as a means of evaluating attitude by way of a single target category. Similar to the *Implicit Association Test*, the *Go/No-go Association Task* assesses the strength of association between a target category and bipolar attributes. The difference in accuracy between the target-attribute (good) and target-attribute (bad) conditions is taken as a measure of automatic attitude.

In this task, participants are presented with stimuli that belong to both the targets and distractors categories. They are required to respond ("go") by pressing a key on the keyboard to items that belong to the target + positive attribute category (e.g. *Coke* + good). When items belonging to the target + negative attribute category (e.g. *Coke* + bad) are presented, a no response ("no go") is expected.

The *Go/No-go Association Task* allows for "assessment of preferences for specific categories to be isolated from relative comparisons with a singular category allowing for more direct investigations of a specific attitude object" (Nosek & Banaji, 2001, p. 630). This flexibility of the tool allows for researchers to access "Coke" in the context of i) a single object category (e.g. soft drinks), ii) a superordinate category (e.g. beverage), iii) a generic context or iv) in an attribute-only context and it is this ability of the *Go/No-go Association Task* that differentiates it from the *Implicit Association Test*. That is, while the *Implicit Association Test* is predominantly a relative measure, the *Go/No-go Association Task* "deemphasizes relative comparisons and, instead, frames evaluation of a target concept in a context of other concepts" (Nosek & Banaji, 2001, p. 661).

A summary of the implicit cognition tools

A selection of implicit social cognition tools were introduced in this section and they demonstrated how implicit attitudes can be derived: either via a comparison between competing categories or based on a single concept. At the same time, the increasing sophistry of research labs and advancements in technology also demonstrated how unconscious attitudes can also be captured and measured by way of autonomic responses and neural activity. These various methods illustrate ways in which unconscious mental processes can be tapped into by different methods.

However, the different tools and their individual limitations also showcase how "every tool, no matter how robust, is likely to only partially reflect the underlying construct along with some error associated with the measurement, sometimes introduced by the properties of the tool itself" (Nosek & Banaji, 2001, p. 626). Such a limitation is unsurprising as with the emergence of new measurement techniques, questions about the nature of attitudes will arise and it is clear that "each method embodies its own view of attitude and alerts the researcher to phenomena that emerge within the context of that view" (Ostrom, 1989, p. 20). Nevertheless, these methodologies have a shared commonality – to obtain a measurement of one's unconscious attitudes.

3.5 Four initial studies of unconscious motivation

To illustrate the feasibility of implicit research, this section presents a review of four recent studies that have pursued unconscious motivation research in SLA. Through the exemplification of these studies, the viability of unconscious L2 motivation research is showcased. The results derived from these studies also reveal how the implicit motivation of language learners was shaped by the different learning environments. At the same time, because such nuances were not picked up at the explicit level, the studies further display the efficacy of such indirect measurement techniques.

The four studies in this section emerged from a systematic attempt to explore this line of unconscious motivation research at the University of Nottingham, England. They were conducted between 2013 and 2017 and they explored the unconscious attitudes of English language learners in four different contexts.

Study A looked at the explicit and implicit attitudes of Arab language learners who were studying English at various British universities and language institutes; *Study B* investigated the implicit attitudes and L2 achievement of native Arab males who were studying English as a foundation-year requirement in Saudi Arabia; *Study C* was interested in the emotion and motivation of Dutch primary and secondary school children in the Netherlands; and finally, *Study D* explored the conscious and unconscious language attitudes of Chinese undergraduates who were enrolled at a British university in England.

The findings of these four studies will demonstrate the research viability and relevance of L2 unconscious attitudes. Because the subconscious attitudes of the four target groups were determined by way of the *Implicit Association Test* and its variants, from a methodological perspective, these studies will also showcase the flexibility of the *Implicit Association Test* (see *Section 3.4.3* for a recap on the tool). Because of its role in the main study of this thesis, a detailed explanation of how it works will be presented later in the *Methodology* chapter (*Chapter Five*).

Study A: Explicit and implicit attitudes of Arab learners of English

In this study, Al-Hoorie (2016a) employed the standard *Implicit Association Test* to examine the explicit and implicit attitudes of Arab learners of English. The *Implicit Association Test* was adapted to measure attitudes toward English speakers in which 'Pleasant' or 'Unpleasant' attributes were paired with targets of 'Arabic' or 'English', while the explicit attitudes of the participants were measured by way of nine self-report attitudinal and motivation scales that looked at the a) *Attitudes of English-speaking people*, b) *Attitudes towards learning English*, c) the *Ideal L2 self*, d) the *Ought-to L2 self*, e) *Fear of Assimilation*, f) *Ethnocentrism*, g) the *Religious Attitudes scale* (specifically developed for the purpose of this study), h) *Attitudes towards the English* and i) *Attitudes towards the Arabs*.

A total of 365 (male = 257, female = 108) participants from various Arab countries (Saudi Arabia = 33.2%, Libya = 29.3%, and Iraq = 22.5%) took part in this study, all being students who were studying English at various British universities and language institutes in the United Kingdom. Results from this study revealed that "implicit attitudes toward L2 speakers are associated with self-reported openness to the L2 group and with strength of correlations among attitudinal and motivational variables" (Al-Hoorie, 2016a, p. 423). In addition to this, because the *Religious Attitudes scale* correlated moderately to strongly with the *Ethnocentrism* and *Fear of Assimilation* scales, it was suggested that religious attitudes form an aspect of L1 group affiliation in the Arab context.

Study B: Implicit attitudes and L2 achievement of Arab learners of English

In his follow-up study, Al-Hoorie (2016b) sought to compare the motivational profiles of Arab learners of English with different academic achievement levels. The objective of this study was to identify the motivational variables (if any) that would successfully discriminate between the high and low achievers. In addition to this, there was also the intention to replicate his first study so as to learn if the earlier findings would "hold with a different sample, with a different instrument, and when controlling for social desirability" (Al-Hoorie, 2016b, p. 626).

In this study, Al-Hoorie used the *Single-Target Implicit Association Test* (a variant of the standard *Implicit Association Test*) to measure implicit attitudes towards L2 speakers ('Pleasant + L2 speakers' and 'Unpleasant') and the L2 course ('Pleasant + L2 course' and 'Unpleasant'). At the same time, the participants were asked to complete 10 self-report attitudinal and motivational scales. A total of 311 Arabic L1 males (mean age = 19.8) who were studying English as a foundation-year requirement participated in this study and the results showed that "implicit attitudes toward L2 speakers successfully and uniquely predict L2 achievement" (Al-Hoorie, 2016b, p. 636). At the same time, the explicit-implicit congruence in his findings indicated that "congruent learners were more open to the L2 community and obtained higher achievement" (Al-Hoorie, 2016b, p. 619); corroborating his earlier findings.

Study C: Emotion and motivation of Dutch primary and secondary students

In her PhD thesis in which she explored the interaction of emotion and motivation, Waninge (2017) proposed that "younger learners would struggle to analyse the motivational, affective, cognitive, and contextual elements that form the basis of their conglomerate state, whereas for older learners these elements would be more phenomenologically distinguishable" (p. 188). In order to test her hypothesis, she sought to understand the implicit and explicit attitudes of Dutch primary and secondary school students by administering the *Implicit Association Test* to participants in the two target groups: primary school pupils (N= 30, mean age = 4.5) and secondary school students (N=30, mean age = 16.9).

Because of their age and limited literacy skills, the participants in the primary group completed a *Child-Implicit Association Test* (which uses sounds rather than written words). In the case of the secondary school participants, the *Brief-Implicit Association Test* (which adopted a text-based format) was employed. Both groups were presented with the same Target ('English' and 'Other Activities') and Attribute ('Good' and 'Bad') categories and these were delivered via a sound/text + image format. Following this, the participants took part in a brief structured interview where they were asked questions that explored the students' explicit preferences towards English and other activities/subjects.

Results from this study indicated a difference in the implicit and explicit attitudes between the two groups: the primary group showed a moderately strong positive correlation between their implicit and explicit attitudes, whereas there was a lack of such correlation reported in the secondary group. According to Waninge's interpretation, these findings "indicated that English is simply another school activity for the younger group, while it holds a status different to that of other subjects in the minds of the older learners" (p. 224). She further reasoned that the cause for this difference is likely due to how the "older learners have internalised their various goal orientations" (p. 224) and concluded that the interplay of such implicit and explicit attitudes have important language learning implications as "the degree to which goal orientations are internalised can be extremely important in determining the success of self-regulation" (p. 227), thereby affecting one's English language learning outcomes.

Study D: Chinese undergraduates studying in England

In her Masters dissertation, Boo (2014) employed a three-part mixed-methods approach to better understand Chinese language learners' attitudes towards the English language: first, a traditional self-report questionnaire was used to obtain the explicit attitudes score. Following this, an *Implicit Association Test* component was employed to measure the implicit attitudes of the participants and finally, a follow-up interview with four participants was conducted.

A total of 65 (32 males and 33 females) participants from Mainland China participated in this study. They were undergraduates who were enrolled at a British university in England. Participants were asked to complete the explicit questionnaire that was made up of six multi-item Likert scales: a) *Ideal L2 self*, b) *Ought-to self*, c) *Attitudes towards English-speaking people*, d) *Attitudes towards learning English*, e) *Ethnocentrism*, f*) Fear of Assimilation* and two semantic differentials scales: g)

Attitudes towards the English and h) *Attitudes towards the Chinese*. With regards to the standard *Implicit Association Test*, English and the Chinese groups were used as the target-concept contrast, and the evaluative attributes of 'Pleasant' and 'Unpleasant' attributes were applied.

From the triangulation of the data, two key findings emerged. First, there was the presence of a positive correlation between the participants' implicit scores and an explicit fear of assimilation. The relationship between these two variables implied that if an individual has a strong Chinese identity, he or she might worry that this identity would be 'lost' and be assimilated into another culture, thereby limiting the formation and development of one's *Ideal English L2 self*. In addition to this finding, an inverse relationship between the participants' implicit and explicit attitudes towards English language learning was found. This is particularly interesting because this relationship suggests the presence of an "internal barrier" that prevents the Chinese students from fully engaging with the English language. From the follow-up interviews, it was also found that some discrepancies in the responses by the two gender groups was due to the concept of 'face'. Overall, the findings from this study revealed that the Chinese participants and their concept of self are inextricably intertwined with China and its culture.

A summary from these four studies

The results derived from these four studies demonstrate that language learning attitudes are not straightforward and that there are many underlying reasons that contribute to the formation of one's attitudes towards English language learning. As seen above, these reasons include factors such as religion, gender, age, one's degree of internalisation and culture. At the same time, because of how the presence of such salient undercurrents in the language learners' motivational psyche could not have been detected without the use of indirect measurement techniques, from a methodological perspective, this further underscores the need for indirect research methods in the L2 field. It should also be noted that while the above-mentioned case studies investigated the different language learning aspects in four independent target groups, they however shared a similarity in the target language – English. This focus on English as the target language is an important point which will be picked up later in *Chapter Four*.

Despite the novelty of this line of unconscious research, findings from the above-mentioned studies evidenced the feasibility of an unconscious research paradigm in language learning motivation, thereby reinforcing the call of how "language attitude research, which has traditionally measured only explicit attitudes, would benefit by incorporating indirect measures" (Pantos & Perkins, 2012, p. 3). While this is a relatively new approach in the field, the extent in which unconscious attitudes shape L2 motivation is one that should not be dismissed. Indeed, this point has been highlighted by Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017):

> The limited evidence available suggests that the impact of implicit, not-fully-conscious factors might play a stronger role in language attainment than formerly believed (…) it is safe to predict that this direction of inquiry is likely to gain momentum over the next decade. (p. 465)

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter began with a discussion of the debates and changing perceptions of conscious and unconscious thought in mainstream psychology. Next, in order to illustrate the conscious-centric nature of L2 motivation research, the three key transitionary stages in the field were discussed – the *social psychological phase*, the *cognitive-situated stage* and the present time *socio-dynamic period*. Following that, the chapter proceeded to look at the role of unconscious attitudes, and discussed possible emerging research opportunities into the unconscious dimension in the L2 field. Several measures of implicit social cognition were presented to demonstrate the many options in which the unconscious can be indirectly assessed today and finally, four initial studies of L2 unconscious motivation were presented to showcase the potential of this line of research.

From the literature reviewed in this chapter, it was found that consciousness "is not needed to originate behaviour" (Bargh & Morsella, 2008, p. 39) and that self-report measures are inadequate for tapping into unconscious processes. These issues highlight the theoretical and methodological concerns for L2 motivation research as they bring about the question as to how the L2 field could approach the reconciliation of the field's current conscious-centric understanding with that of the unconscious dimension.

Next, *Chapter Four* seeks to ground this thesis by introducing Hong Kong as the choice of location for this thesis by way of understanding the origins of its unique triglossic and biliterate environment, the educational policies enforcing the roles of the three languages (Cantonese, English and Mandarin) and the concept of the "Hong Kong identity". It also seeks to provide the theoretical rationale of this thesis.

Chapter 4: Grounding this thesis

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Three presented a literature review on the conscious and unconscious dichotomy of attitudes and the inclusion of a subconscious dimension in the field of L2 learner motivation was proposed. This thesis is based on the premise that unconscious motivation matters in language learning, and in order to make this case, two supporting components are offered in this chapter.

This chapter seeks to ground this thesis by introducing Hong Kong as the research location. To demonstrate its potential as a fertile ground for unconscious motivation research, a discussion of Hong Kong's unique triglossic environment will be presented, along with an illustration of its turbulent relationship with Mainland China and how this animosity is contributed by its *Medium of Instruction* and its subsequent influence on the "Hong Kong identity".

Following that, the theoretical rationale of this thesis will be provided. This will be carried out via a) a discussion on multilingualism and the learning of other languages (LOTEs), b) a look at the shifting status of Global English and c) the observation of Mandarin as a rising global language.

4.2 The research location – Hong Kong

The research location of this thesis is situated in the East Asian city of Hong Kong. The rationale for this choice is that Hong Kong fulfils two criteria for environments in which a discrepancy between conscious and unconscious motives is likely to occur: a) the existence of language 'ownership' issues (e.g. heritage language) and b) the availability of both Global English and LOTEs for comparison (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). To justify this location choice, this section presents a discussion of Hong Kong's unique triglossic environment. This section is divided into four parts: *Section 4.2.1* discusses Hong Kong's political past and present as well as their contribution to Hong Kong's unique triglossic and biliterate environment while *Section 4.2.2* briefly explains the turbulent relationship between Hong Kong and Mainland China. Next, *Section 4.2.3* looks specifically at Hong Kong's *Medium of Instruction* language policy and discusses the language learning challenges faced in Hong Kong and finally, *Section 4.2.4* seeks to demonstrate the impact of Hong Kong's political affiliations on the "Hong Kong identity" and show how changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policy have contributed to the Hong Kong population's ability to speak Cantonese, English and Mandarin.

4.2.1 Hong Kong's political *past* and *present*

Hong Kong was originally a city made up of Chinese citizens who fled Mainland China during the Taiping Rebellion in the mid-nineteenth century. Immigrants originated primarily from the Guangdong province and they brought their provincial dialects such as Cantonese, Hakka and Teochew to Hong Kong (Bacon-Shone & Bolton, 1998). Eventually, Cantonese became the dominant language and was adopted as the local tongue.

For the sake of simplification, this thesis loosely divides Hong Kong's political history into a *past* and a *present* state of affairs. The *past* is defined by the period under British rule and the *present* is represented by its current status as the 'Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) of the People's Republic of China' following its 1997 reunification with China.

In the *past*, Hong Kong was ceded by the Chinese government to the British during the First Opium War in 1841, and the British colonised Hong Kong from 1842 (apart from 1941-45 when it was under Japanese occupation) under the ratification of the Treaty of Nanking. In the time of the colonial rule, be it as a result of linguistic imperialism (Pennycook, 1998; Phillipson, 1992) or as a consequence of a campaign for access to English-medium education (Evans, 1998, 2008), English was introduced to its shores and was adopted as the sole official language of government and law until the 1970s. It was in 1974 that the Official Languages Ordinance stipulated the equal usage of English and Chinese (that is, Cantonese) (Bolton, 2011) and since then, Hong Kong has benefitted from the co-existence of these two languages. Firstly, by adopting the *lingua franca* of the global market, it managed to establish itself as one of the financial leaders in the Asian economic scene and secondly, because of how it did not adhere to Mainland China's promulgation of the Chinese language it cemented its unique Hong Kong identity (one that was independent of China) by way of the Cantonese language.

Since 1997, Hong Kong was returned to Mainland China as part of the Nanking treaty. What this meant was that politically, Hong Kong would be ruled under a "one country, two systems" policy for the next 50 years till 2047 and presently, it is officially known as the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) of the People's Republic of China

4.2.2 Hong Kong's turbulent relationship with Mainland China

Notwithstanding the world's excitement at this historical event, the citizens of Hong Kong were mixed in opinions regarding this matter: some saw it as a reunion with the Mainland, while others thought of it as an ill-fated pairing with a 'backward' country (Lui, 1999). A simplified understanding of this lacklustre response from Hong Kong can be gained if we consider Hong Kong's early departure from China and how, as a British colony, it flourished and became economically and socially more advantageous than Mainland China. On top of that, Hong Kong has always had a problematic relationship with the Mainland because it was always on the receiving end of troubles in China that saw massive waves of immigrants coming over to Hong Kong (Carroll, 2007). In reality, however, the relationship between Hong Kong and China is one that is far more complex and which is beyond the scope of this thesis to explain in exhaustive detail.

Nevertheless, in an attempt to demonstrate this unhappy association, several examples will be used to illustrate this turbulent and volatile union between Hong Kong and Mainland China; for instance: Hong Kong citizens annually take to the streets to express their unhappiness at being part of China and public opinion shows that many are not proud to be 'Chinese' (Law, 2015); the Occupy Central protests (also known as the Umbrella Revolution) over "true universal suffrage" (The Guardian, 2014) that drew international attention in 2014 (BBC, 2014, 2015; Hilgers, 2015); the tension that is felt even on the football pitch (Liu, 2015); the cryptic political message on Hong Kong's tallest building that displayed a countdown timer to 2047 when the “one country, two systems” agreement will cease (Yu, 2016a, 2016b); and the increase in the number of Hong Kong people immigrating overseas (Reuters, 2016). More recently, and at the time of putting this thesis together, Hong Kong and Mainland China are experiencing their biggest challenge to date with the recent and ongoing 2019 protest sparked by Hong Kong’s opposition to a proposed extradition law (BBC, 2019; Victor, 2019). While there are several factors contributing to the animosity displayed by Hong Kong towards the Mainland, , language policies were expressed to be one of the underlying factors and at the fore of this language debate is the issue of the *Medium of Instruction* (this topic will be further discussed later in *Section 4.2.3*).

This hostile relationship with Mainland China has resulted in a delicate situation that Hong Kong has to handle with caution. Recently, it has been reported by the *South China Morning Post* that “Beijing would show zero tolerance for such advocacy as well as anything jeopardising the city’s mini-constitution and stability” (Cheung, 2018), and a call for Hongkongers to strengthen their sense of national identity was made. Certainly, it was said that one should not underestimate China because “China may play down any imperial ambitions, but it is a country with immense self-confidence and sense of destiny and is able to play a long game” (Graddol, 2006, p. 33).

However, from a linguistics point of view, this reunification is particularly intriguing. Because from this turbulent political arrangement of “one country, two systems”, a unique “one country, two systems, three languages” scenario emerged. That is, since its reunification with China in 1997, Hong Kong has adopted an official language policy of trilingualism (Cantonese, English and Mandarin) and biliteracy (Chinese and English) (Information Services Department, 2015). However, these three languages are perceived to hold different status. In a study that looked at the roles of the languages in the civil service, government-related organisations and public and private companies (Evans, 2010), it was found that:

> English remains the default medium of written professional communication in both the public and private sectors, while Cantonese is the unmarked medium of intra-ethnic spoken communication (…) written Chinese and Putonghua [Mandarin] currently play only a limited role in business and professional communication. (p. 347)

According to Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017), the marked and unmarked usage of the three languages mentioned above implies that Hong Kong is a suitable and rich location for such unconscious attitudes research:

> A particular fertile environment for the emergence of powerful unconscious attitudes involves multilingual communities characterized by diglossia (Ferguson, 1959), a situation whereby within a multilingual society one language is considered more prestigious and used in public, while the other language is viewed as inferior and used only at home or in informal communication. (p. 464)

Furthermore, in previous studies that looked at learner motivation in Hong Kong, it was found that separate *L2 self* images exist with regard to the learning of both English and Mandarin (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), corroborating results that demonstrated the "psychological distinctiveness of L2 and L3 ideal selves" (Ushioda, 2017, p. 478). In addition to this, in a study of Hong Kong students' motivation to learn different target languages, it was found that the affective and integrative dimensions of the language learners differed between the many target languages, in particular, English and Mandarin (Humphreys & Spratt, 2008). The findings from these studies reveal indications of the complexities that are present in Hong Kong's linguistic landscape and together, they underscore Hong Kong's potential for this line of unconscious research.

From these two above-mentioned aspects – Hong Kong's unique triglossic environment and its turbulent relationship with Mainland China – it is clear that the linguistic landscape of Hong Kong is not as straightforward as it may seem from the official language policy descriptions. It is undeniable that its multilingual environment is linguistically fascinating and one cannot help but intuit Hong Kong's potential as a fertile location for this line of unconscious motivation investigation.

To delve deeper into understanding the language debate and the factors involved, a discussion of Hong Kong's *Medium of Instruction* will be offered below.

4.2.3 The *Medium of Instruction* policy

As mentioned earlier, Hong Kong officially has a language policy of trilingualism (Cantonese, English and Mandarin) and biliteracy (Chinese and English) (Information Services Department, 2015). Before continuing, there is a need to clarify something at this point: it was realised early on in the reading of the extant literature that it was not always clear if the use of the term ‘Chinese’ referred to ‘Cantonese’ or ‘Mandarin’. This ambiguity was found to be a conscious decision that the formulators of the law chose not to define and this inconsistency in the wording reflects the constant challenge that Hong Kong policymakers face in balancing the world’s *lingua franca* (English) against that of the language of a rising political and economic power (Mandarin) (Evans, 2010; Jacques, 2012). For the sake of clarification in this thesis, Cantonese will be used to refer to the dominant language that is widely spoken of citizens of Hong Kong and Mandarin will be used to denote the national language of China.

The *Medium of Instruction* issue dates back to as early as in the early 1970s when the British government implemented the *Green Paper* proposal which recommended that Cantonese be used as the language of instruction in the secondary schools (Tsui, 2004). However, this was met by opposition both from schools (who wanted to maintain their English-medium school prestige) and parents (who were concerned about the repercussions of this policy on their children’s prospects at finding future employment). To rectify, a *White Paper* was published and with it a *laissez-faire* approach was adopted, which resulted in a school system that was composed of an approximately 90-percent of primary Cantonese-*Medium of Instruction* schools to a 90-percent of secondary English-*Medium of Instruction* school ratio (Tse et al., 2007). This mismatched ratio resulted in a *Medium of Instruction* “dilemma”. In an attempt to address this lopsided balance, the ‘Firm Guidance’ policy was introduced in 1997 (Education Bureau, 1997).

Emerging from this ‘Firm Guidance’ policy was a system that was comprised of approximately 75-percent of Cantonese-*Medium of instruction* to 25-percent of English-*Medium of instruction* secondary schools; segregating the students into ‘first class’ (English-medium) and ‘second class’ (Cantonese-medium) schools (Choi, 2003). Consequently, this separation encouraged elitism and competition amongst students and this sense of unfairness was further amplified when research showed how students from the English-medium schools enjoy an advantage over their Cantonese-medium counterparts when it comes to university admissions (Tsang, 2008).

Unfortunately, this did not mark the end of the changes to this particular education policy and in a more recent attempt to figure out the most 'ideal' solution, the 'Fine-tuning the *Medium of Instruction* for Secondary Schools' report was introduced in 2010 (Education Bureau, 2010). This supposedly allowed schools to execute more flexibility in their choice in the *Medium of Instruction*.

While the brief summary above demonstrates the complex and ever-changing nature of the *Medium of Instruction* policy, it should be highlighted at this point, that this dilemma was caused by the attempt to find a balance between Cantonese and English. However, when Mandarin was introduced to the Hong Kong schools, the central issue underlying the *Medium of Instruction* issue changed to that between Cantonese and Mandarin; leading to policymakers struggling to find ways to incorporate Mandarin into what was traditionally a Cantonese and English dominant society. There were also immediate concerns that English will be downgraded with the rise of Mandarin in the key domains, however, this was not the case (Bolton, 2011).

Noticeably, when Mandarin became a compulsory subject in all Hong Kong schools in 1998 and the institutions were encouraged to teach Chinese language subjects in Mandarin (they were previously taught in Cantonese), the decision was met with debate, controversies, and more often than not, unhappiness from the public at large (Yau, 2014). The negative responses are largely to do with fear about the likely erosion of Cantonese and displeasure at being steamrollered by the administration (He, 2010; Yau, 2014). The extent of the tension between Cantonese and Mandarin was made clearer when the authorities in Guangzhou proposed to replace the use of Cantonese with Mandarin on its main television channels in the lead up to the 2010 Asian Games: protests were held in Guangzhou and, in an act of solidarity, a small demonstration was also held in Hong Kong where a fear that a similar situation will happen in Hong Kong was expressed (Branigan, 2010; Ramzy, 2010). Further exacerbating this friction between the two languages occurred when the Education Bureau claimed on its website that Cantonese is not an official language of Hong Kong (Tam & Lau, 2014). This is a concern for Hong Kong because as "the greatest Cantonese city that the world has ever seen" (Harrison & So, 1997, p. 12), the use of Cantonese is at odds with Mainland China's official language policy where Mandarin is being promoted. This is because China's promulgation of Mandarin was so as to standardise and unify the nation (see Section 4.3.2) and for the citizens of Hong Kong who seek to disassociate themselves from China, the embracement of Mandarin is considered to be unacceptable.

As demonstrated thus far, the English and Mandarin language learning situation in Hong Kong appears to be complex and mired with challenges. Indeed, in a detailed study regarding the issue of Hong Kong's biliteracy and trilingualism, Li (2017) noted that due to the different linguistic characteristics between Cantonese and English, "linguistically very little of what they know about their mother tongue (Cantonese) has any reference value in the strenuous process of learning English" (p. 81) and that while there are many shared cognates between Cantonese and Mandarin, due to the "considerable discrepancy between the vernacular and standard written Chinese" (p. 81) the learning of Mandarin is not necessarily any easier. Also, it was previously found that the affective and integrative dimensions of Hong Kong language learners differ between English and Mandarin (Humphreys & Spratt, 2008).

Thus far, this literature review has provided an insight into how Hong Kong's unique linguistic landscape that emerged from its *past* and *present* political affiliation. At the same time, it has also looked at how, at a national level, it claims to hold Cantonese, English and Mandarin at an equal status. However, when the political relationship between Hong Kong and Mainland China is taken into account, the relationship with Mandarin is not as straightforward. Following this line of thought, with regards to the *Medium of Instruction* issue, two considerations are identified: the balancing act between English and Cantonese and the relationship between Cantonese and Mandarin. In the next section, the impact of the three languages on the "Hong Kong identity" will be discussed.

4.2.4 The Hong Kong identity and the three languages

The issue of identity is an important topic for the Hong Kong people and as mentioned earlier in Section 4.2.1, this is largely to do with its past and present political affiliations. In their survey on the social identities of Hong Kong adolescents, Lam and colleagues (2007) found a high level of association with the Hong Kong identity amongst young people. However, there was also an inclination to include a Chinese identity because of the changing political and economic situation. Their findings, as shown in Table 4-1, illustrate these changing identities. Of particular mention, the "*Hong Kong people*" category observed a decrease of 5.2% while the "*Chinese people, and next option is Hong Kong people*" group saw an increase of 6.5% over the 20 year period.

Table 4-1: Social identity of Hong Kong young people in 1996 and 2006 (Lam et al., 2007, as cited in Poon, 2010)

	1996	**2006**
Hong Kong people	33.9%	28.7%
Hong Kong people, and next option is Chinese	40.0%	39.4%
Chinese people, and next option is Hong Kong people	15.8%	22.3%
Chinese people	10.4%	9.6%

In the biannual survey results collected by the University of Hong Kong that looks at the Hong Kong people's associations with their identities from 1997-2019 (HKU Pop Site, 2019), it was found that there were several points of convergence between the "*Hong Konger*" and "*Hong Konger in China*" identity groups (see Image 4-1). However, upon a closer look at the results from 2007 to 2019 (see Image 4-2), the chart lines show a widening gap in these two identity tags.

It should be mentioned that there were also other options in this poll ("*Chinese in Hong Kong*", "*Chinese*", "*Hong Konger + Hong Konger in China*", "*Chinese + Chinese in Hong Kong*", "*Mixed Identity*"). However, for the purposes of this study, only results pertaining to "*Hong Konger*" and "*Hong Konger in China*" were selected.

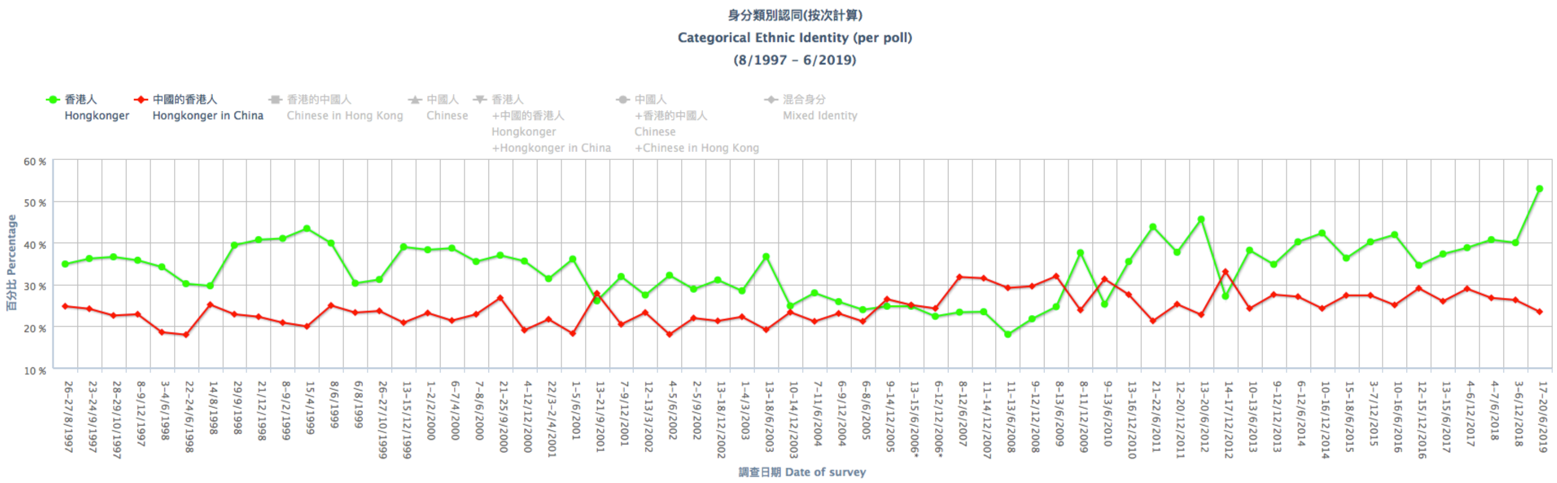

Image 4-1: HKU POP Site (1997-2019)

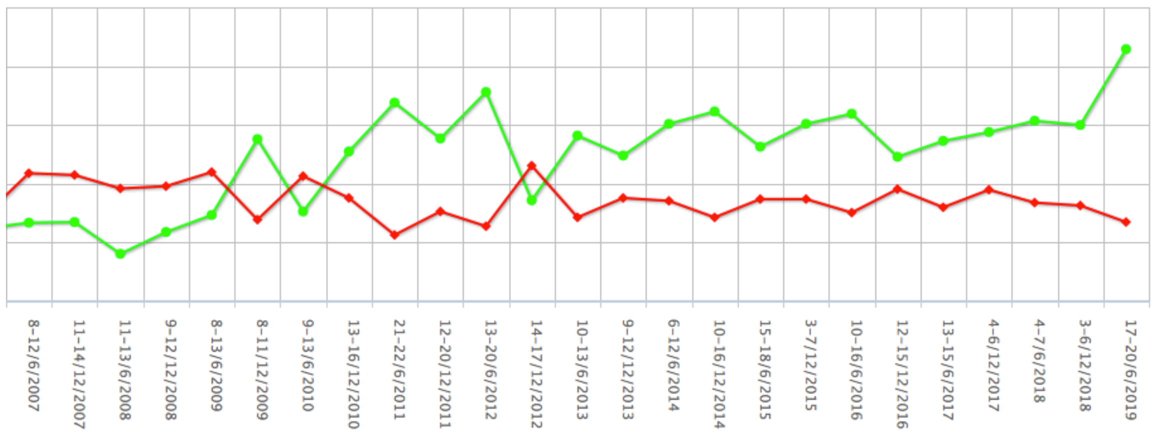

Image 4-2: HKU POP Site (2007-2019)

The fluctuating nature of the Hong Kong identity and the growing gap between a pure "*Hong Kong*" and a "*Hong Konger in China*" identities are important observations that will contribute to a better understanding of the *qualitative pilot* presented later in *Chapter Five*. For a comprehensive overview of this matter, see Lam et al. (2007).

Notwithstanding the conflicting views regarding the changes made to the *Medium of Instruction*, this particular language policy has allowed the Hong Kong population to be exposed to the three languages. Indeed, according to the Census reports (see Table 4-2) for the years 1996, 2001 and 2006 (as cited in Poon, 2010, p. 7), it was found that, there has been an overall increase in the population's ability in Cantonese, English and Mandarin.

On closer inspection of the "*As the Usual Language*" figures, it should be noted that between 1996 and 2006, the Cantonese percentile saw an increase of 2.1%, English saw a decrease of 0.3% while Mandarin saw a decrease of 0.2%. However, when combined with the "*As another language/dialect*" category, the figures tell a different story. Compared to the two other languages, Mandarin saw the greatest overall growth at 14.9% (there was an increase of 1.3% for Cantonese and a 6.6% growth for English).

Table 4-2: Proportion of the population able to speak Cantonese, English and Putonghua (Mandarin), 1996, 2001 and 2006

	Proportion of Population Aged 5 and Over (%)								
	As the Usual Language			**As Another Language/Dialect**			**Total**		
	1996	2001	2006	1996	2001	2006	1996	2001	2006
Cantonese	88.7	89.2	90.8	6.6	6.8	5.7	95.2	96.1	96.5
English	3.1	3.2	2.8	34.9	39.8	41.9	38.1	43.0	44.7
Putonghua (Mandarin)	1.1	0.9	0.9	24.2	33.3	39.2	25.3	34.1	40.2

The findings reviewed in this section illustrate the impact of Hong Kong's present affiliation with Mainland China and its impact on the fluctuating Hong Kong identity. Apart from this, it also showed how the changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policy influenced the population's ability to speak Cantonese, English and Mandarin. These results will help in the interpretation of the *qualitative pilot* that will be presented later in *Section 5.3*.

Next, the theoretical rationale of this thesis will be offered by way of a discussion on multilingualism and the learning of other languages (LOTEs), the shifting status of Global English and the rise of Mandarin as a global language.

4.3 Multilingualism and the motivation to learn languages other than English (LOTE)

The topic of multilingualism has been "catapulted to a new world order in the 21st century" (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 19) and, in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), there is a growing recognition with regards to the complex negotiation that language learners and users are required to make in relation to their identity and the demands and opportunities afforded across the learning of multiple languages in today's globalised, technologically-savvy and highly mobile world. To make sense of SLA in this rapidly changing world, the Douglas Fir Group (2016) has presented an ecological framework made up of a collaboration across disciplines and theoretical allegiances which include sociocultural theory, language socialization theory, social identity theory, complexity and dynamic systems theory, usage-based approaches, biocultural perspectives, ecological and sociocognitive approaches, variationist sociolinguistics, systemic functional linguistics and conversation analysis, and deconstructed the multifaceted nature of language learning and teaching into three mutually-dependent stages: the macro, meso and micro levels (see Figure 4-1).

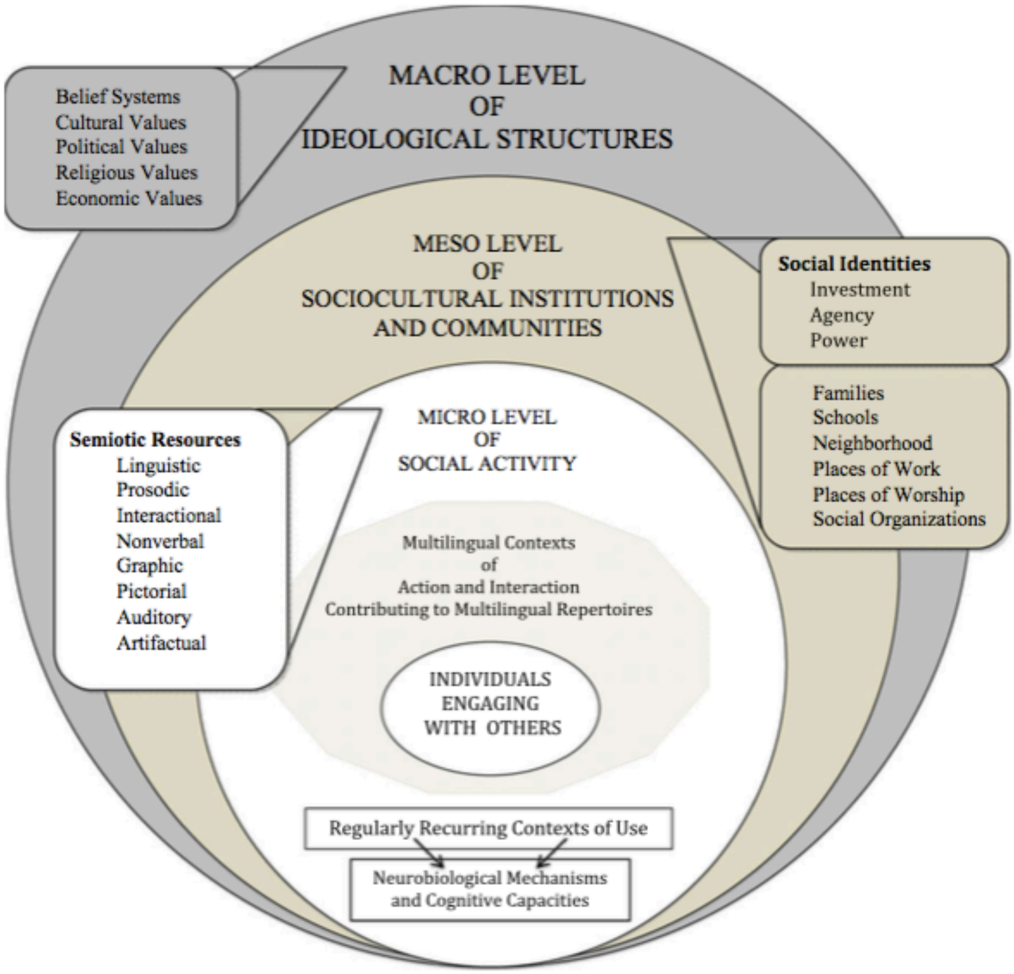

Figure 4-1 The Multifaceted Nature of Language Learning and Teaching (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 25)

The purpose of this structure is to "offer a transdisciplinary framework that assumes the embedding, at all levels, of social, sociocultural, sociocognitive, sociomaterial, ecosocial, ideological, and emotional dimensions" (p. 24). From this framework, 10 themes emerged, offering "action possibilities that can be appropriated, negotiated, transformed, and made into means or constraints for L2 researching, learning, and teaching" (p. 26):

1. Language competencies are complex, dynamic, and holistic
2. Language learning is semiotic learning
3. Language learning is situated and attentionally socially gated
4. Language learning is multimodal, embodied, and mediated
5. Variability and change are at the heart of language learning

6. Literacy and instruction mediate language learning
7. Language learning is identity work
8. Agency and transformative power are means and goals for language learning
9. Ideologies permeate all levels, and
10. Emotion and affect matter at all levels

While these 10 points are important, for the purposes of this chapter this section highlights and expands on two of them: Number 9, Ideologies, and Number 7, Identity (for a full account of these 10 themes, see Douglas Fir Group, 2016).

Because "language ideologies are especially significant to the endeavours of multilingual learning (…) and ideologies influence the access, investment, and agency into a new language that learners may or may not (be able or willing) exert" (p. 33), a brief discussion of how ideologies permeate all levels of multilingualism is warranted. In their article, the Douglas Fir Group provides three reasons as to why the influence of ideological structures are important to multilingualism (see also Farr & Song, 2011):

1. *Language ideologies and their influence on language policy and planning* – this exists at "the individual, family, community, state, and national levels" (p. 33) and apart from deciding which language(s) are official and valued, they play an important role in how the language(s) are to be used in community settings and the educational opportunities presented.
2. *The threat of negative language ideologies* – two key perceptions underscore negative ideologies: the belief in a "standard language", specifically, "in the linguistic correctness of one variety" (Milroy, 2001) and the ideology of monolingualism (Flores, 2013). These negative language ideologies are harmful to the multilingual learning process because they impede the validity of additional language learning.
3. *Language learners are ideological beings* and the use of the multilinguals' languages "influence people's choices for approaching language learning, their investments in their target languages, and their identity negotiations along the life project of multilingualism" (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 35). Further elaborating on this point, the article cites research by Duchêne and Heller (2012) and Gal (2012) to explain how "some multilinguals will

profess a relationship to the mother tongue that feels more authentic, as the language of emotions, home, and intimacy" (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 35) and goes on to provide examples of how language ideologies affect language learners' 'enjoyment and desire' (Kubota, 2011), their willingness to communicate (WTC; Subtirelu, 2014), their negotiation strategies (Canagarajah, 2013) and how they perceive border-crossing interactions (Kubota, 2013).

Apart from language ideologies, the concept of identity is another key factor in multilingualism, specifically, with regards to the bilingual- and multilingual-selves. In her discussion of bilingual selves, Pavlenko (2006) mentioned:

> In bi- and multilingual communities, changes in verbal and non-verbal behaviour that accompany a change in language are commonly taken for granted and do not elicit much interest (…) However, in traditionally monolingual societies, bilinguals are at times seen as people with two conflicting personalities whose shifting linguistic allegiances imply shifting political allegiances and moral commitments. (p. 2)

This "bilinguality of feelings" (Sander, 1934; as cited in Pavlenko, 2006, p. 3) is also known as "linguistic schizophrenia", referring to a negative outcome of bilingualism as a consequence of two incompatible identities. In her study, where she sought to learn if bi- and multilinguals feel like different people when they switch between languages, how they reconcile such changes (if any) within themselves and whether they see their language selves as single or different, Pavlenko found that a) "the perception of different selves is not restricted to late or immigrant bilinguals, but is a more general part of bi- and multilingual experience" (p. 27) and b) such experiences "may be interpreted differently by people who draw on different discourses of bi/multilingualism and self" (p. 27). She concludes that "some may derive enjoyment from hybridity and relativity of their existence and others may feel that they inhabit distinct and at times incommensurable lifeworlds and experience pain and anguish over this condition" (p. 29). These findings are particularly thought-provoking for the L2 motivation field and as succinctly summarised by Henry (2017):

> Whether characterized by diversity, hybridity, and integration, or by discomfort, fragmentation, and loss, these multilingual identities appear as phenomenologically distinct. If, then, people who speak several languages develop an identity that is more than a simple conglomeration of discrete L2 identities, interesting questions arise for motivation research. (p. 550)

Taking into account the new world order of multilingualism and the complexities of bi- and multilingual identities, Henry (2017) further points out that such monolingual bias in the field of L2 motivation research is one that is "unfortunate" (p. 548). Indeed, although English has often been positioned as "a preferred, indeed obligatory, additional language" (Duff, 2017, p. 598), because of how "languages are part of a linguistic marketplace that assigns value based on their association with particular kinds of social, cultural, symbolic, and other forms of capital, power, and history" (Bourdieu, 1977; as cited in Duff et al., 2015, p. 145); it should thus be duly noted that "English is not the only 'big' language in the world, and its position as a global language is now in the care of multilingual speakers" (Graddol, 2006, p. 57). Therefore, in his conceptual paper on L2 motivation and multilingual identities, Henry (2017) suggests that "the motivational systems of a multilingual learner's different languages can be understood as constituting a higher-level multilingual motivational self system that is part of an ecology of interconnected and interpenetrating systems" (p. 548).

Henry (2017) further provides two potential interactions of a multilingual learning storyline. The first scenario describes an antagonistic relationship between the Lx and Ly in which the *contentedly bilingual self* develops (e.g. a Native Swedish speaker who is confident in his/her English language and does not perceive a need or have an interest in speaking another language i.e. Spanish). This outcome has a demotivating effect as "this downwards process can manifest itself in notions that English is sufficient, that knowledge of English will comfortably deliver all the opportunities needed in life, and that learning Spanish is simply not worth the effort" (p. 554). In contrast, a mutually complementary relationship exists between the Lx and Ly in the second scenario and an *ideal multilingual self* emerges (e.g. a Native Swedish speaker who is enjoying and motivated to develop skills in both English and Spanish). In this instance, the language learning motivation is sustained for the two languages and "for those who develop an ideal multilingual self, the ideal Spanish self is enhanced" (p. 554).

He further notes that this emergence of a high-level ideal multilingual self has two important consequences: firstly, an increased stability and cohesion within the multilingual identity system where the learning of Lx and Ly will be better aligned and "function in a more consistently complementary manner" (p. 554); resulting in a *motivationally supportive* function. Secondly, despite the reduced antagonism, "competition between the Lx and Ly selves *may never* [emphasis added] be entirely eradicated" (p. 554). However, in light of such threat, greater resilience will be displayed by the Ly self and "any negative impact from Lx being less enduring" (p. 555). Therefore, he suggests that:

> in situations where bilinguals/multilinguals learn additional languages, or where monolinguals are learning two or more L2s, focus needs to be directed to the dynamic interactions of the Lx and Ly motivational systems and the emergent motivational properties arising therefrom. (p. 549)

It is undeniable that this rise of multilingualism has a direct impact on the field's current understanding of learner motivation and this interest for a multilingual approach has recently been reflected in the 2017 Special Issue of The Modern Language Journal (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2017). However, there is acknowledgement of the complexities involved in such an approach. In her paper, Ushioda (2017) (2017) identified two important issues: a) "whether prevailing theoretical analyses of L2 motivation (grounded in English learning contexts) are adequate to account for people's motivations for learning languages other than English (LOTEs)" (p. 471) and b) if the field may be constrained by its current understanding of language learner motivation. Referring to the framework presented by the Douglas Fir Group, Ushioda pointed out how "the interactions among macro, meso, and local micro levels are complex and potentially fraught when it comes to motivational agendas for learning languages beyond global English" (p. 474). Nevertheless, because of how "the undisputed hegemony of Global English has overshadowed the study of languages other than English (LOTEs)" (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 455), this continued bias towards Global English should not persist. Instead, Ushioda and Dörnyei (2017) suggest:

by asking what impact global English has on the motivation to learn other languages in a globalized yet multilingual and multicultural world, we sustain the focus on the internal psychological dimension, addressing in particular the possibilities of motivational interactions or interferences when people are engaged in learning additional languages in parallel with L2 English. (p. 452)

This focus on the 'internal psychological dimension' has been mentioned in Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie's (2017) discussion on the theoretical issues and research directions of LOTEs. The authors point out two important factors in this English-LOTE imbalance. The first refers to the generation of a reductionist picture that ignores the attainment of the other existing forms of language worldwide and the 21st century surge in human mobility. The second point (which is the more pertinent focus of this thesis) lies in the questionable certainty in the theoretical paradigms that were developed from this English bias and their applicability to the motivation towards LOTEs. In relation to the second issue, Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie further identified five aspects in which the field's current conceptualisation of learner motivation has been downplayed or inadequately represented:

a) The English interference – because of how English has become "the default option of L2 choice" (p. 456), the motivation to learn LOTEs "typically takes place in the shadow of Global English" (p. 457). Such interference of the English language could result in two potential scenarios where in a positive outcome, language learners might liken the L3 as a "competitive edge" over others. Conversely, the learners might struggle with the competing demands among the various target languages whereby Global English is likely to emerge victorious.
b) The scope of the ideal L2 self – because of the lack of an identification with a clear English L2 community, the concept of an ideal L2 self has helped L2 motivation scholars "accommodate the special, universal status" of English. However, there is a concern in whether the "individualistic nature" of the ideal L2 self is transferable to the context of multilingualism where there is an evident speech community. Because of this unintentional "monolingual track" (p. 459) of the ideal L2 self, it is "reasonable to assume that a reconsideration of the attitudinal link between the learner

and the respective community would be beneficial for doing the motivation of LOTE learning full justice" (p. 459).

c) The relevance of the ought-to L2 self – this component of the L2 Motivational Self System has been previously found to be limited in scope in which the cause has been reasoned to be the lack of internalization and the consequential lack in the "energizing capacity" (p. 460) necessary for the language learning process. However, the authors asked if this limitation of the ought-to L2 self – that was based on research on Global English – is a) applicable also to LOTEs and b) if possible, be found to be more fragmented beyond that of a unified self-dimension. More importantly, Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie question if "it still makes sense to speak about *the* ought-to L2 self in the case of LOTE learning, or whether it would be more useful to assume the existence of several, potentially conflicting disparate ought-to L2 self-images" (p. 461) especially in the context of the different nature of the *Ought-to self* that is associated with languages that receive substantial versus marginal institutional and social support.

d) The different nature of English and LOTEs learning goals – this refers to the issue that because of the "large-scale and multifaceted global backing that Global English enjoys" (p. 463), the learning of English does not require any special justification. Conversely, the goals behind the learning of LOTEs are "highly specific and personalized" (p. 462).

e) The role of unconscious motives in the study of English and LOTEs – drawing from research on the *mere exposure effect* that was conducted by Zajonc (1968), the authors explained that Global English receives more exposure than LOTEs simply because of its role as the world's *lingua franca* and consequently, "the psychological dimension of SLA cannot be fully understood without accounting for the unconscious level of motivation, particularly in an era of language globalization" (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 463). They highlighted two unique areas in which such conscious and unconscious motives could occur: amidst language 'ownership' issues (e.g. heritage language) and where aspects of Global English and LOTEs are compared.

Furthermore, Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) point out that "the most salient aspect of the motivation associated with LOTE learning is the fact that it typically takes place in conjunction with the study of English, which may incur comparisons both at the conscious and unconscious levels" (p. 465) and that a high level of incentive and resilience are necessary to compete with the "metaphorical Goliath" (p. 457) that is Global English. They proposed that in order to overcome this difficult challenge, positive attitudes towards the L2 community that facilitate learner motivation and the chance to shape their "narrative identity" could be utilised.

However, one cannot help wonder what would happen when the LOTE in question is the new rising global language, that is, a "Goliath" in its own right? At the same time, if one were to consider the above discussion on multilingualism and LOTEs within the context of Hong Kong, it is a topic that is undeniably relevant. This is because of how from a superficial perspective, the city could simply be seen as a multilingual environment that has managed to successfully juggle its heritage language of Cantonese with that of English and Mandarin but, when scratched beneath the surface, there are important questions that emerge from beneath that façade. For instance:

- How do ideologies that exist at "the individual, family, community, state, and national levels" (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 33) shape the attitudes of Hong Kong language learners? Does the threat of negative language ideologies exist in the Hong Kong language learning context? How do the Hong Kong learners negotiate their personal language ideologies in their multilingual environment?
- With regards to the issue of language learner selves, are the Hong Kong language learners confronted/experiencing with such "bilinguality of feelings". Also, it would be interesting to learn if they are *contented bilinguals* or if they are sustained by features of an *ideal multilingual self?* At the same time, how do the "individualistic nature" of the Ideal L2 self and the relevance (and/or the limitations) of the Ought-to L2 self apply in this Hong Kong context?
- Whether unconscious motives exist in this triglossic environment and if so, to what extent does the role of such implicit attitudes affect language learner attitudes towards the languages?

These questions inform the research focus of this thesis, which will be presented later in *Chapter Five*. To refocus on the theoretical rationale of this thesis, the following section provides a discussion on the declining status of Global English.

4.3.1 The globalisation of English

As a global language (Crystal, 2003), the popularity of the English language "has become one of the few enduring facts of global modern life" (Graddol, 2006, p. 10) and today, it is recognised as a basic educational skill (p. 10) and a world auxiliary language (Lo Bianco, 2014). Associated with "factors such as necessity, utility, advantage, social capital, power, advancement, mobility, migration, and cosmopolitanism" (Ushioda, 2017, p. 471), the role and global reach of English is indisputable and this demand for the language is reflected in the still-increasing number of English language learners worldwide (Graddol, 2006).

While previous research on English concentrated on several key issues such as its historical role and how colonial and postcolonial education have helped to spread the language (e.g. Evans, 1998), how English has been institutionalised in different societies (Block & Cameron, 2002; Crystal, 2003) and the discourse surrounding the language (Park, 2010; Park & Wee, 2012), shortly after the turn of the century, special attention has been paid to the phenomenon known as "global English". This occurrence refers to a "new orthodoxy" (Graddol, 2006, p. 97) that is a result of the transition of English as a 'foreign language' to that of a 'basic skill'. Further elaborating on this phenomenon, Graddol proposed that this would result in the end of English as a foreign language. This point was further corroborated by the Chair of the British Council Neil Kinnock (as cited in Graddol, 2006), when he stated the following:

> The growth of the use of English as the world's primary language for international communication has obviously been continuing for several decades. But even as the number of English speakers expands further there are signs that the global predominance of the language may fade within the foreseeable future. (p. 9)

This observation of a "global English" is, however, not new. According to Blommaert (2010), "the processes we call globalization are not new in substance, they are new in intensity, scope and scale" (p. 1). This changing role of English has, as a matter of fact, been previously observed by several authors. For instance, Crystal (2003) states that English has lost its affiliation to specific English speaking cultures such as the United Kingdom or the United States and has become associated instead with a more generalised 'international' culture and identity. Similarly, Csizér and Lukács (2010) pointed out that "English now represents the language of the 'world at large'" (p. 2). This relationship between the English language and globalisation is caused by how "on the one hand, the availability of English as a global language is accelerating globalisation. On the other, the globalisation is accelerating the use of English" (p. 22). Ironically, it is this connection between the two that has resulted in the disembodiment of English (Pinner, 2016) and the dissipation of its global and pervasive status.

This shift in the status of the language has also been highlighted in the field of L2 motivation where "the globalization of English would seem to raise issues that interact with the *motivational* dimension of language learning in particular" (Ushioda, 2017, p. 470). As a sign of this effect, the globalisation of English was a key reason as to why the previous notion of *integrative motivation* became "untenable" (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006) and concepts such as *international posture* (Yashima, 2002), *biculture identities* (Norton, 2001) and a *world English identity* (Dörnyei, 2005) emerged.

Because of the traditional English research bias of the L2 motivation field – as seen in how more than 70% of published motivation studies in the past decade have focused on the English language (see *Chapter Two*) – this observation of a decline in the status of English has a significant influence on the L2 motivation field. Specifically, there are two main concerns. First, because the "dominant status of English as the must-have language of the world has contributed in no small measure to the conceptual reframing of L2 motivation in relation to internalized notions of self and identity, which have now become mainstream in our field" (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2017, p. 461), the concern then lies in whether (and how) such conceptual frames shift in this changing global trend. The second issue is related to the ensuing realisation that other target languages are currently underrepresented as a result of this strong bias towards English (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2017). However, despite these challenges, the general consensus is that the L2 motivation field should shift from the traditionally skewed focus on English and accord sufficient attention to the learning of other languages.

4.3.2 Mandarin: the rising global language

Today, it is not uncommon to learn that language learners are turning to other languages so as to have an edge over others who are learning only English. An illustration of this can be found in Siridetkoon and Dewaele's (2017) study where despite acknowledging the importance of English, some participants decided that "English can wait" (p. 6) because of how the knowledge of other foreign languages offered possibilities that they could not ignore. Because of its relevance to this thesis, this section discusses the rise of one such 'other foreign language' – Mandarin – and looks at how it has established itself as a rising global language.

In order for a language to achieve a global status, it "has to be taken up by other countries around the world" (Crystal, 2003, p. 4) and there are two main ways in which this can be accomplished: the language can be made the official language of a country and it can be made a priority in a country's foreign-language teaching. To demonstrate that the Mandarin language satisfies these two criteria, these two points will be discussed in turn. Before proceeding, it is important at this juncture to clarify certain terminologies – the use of 'Mandarin' will be used to refer to the national language of Mainland China and does not include the many other provincial dialects that are spoken throughout the country. At the same time, the use of the terms 'traditional Chinese', 'simplified Chinese' and 'pinyin' (Romanised form) will be used to denote the written scripts.

a) The emergence of a national standard

In the past, with as many as 1,800 clans and tribes inhibiting the areas along the Yellow River (where the Chinese civilisation originated) in which commercial and military activities propagated, there was an increased need for a national language to provide for a standard for formal purposes and to also act as a *lingua franca* across the many dialects (Chen, 1999). As a consequence of practical necessity, the establishment and promotion of Modern Spoken Chinese – Mandarin – emerged. The term 'Mandarin' is thought to be the 'language of the officials' of the Yuan (1260-1368 AD), Ming (1368-1644 AD) and Qing (1644-1912 AD) dynasties, the so-called 'Mandarins' (Dong, 2010, p. 267) and today, Mandarin (also known more commonly as *Putonghua*, which translates to 'common language', in China) is the official language of Mainland China.

Initially, there were two varieties of Mandarin (i.e. the Nanjing-based and the Beijing-based forms). The Nanjing-based pronunciation was perceived to be the more 'elegant' version and it was the standard form of Mandarin until at least the late eighteenth century (Chen, 1999; Coblin, 2000) before the Beijing Mandarin "prevailed in a gradual but dramatic phonological shift" (Dong, 2010, p. 267) and became standardised as "the national model for pronunciation (and to a less extent, for literacy), a form of semiotic capital, associated with linguistic 'correctness', and socially recognized as indexical of speaker attributes such as social status and advanced education backgrounds" (p. 265). This resulting enregisterment of a regional dialect that was once perceived to be alien and stigmatised to that of an "emblem of social status" (p. 266) – similar to that of the Received Pronunciation of Britain – is largely attributed to China's engineering effort that transformed its linguistic landscape over the past six decades (Zhou & Sun, 2004).

This strategic move by the Chinese government involved not only in ascertaining a standard unifying language across the different provinces but it also involved a reform in the written script. The Chinese writing system is one of the oldest writing systems in the world and it is characterised as "logographic, and its graphemes, i.e. characters, as morpho-syllabic (Chen, 1999, p. 132). Because of how the character script was purported to be a handicap to the development of the country, the switch from a logographic writing system to that of a phonographic system was suggested. However, this decision was met with arguments and eventually discarded for two reasons: a) that the Chinese logographic writing system might not necessarily be a linguistic disadvantage in interactions outside of China and b) citing the economic development of Taiwan and the high literacy rate of Japan where the traditional script is used, it was eventually concluded that this proposed switch "is nothing more than another manifestation of a radical revolutionary attitude towards traditional Chinese values and heritage, which, although well intended, does not offer any real solution to the problems confronting the nation" (Chen, 1999, p. 194).

Eventually, a phonetic writing system was thought to be "appropriate only for low-culture functions" (as cited in Chen, 1999, p. 151) and the focus was thus shifted to the simplification of the script (see Image 4-3 for some examples of how the Chinese script has been simplified).

Image 4-3: Some examples of the Traditional Chinese script (in black) and how they have been changed into the Simplified Chinese script (in red). Source: http://pinpinchinese.com/blog/simplified-vs-traditional-chinese-characters/

To pursue this promulgation of the Simplified Chinese script, an official policy was released in 1956. This reform was conducted in stages: the First Scheme in 1956 and the Second Scheme in 1977 (this was eventually repealed in 1986, see Chen, 1999, for a discussion). The motivation behind these implementations were to "alleviate some of the difficulty associated with use of the traditional script" (Chen, 1999, p. 156) and today the simplified form has been adopted as the nation's standard (for a comprehensive discussion on modern Chinese, see Chen, 1999). This simplification of the Chinese script was not strictly confined to Mainland China. For instance, in 1976, Singapore adopted the simplified Chinese script as the standard form and although it was briefly adopted in Taiwan, a directive that forbade the use of simplified characters counteracting the "vandalism of the Communists on the mainland in destroying the traditional script through the promotion of simplified characters" (Fang, 1969, Zhang 1974, as cited in Chen, 1999, p. 163) was ultimately issued. In Hong Kong, the traditional script maintains as the written standard although there is a burgeoning presence of the simplified script in recent years.

Overall, the modern Mandarin language has come a long way since its implementation decades ago. However, one must also note that despite China's effort to encourage its citizens to use the Mandarin language, it has yet to permeate throughout the whole of China. It was recently reported that thirty percent of China's population remain unable to speak Mandarin (BBC, 2013; Luo, 2014; Roberts, 2014). While this might seem like a large percentage, relatively speaking, what this also means is that in the 63 years since Mandarin was made official in 1956, 800 million citizens have managed to acquire and use the language. This is a remarkable result and this astounding figure can be attributed to the Chinese government's effort to standardise and unify the nation's standard. To date, this continuing promotion of the language can be seen in the posters and signs that advocate the use of Mandarin (see Images 4-4 and 4-5).

Image 4-4 A Beijing woman looks at a poster promoting the use of Mandarin and Chinese characters that reads, "The country promotes Putonghua (Mandarin) and the standardization of Chinese characters." (Photo credit: Reuters)

Image 4-5 A student in a Chinese classroom gesturing at the board which reads, "Please speak Putonghua (Mandarin). Please write in the standardised form." (Photo credit: Baidu)

Today, the Beijing-based pronunciation and the simplified Chinese script plus pinyin is the national standard and this is the combination that is currently taught not only in schools in China but also in language centres worldwide (for a detailed read, see Chen, 1999). Notwithstanding the 400 million Chinese who have yet to adopt the national standard, it has been observed that "Chinese [Mandarin] will remain the largest language in terms of native speakers in the world for the foreseeable future. Its transnational use will grow"(Graddol, 2006, p. 61).

b) The global interest in the learning of the Mandarin language

Research on public discourse related to Chinese as a global language follows in the footsteps of decades of earlier such research relating to the English language. In particular, from work drawing on language ideologies and the commodification of languages that are perceived to have economic growth and a symbolic international cachet. Discourse surrounding the learning of Mandarin Chinese, in particular (whether in media portrayals of the benefits of learning the language or in learners' own accounts) often also focuses on opportunities associated with the "rise of China", especially, in the world of business (e.g. Duff et al., 2015; Ushioda, 2017). In their study where they studied the agentic purpose of Western learners of the Mandarin language, Duff and Doherty (2015) found that social and socioeconomic (e.g. business acumen, intellectual power, future success) factors are closely indexed to one's proficiency in the Mandarin language. At the same time, in their analysis of circulating discourse, ideologies and tropes on Mandarin as a global language, Duff et al. (2015) pointed out:

> When relatively few Anglophones can boast proficiency in it, Chinese [Mandarin] becomes a marker of exceptionalism – one that is also marketed in that manner by governments in Greater China, by language schools, public schools, and universities. In the United States, Chinese is also positioned as a "critical language" in terms of national security policies and interests – a different, more sinister kind of exceptionalism. (p. 145)

In an article by the Washington Post (Noack & Gamio, 2015), it was reported that Mandarin is spoken in 33 countries worldwide (see Figure 4-2) and that there are

30 million Chinese language learners in the world (see Figure 4-3). At the same time, in a separate news article (Ferdman, 2015), it was pointed out that the number of American institutions teaching Chinese has seen an increase of 110%. Similarly, in the United Kingdom, it was found that Chinese language learning is a major growth area (Zhu & Li, 2014). These findings from the two main English-speaking countries in the world thus reflect the West's recognition of China's importance as a global economic and political power.

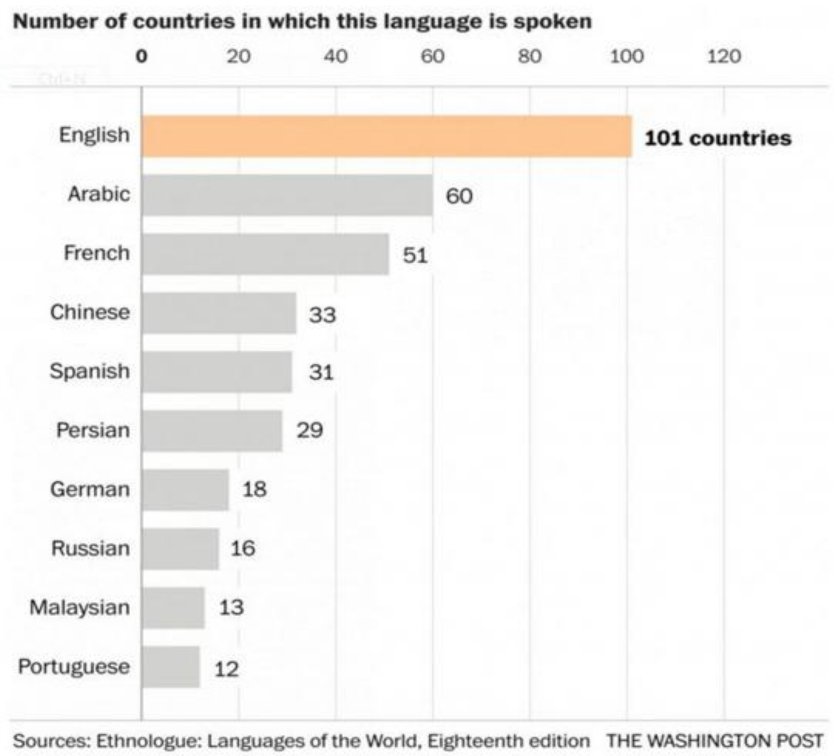

Figure 4-2: The number of countries in which the language is spoken (Source: The Washington Post)

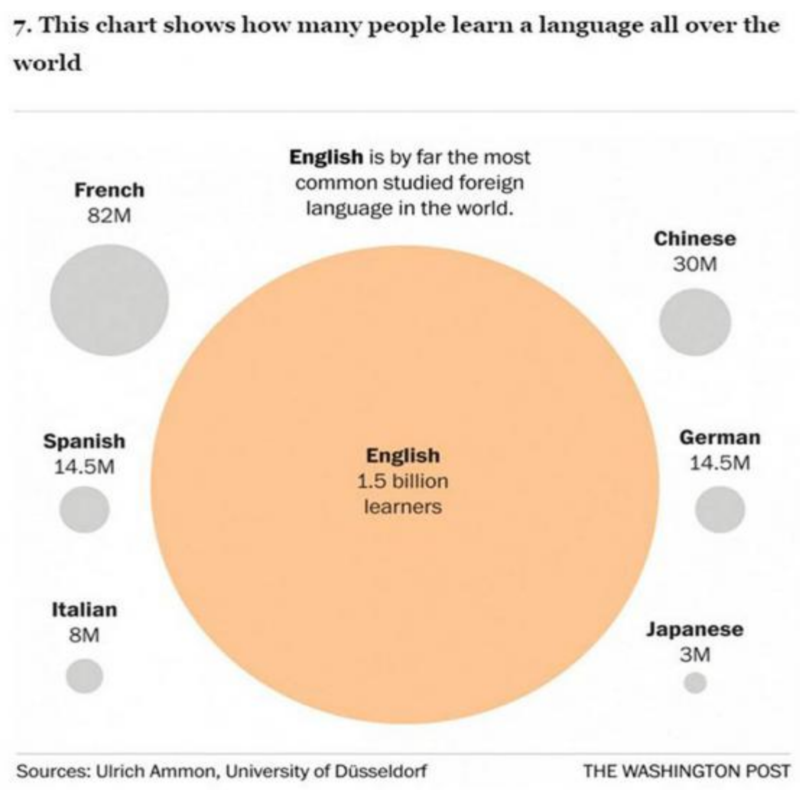

Figure 4-3: The number of people worldwide who are learning the language (Source: The Washington Post)

This rise of the Mandarin language is not just a phenomenon that is happening in the West; it is also evident in the East where "in many Asian countries, there is a sense of urgency about the need to acquire Mandarin because of the rapidly growing economic importance of China, South Korea, for example now trades more with China than with the USA" (Graddol, 2006, p. 63). In his study where he investigated the reasons as to why international students would choose to major in English at Chinese universities, Doyle (2017) concluded that "English proficiency alone appears to be losing its currency in East Asia" (p. 71). Notably, what was interesting about his findings was that "English *plus* Mandarin" (p. 67) was the decisive factor that influenced the decision of the international students he interviewed. This increased interest in Mandarin can also be seen in countries such as South Korea (Kang, 2017) where the prevalent "English Fever" (Park, 2009) has subsided due to the higher status and worldwide prestige of China and the anticipation of Mandarin becoming the key language of the future.

Apart from this global reception of the Mandarin language, "China's huge investment in English, together with its promotion of Mandarin as a foreign language, must be seen in this global context (Graddol, 2006, p. 33). As mentioned earlier, the active promotion of Mandarin is a key focus of the Chinese government. However, this is not confined to China alone. The Chinese government actively promotes the learning of Chinese as a foreign or second language and its efforts are reflected in how, since 2004, "nearly 400 Confucius Institutes (CIs) and over 300 Confucius Classrooms (CCs) have been established in almost 100 different countries and regions" (Zhu & Li, 2014, p. 327). This increased interest in Mandarin was previously predicted (Graddol, 1997) and indeed, today, Mandarin is recognised as one of the major languages for communication and trading purposes.

4.4 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to make the case for unconscious motivation research in the L2 field. It introduced Hong Kong as the research location and offered the theoretical rationale of this thesis by way of a discussion on multilingualism and the learning of languages other than English, the globalisation of English, and the emergence of Mandarin as a global language. Next in *Chapter Five*, the research objectives of this thesis, methodology and results from the *qualitative pilot study* and research methodology of the *Main Study* will be provided.

Chapter 5: Methodology

5.1 Introduction

In this section, I first present the research objectives. Following which, the qualitative pilot and its findings are presented in Section 5.2. Finally, the design of the *Main Study* of this thesis is offered in Section 5.3.

5.1.1 Research objectives

The main research objective of this thesis concerns providing empirical support for the inclusion of unconscious motivation in the L2 field. As pointed out by Boo et al., (2015):

> Our field is ready to expand into exploring these areas because it seems evident that language globalisation has created a linguistic landscape that is characterised by both powerful positive trends and strong negative undercurrents (e.g. the love-hate relationship with English observed in some parts of the world). (p. 156)

In addition to this objective, this thesis also attempts to explore the topics that were mentioned in Section 4.3.2: multilingualism and the motivation to learn languages other than English (LOTEs), the decline of global English and the rise of Mandarin. This point was highlighted by Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) where they wrote:

> While literally hundreds of studies have been conducted over the past decade to examine what motivates someone to learn an additional language, it has been by and large ignored how the motivational set-up might change when a person studies more than one language at a time. (p. 457)

In light of the above considerations, this thesis attempts to better understand the construct of Hong Kong's language learners' attitudes towards English and Mandarin. Specifically, the focus will be on investigating the explicit and implicit attitudes towards the two languages, shaped by Hong Kong's unique triglossic context.

5.1.2 The present research

The *Main Study* seeks to understand the implicit and explicit motivational set-up of the Hong Kong participants' L2 disposition, Specifically, it attempts to learn if there is congruence and/or incongruence in the participants' attitudes towards the English and the Mandarin languages.

Prior to the *main study*, two pilot studies were also conducted: a relatively small-scale *qualitative study* whose goal was to learn if Hong Kong was a suitable location for implicit motivation research and a *quantitative pilot* to ensure validity of the motivational and attitudinal scales used in the *Main Study*.

In the introduction to Hong Kong (see *Chapter Four*) presented earlier, several factors that contributed to the city's unique triglossic environment were already identified and together, they provided theoretical justifications for Hong Kong as a research location. However, as a Hong Kong non-native, my understanding of the city was limited to only the literature reviewed and while I had intuited Hong Kong as a viable location for my thesis, I needed to better understand the situation first-hand. This was especially important to me a researcher and also because of how I needed to be careful with my limited resources as a self-funded PhD student. Thus, on a personal level, this qualitative pilot also serves to map the Hong Kong language situation for my better understanding. Specific to the qualitative pilot, it sought to learn a) if there are any underlying language learning undercurrents in Hong Kong and, b) if so, would it be possible to identify the contributing factors to those undercurrents? The findings will be reported in *Section 5.3* of this chapter.

With regards to the *Main Study*, there are two reasons for the interest in these two languages. The first reason is due to the inverse worldwide status of Global English and Mandarin. Secondly, and perhaps more importantly, despite the growing global interest in the learning of the Mandarin language, this global trend has not necessarily been reflected in Hong Kong. This ‘abnormality’ has been observed by Graddol (2006) where he noted how “in several countries, the first wave of Mandarin learners comes from local ethnic Chinese communities, whose heritage language is often one of the other Chinese languages, such as Cantonese.” (p. 63). However, in a later article, he clarified that this characteristic is not necessarily a point that is widely agreed upon in Hong Kong and explained how the increased influence of Mandarin is causing anxiety amongst students who “cannot see how English could diminish in local importance (…) saw a need for Hong Kong to improve its competence in English further to maintain its cultural and linguistic distinctiveness, and thus *use English to protect the future of Cantonese*. [emphasis added]” (Graddol, 2010, p. 4). Consolidating these points, this study thus seeks to empirically understand the motivational psyche of Hong Kong language learners by way of their conscious and unconscious attitudes towards the two target languages.

It is made up of two elements: an explicit questionnaire and an implicit component. The explicit scores were measured using attitudinal and motivation scales and the implicit attitudes were obtained by way of the *Implicit Association Test*. Earlier in *Chapter Two*, the methodological benefits of “innovative” data collection methods was also highlighted and consequently, a sub-goal of this study is to demonstrate the research viability of the *Implicit Association Test*. The main study attempts to address the following questions:

Research Question 1: Is there congruence or incongruence in the participants’ attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages. If there is an incongruence, what is the nature of it?

Research Question 2: How do the congruent and incongruent groups differ in terms of their motivational disposition?

Research Question 3: What are the implications of implicit attitudes on language learning?

5.2 Qualitative Pilot Study

Study design

Previously, in *Chapter Four*, a brief overview of Hong Kong's unique triglossic environment was offered and its possibility as a fertile location for conscious and unconscious motivation research was proposed. This qualitative pilot attempts to verify this potential.

In order to achieve this objective, this qualitative pilot seeks to obtain insights into the thoughts of Hong Kong people towards the three languages – Cantonese, English and Mandarin – by means of semi-structured interviews. This choice was motivated by the fact that "although there is a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136). Through this method, the qualitative pilot seeks to first understand the participants' position towards the three languages. Following this, it tries to unpack the underlying issues (if any) involved.

Participants

12 participants (2 males and 10 females) – made up of three groups: a) undergraduates pursuing English/Chinese majors, b) postgraduates pursuing English/Chinese majors and c) early-career university graduates – participated in this qualitative study. They were all native Hong Kong citizens belonging to the age group of 21-25 years old.

The participants were approached via two methods: first, via an initial outreach to the researcher's personal contacts at several Hong Kong universities. Then a snowball approach (Atkinson & Flint, 2001) was used to expand on this first group of participants.

Prior to arriving in Hong Kong, the intention was to collect data from different groups of participants. Specifically, from different university majors such as that of Mathematics and Physical Education where it is assumed that the roles of English and Mandarin are not as 'critical'. Admittedly, this final decision to collect data from such a specific sample is not without limitations (to be discussed later in *Chapter Seven*). However, when faced with the realities of data collection (e.g. the lack of a direct access to potential participants and limited resources as a self-funded PhD student), adjustments and concessions had to be made to the earlier ambitions. Ultimately, the final decision to collect data from this group of participants was made based on the following rationales:

- This group of participants would have been most affected by and aware of the changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policies (see *Chapter Five* for a discussion on this topic).
- Having spent a large part of their lives attaining proficiency in these languages, they are more aware of the role of these languages in their lives and the underlying issues attached to them. Therefore, the participants would be more cognizant and able to articulate their thoughts and feelings better.
- As English and Chinese majors, these languages are still very much present, active, and relevant in their everyday lives.
- This particular group of participants will eventually graduate and be certified as English and Chinese teachers. Thus, it will be interesting to learn of their thoughts and motivation towards these two languages.

Table 5-1 shows a detailed breakdown of the participants. To protect the anonymity of the participants, pseudonyms are used.

Table 5-1: Detailed breakdown of participants

Session	Participant(s)	Pseudonym	Gender	Occupation	Language in which the interview was conducted	Duration of first interview	Duration of follow-up interview
A	1	Angel	F	Post-graduate, English major	English	53 mins	1 hr 46 mins
B	2	Bruce	M	Recent graduate, Politics major	English	37 mins	1 hr 38 mins
C	3	Cassie	F	Post-graduate, Chinese major	Mandarin	1 hr 27 mins	1 hr 11 mins
D	4	Daisy	F	Teacher-training, English major	English	54 mins	-
E	5 and 6	Edward and Fion	M, F	Undergraduate, English major	English	1 hr 31 mins	-
F	7	Gracie	F	Post-graduate, English major	English	54 mins	-
G	8, 9, and 10	Hazel, Isla, and Jade	F, F, F	Teacher-training, English major	English	58 mins	-
H	11	Katie	F	Undergraduate, Chinese major	Mandarin	1 hr 22 mins	-
I	12	Lina	F	Recent graduate, Chinese major	Mandarin	1 hr 24 mins	-
				TOTAL DURATION:		**10 hrs 0mins**	**3hrs 55 mins**

Instruments

Qualitative data was collected via semi-structured interviews; pre-prepared questions such as "*Do you like/dislike these three languages (i.e. Cantonese, English, and Mandarin), why*?" and "*Consider these three languages and discuss what they mean to you in terms of their roles and importance in your daily life*" provided a structure to the interviews and functioned successfully as a lead-in into the conversations (see Appendix C for sample questions).

Whenever there were interesting topics that emerged from the participants' responses, departures naturally developed and were allowed to proceed and shape the direction of the discussion.

Procedures

The interviews were conducted by means of two methods: via Skype (Participants 1, 2 and 3) and in-person in Hong Kong (Participants 1-12). Prior to the meetings, the above-mentioned questions were emailed to the participants. This was done for two reasons: to activate their schema and as a way to facilitate the interview sessions. Participants at this point were reminded that their responses were for research purposes and that they can choose to opt out of the study at any time. Because it was important to establish a quick rapport with the participants, friendly emails and personal exchanges were made during the setting of the interview dates and times.

During the interviews, sensitivity to the participants was observed and careful phrasing of certain terms were made. Specifically, in the terminology used when referring to Mandarin. To elaborate, there are several ways to refer to the Mandarin language. To name a few, zhōng wén (中文; which translates to 'Chinese text' which is used interchangeably for both written and spoken versions.), guó yǔ (国语; which translates to 'national language'), pǔtōnghuà (普通话; which translates to 'common language') and hua yǔ (华语; which translates to 'Chinese language' and is more commonly in Singapore and Malaysia). This consideration was made with regards to the political load associated with the terms (for example, a participant who has negative feelings towards China might not be comfortable with the use of the term 'national language'). During the interviews, I would follow the lead of the participants and use their preferred term. This observation was not necessary when the interviews were conducted in English.

Due to the political load associated with the languages, the discussion of politically-charged issues (e.g. feelings towards China) were unavoidable and at times, the participants would hesitate to continue. On those occasions, participants would be reminded that their participation was entirely voluntary and that the data was to be used anonymously only for research purposes. They were also assured they could choose to retract their data at any point after their participation.

Because of the politically-charged topic, there was one main concern: that the participants would be reticent and provide only superficial comments about their attitudes towards the languages. This was however not the case. While initially apprehensive to discuss the charged issues, once rapport with the participants was established, the interviews were well-received by the participants as they saw it as an opportunity to express their heartfelt opinions about the languages. Overall, the participants were highly appreciative of my sincere curiosity about their feelings towards the languages and the Hong Kong language situation. This enthusiasm was reflected in the duration of each session: although 30 minutes were initially scheduled for each meeting, the final interviews extended beyond that and averaged 70 minutes.

Participants were given the choice to reply in their language of preference (Cantonese, English or Mandarin). Apart from the sessions held with the Chinese majors who chose to speak in Mandarin, the other interviews were conducted in English. On the occasions where Cantonese was used (e.g. the use of colloquial or proverbial sayings to illustrate a point), the meanings were cross-checked with native speakers of Cantonese.

Before arriving in Hong Kong, an initial outreach to my personal contacts was made and initial interviews were conducted with Participants 1, 2 and 3 via Skype. Because of the exploratory nature of this pilot, an initial analysis was quickly carried out prior to my departure for Hong Kong. As a result of the rich and important data that emerged from the first round of interviews with three of the participants (Participants 1, 2 and 3), follow-up in-person sessions were arranged. These additional sessions lasted an average of 80 minutes (see Table 5-1). Being more focused than the Skype sessions, the meetings allowed for further elaboration and clarification. By meeting with the participants, I was able to convey my sincere interest in what they have to share and after the follow-up meetings, the participants offered to share my study with several of their contacts. As a result from this established rapport, my participant pool snowballed and all subsequent sessions were carried out face-to-face on university grounds.

While the majority of the sessions were conducted on a one-on-one basis, two meetings were carried out with two or more participants at the same time (Sessions E and G). This was conducted for two reasons: a) to accede to the requests of the participants who mentioned that they felt "shy" and to allow for them to feel more at ease and b) scheduling reasons as I was due to depart from Hong Kong that same day.

Data Analysis

The interviews were digitally recorded and were then manually transcribed and translated by the researcher, who is fluent in both English and Mandarin and has basic conversational ability in Cantonese.

The interviews were transcribed verbatim. In the event that Mandarin or Cantonese were used, the interviews were first transcribed in the respective language before they were translated into English. The final data set was made up of approximately 14 hours of interview data. A thematic approach was employed in the analysis of this data set and from the responses, key themes were identified and categorised.

Ethical considerations

In accordance with the regulations stipulated by the University of Nottingham, ethical approval was applied for and granted before the commencement of the data collection by the ethics committee at the School of English, University of Nottingham.

Prior to the study, the participants were presented with a project information sheet that detailed the research aims (see Appendix B). It was emphasised that participation in the study was entirely voluntary and that the data was to be used anonymously only for research purposes. Participants were also reminded that they could choose to retract their data at any point after their participation. Before the commencement of the study, participants were asked to review and sign an informed consent form to acknowledge a) their understanding of and b) willing involvement in the study.

5.3 Findings from the pilot

It was noted early on in the analysis that there was a clear consensus in the participants' attitudes towards the three languages: a) Cantonese was unanimously seen as an integral part of the Hong Kong identity, b) English was looked upon as a superior language and, in comparison, c) attitudes towards Mandarin were found to be more ambiguous. Thus, this section will be made up of two parts: a) an overview of the participants' attitudes towards the three languages and b) a closer look at the complicated relationship with Mandarin that was expressed by the participants. The use of interview excerpts from the participants' will be used to support the findings of this study. At the same time, where applicable, literature that was discussed earlier in *Chapter Four* will be used to substantiate the claims made.

5.3.1 Overview of the participants' attitudes towards the three languages

In this section, I first focus on what Cantonese means to the participants before taking a closer look at their attitudes towards English and Mandarin . The interview data show that the Cantonese language is more than a mode of communication for the Hong Kong people. Specifically, from the dataset, there are two roles identified: a) Cantonese functions as an identity marker and b) Cantonese affords the participants with a comfortable ingroup mentality. This is very clearly expressed by Grace:

> For me, Cantonese is like an identity. Like where I'm from (…) with Cantonese I feel like I'm from Hong Kong and I think Cantonese is like an identity tag. Like who I am. Like who I really am in ethnicity.

Apart from its role as an identity marker, Cantonese was found to also provide the participants with a shared group status; affording them with a certain degree of ingroup comfort:

> Cantonese grants us the identity so if we have that identity together as a group it's enough (…) we just do good within our comfort zone like we know Cantonese and that's enough. (Bruce)

Finding 1: Cantonese is synonymous with the Hong Kong identity and provides the participants with a comfortable ingroup status

These findings highlight the importance of Cantonese in Hong Kong and demonstrate how despite its humble origins from the Guangdong province in Mainland China (where it is seen there as a provincial vernacular), Cantonese has seen its status elevated in Hong Kong to that of the city's *lingua* franca; befitting its status as a 'Cantonese city' (Harrison & So, 1997).

Comparatively, the world's *lingua franca* – English – is however not commonly used in Hong Kong. Due to the lack of an advantageous language-learning environment, English was found by Li (2017) to behave as an "untypical second or foreign language" (p. 75) in which its use is one that is highly marked:

> English is rarely used by (Chinese) Hongkongers for intraethnic communication among themselves. Indeed, in the absence of non-Cantonese speakers, the choice of English as the medium of communication is widely perceived as highly marked, probably out of concern for the co-speakers' ethnolinguistic identity. One consequence of such a concern is that whoever initiates or persists in maintaining an English-only conversation with no non-Cantonese-speakers around is *expected to come up with some justification for that unusual language choice* [emphasis added]. (p. 74)

The above-mentioned findings are in line with the results from an earlier large-scale multifaceted investigation by Evans (2010) that looked into the role of the languages in the civil service and government-related organisations, as well as in public and private companies. It was found that English remained "the default medium of *written* [emphasis added] professional communication in both the public and private sectors, while Cantonese is the unmarked medium of intra-ethnic *spoken* [emphasis added] communication" (p. 347). It was revealed by the study that some reasons for the "default" role of English concerned its speed, its association with professionalism, its formality and its prestige.

Notwithstanding the marked use of English, it is still recognised as the passport to the globalised world and its lucrative networks and systems. The use of English plays an important economic role in Hong Kong. Indeed, my participants seem to be well aware of this global significance and as shown by the following comment by Bruce, a good command of English was found to be associated with a sense of superiority:

> You speak good English and [that] gives you a sense of pride. So somehow English is not just as a tool to communicate but also you somehow build up a sense of personality that you think that oh maybe you are a little bit superior.

He further elaborated that this recognition in the prestige and power of English could be realised as early as one's formative years and that the 'superiority' of a person could be determined easily from how one is named as it provides an indication of the individual's birthplace which functions as a status identifier:

> If you read the official name you can tell whether he was born in Hong Kong or not. If you have your English name in front then you sound superior because you're usually born in like Australia, US, or Canada.

Drawing on her personal experience, this distinctive professional and status-driven relationship with English was also mentioned by Cassie:

> English still holds a higher advantage. For instance, if you want to work in a big company, or big enterprise, it is necessary to know English whereas it isn't the same for Mandarin.

Apart from the advantages related to professional opportunities, the participants also mentioned how the use of English provides them with a social-related edge. One participant recalled how "*once when I was in China the people were pushing me. I told them to stop but they didn't. Then I said it in English and they stopped. It worked.*" (Edward). Similarly, another recounted an incident where he witnessed two people having an argument in English:

> I think they just argue for like half a minute then they switched to Cantonese because I think they can't sustain in English. [But] if you say in English first, you have like force, the truth is on my side (…) that's why I think they start

with English (…) I think this is not uncommon. When you argue on the streets and talking in English then you sound superior. (Bruce)

Finding 2: English is perceived to be a superior language in both professional and social settings

In contrast to this preferential attitude for English, an avoidance of Mandarin was highlighted. This position was mentioned by a participant where he said, "*for Mandarin, I just avoid as best as I can*" (Bruce). Indeed, the interviews show that there is an overall avoidance that is brought about by a lack of relevance for Mandarin in the Hong Kong context:

> We don't use Mandarin on a day-to-day basis so it's usually when you meet a tourist and they need help or if you feel like helping then ok you speak in Mandarin. (Alice)

Another participant, Grace, further shared that "*I guess if I work in retail maybe it's a different story but no definitely I do not use Mandarin that often*". Her comment implies that there is a polarisation of views and this point was also pointed out by Bruce. He elaborated that this is a "conflict" between the "general public" and the "business minded people" groups:

> I think the reception of Mandarin is kind of polarised (…) if you are in the business field you some kind of forced to accept Mandarin so that if you face Mandarin you won't be irritated or bothered because it means money. But for the general public I guess you face a conflict like in every part of your life (…) you can't escape from this kind of conflict so that's why it's like a polarised situation of the reception of Mandarin in Hong Kong. (Bruce)

Finding 3: Mandarin is considered to be irrelevant to the participants' everyday lives

At this juncture in the analysis, three clear roles of the languages have emerged: a) Cantonese is analogous with the Hong Kong identity, b) English is perceived to be a superior language and c) there is a lack of relevance for Mandarin. From this overview, it appears that English holds an edge over Mandarin in Hong Kong and that, despite its marked use, it appears that English does not require any special justification due to the "large-scale and multifaceted global backing that Global English enjoys" (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 463). In this case, it appears that Mandarin is unable to defeat this "metaphorical Goliath" (p. 463). Indeed, when asked to elaborate on this matter, one participant succinctly said, "*Mandarin, it is a little complicated*" (Bruce). To understand the participants' relationship with Mandarin better, the next section attempts to unpack this complication.

5.3.2 The "complicated" relationship with Mandarin

During the analysis that explored this "complicated" attitude towards Mandarin, it was found that *Fear of Assimilation* is a key factor in the participants' less than positive attitudes towards Mandarin. In order to interpret the data, the analysis draws on Clément's *Social Context model* (1980) where he proposed that there are two antagonistic factors involved in motivation: *integrativeness* which results in a positive attraction to the second language and culture and *fear of assimilation* which will result in negative attitudes towards the second language and culture. A key mediating factor lies in the perceived level of *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* (see *Chapter Three* for a recap) between the first and second language groups and in the present dataset, it was found that this was "*a dilemma in Cantonese and Mandarin*" (Alice). This point was elaborated by Grace, who said:

> I think Hong Kong-ese are majorly feared that they are going to lose their identity as Hong Kong-ese and become part of China and that's one of the reasons why they are rejecting Mandarin so much. It's because they do not want to be identified as one. Because they are different (…) *Language will be the first victim to losing our identity* [emphasis added]

From this excerpt, a clear image of the participants' resistance towards Mandarin was drawn. Specifically, the participants are concerned that Mandarin will erode and eliminate their Hong Kong identity and Cantonese. Consequently, there is an expressed need for disassociation with China and Mandarin.

Finding 4: Underlying the participants' lukewarm attitudes towards Mandarin is a Fear of Assimilation

As mentioned earlier in *Chapter Three*, the concept of *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* is made up of three factors: *status*, *demography* and *institutional support and control*. In the following section, I will demonstrate through the lens of these factors the perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* that the participants have towards the Chinese population. It will be shown that a higher perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group and Mandarin translates to a higher perceived threat to the Hong Kong identity and Cantonese language.

A point to note at this point is that even though this section is divided into three parts, the factors are not independent of one another, but rather, they interrelate and influence each other. For instance, it was found that the perceived increase in population (*demography*) results in a direct contribution to the perceived *status* of the Mandarin language.

a) Status

As earlier mentioned in Section 4.2.2, notwithstanding China's growing global status, Hong Kong has had a turbulent and volatile relationship with Mainland China ever since its reunification with China in 1997. Picking up on some of the societal issues between Hong Kong and China, participants were asked to share their opinions regarding this turbulent relationship and its effect on their attitudes towards the Mainland and their Chinese counterparts. What emerged from the discussions was a clear less-than-favourable opinion about the outgroup. That is, while the participants recognise China's growing global position, they are not overtly impressed as they feel that Hong Kong people are still more civilised and therefore "better" than the Mainland Chinese. Bruce – who was particularly vocal about this matter – explained:

> Although Mainland has grown for their economy for their size but you know in the past 30 years we think that we are superior than them and then now they

think that they are superior but we didn't lose our confidence because we always think that in the civilisation level we are far more superior than them that's why for us we still are more civilised, we are more educated and we have like freedom (…) and we also have a just system or something so these things you still have a huge gap between us and Mainland so that's why even though they are economically superior we just don't envy too much (…) we just are not afraid of the sheer size of Mainland in terms of its economic scale

While this participant was explicitly vocal about his feelings, he was not the only one to feel that way. The data showed that this was a shared opinion amongst the other participants. In psychology it has been found that in the comprehension and encoding of ambiguous social behaviour, human beings tend to have a tendency to rely on knowledge structures that are founded on stereotypes and trait constructs (e.g. Bargh, 2006). In this case, the participants' perceptions of the Mainland Chinese is one that is negative. When asked if they could further elaborate on how Hong Kong people deem the Mainland Chinese to be "uncivilised", Bruce explained:

> We have the impression of Mainlanders to be associated in these three groups: welfare exploiting new immigrants, the very rich Mainlanders that look down to us, and those uncivilised Mainlanders (…) It is like reflex. We will have that [negative] feelings to them. (Bruce)

Corroborating this point, Cassie mentioned:

> I just don't want to be seen as a group. Although we are considered to be part of China, I feel that in terms of behaviour and some other aspects we are not the same. If I really have to say I'm from China, I'd say "yes" but if I have a choice I'll choose to say I'm from Hong Kong. (Cassie)

Emerging from these statements was a clear 'we' versus 'them' stance where the participants expressed a disassociation with Mainland China. This particular behavioural pattern reflects contact avoidance, and based on research conducted on *intergroup contact theory*, it has been established that intergroup anxiety is the chief underlying cause of such avoidance (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006).

Finding 5: With regards to status, the participants perceived the Hong Kong group to be more civilised and thus to hold a higher status than the Mainland Chinese group. There is an expressed want to be disassociated with Mainland China.

b) Demography

The participants were however concerned about the increasing Mainland Chinese population in Hong Kong. The cause for this anxiety lies in how the participants think this will lead to the erosion of the Cantonese language. As succinctly summarised by Cassie, this demographic increase heightens the participants' fear that Cantonese will be assimilated by Mandarin:

> If the numbers [population of the Mainland Chinese] aren't too big, we will find it more acceptable. After all, with their presence, you can learn another language. However, if they are the majority we won't be able to retain our language and that isn't a good thing (…) I think it [the population numbers] is increasing. (Cassie)

However, in a population by-census that was conducted by the "Census and Statistics Department of Hong Kong SAR" in 2016, it was found that there has been a decrease in the number of Mainland Chinese that are residing in Hong Kong for less than seven years (Census and Statistics Department, 2018). The figures report a negative growth from 217,103 in 2006 to 165,956 in 2016 and these numbers show that the fear felt by the participants is one that is unsubstantiated. Notwithstanding these figures, this perceived increase in the Chinese population is an important point to note. This is because emerging from this belief is a sense of unfairness in how the Chinese and Hong Kong citizens should interact. That is, the participants feel that there is a transfer of responsibility to the Hong Kong citizens to speak Mandarin:

> Also because the new immigrants as I have observed they have enough numbers to form a community themselves like in the same school or maybe in the same class (…) Maybe they have a few or like 10- students and their mother tongue is Mandarin but they are staying in Hong Kong they just form

their community. They are not forced to learn Cantonese because the 10 friends can sustain themselves. So if they have to communicate with the Hong Kong students, you know the Hong Kong students are forced to speak to them in Mandarin because it's their mother tongue and their barely know Cantonese and because our education you have some kind of proficiency in Mandarin so the responsibility turns to the Hong Kong students themselves so in such environment you can see a growing status of Mandarin. (Bruce)

This responsibility to speak Mandarin instead of Cantonese because "*we are expected to because we learnt Mandarin*" (Lina) evokes a resulting sense of indignation from the Hong Kong citizens because they feel "disrespected" in their own home. The interview excerpts from Grace and Alice below provide further explanation regarding this matter:

I think it is their responsibility [to learn the Cantonese language] because it is someone else's home and you can bring your culture to someone's home but you can't force someone to adopt your culture (…) It is hard but it isn't righteous to not [learn Cantonese] (…) The Mainland Chinese refuse. They have no motivation to learn Cantonese and traditional Chinese writing. That is making us feel disrespected (…) You're the one who come here so you should be the one who learn and it is very unfair to the rest of the students who do not speak Mandarin and we do not have the responsibility to be good in Mandarin. (Grace)

If you come to Hong Kong long enough, you will speak Cantonese. Not in a very good way but I think they should try (…) It also depends on how accepting you are to your new culture (…) That's how you respect a culture. (Alice)

Finding 6: The perceived increased population of the Mainland Chinese is thought to be a threat to the Cantonese language. This is because the growing Chinese population is "self-sustaining" with Mandarin and has no need to speak the Cantonese language. In contrast, because the Hong Kong people have a certain degree of proficiency in Mandarin, they are expected to speak

Mandarin during their interlocutions with the Mainland Chinese. Consequently, this responsibility on the Hong Kong citizens makes them feel disrespected.

c) Institutional support and control

Exacerbating this unfair "responsibility" is the perceived *institutional support and control* in favour of Mandarin. With regards to this third factor, there are two main concerns highlighted by the participants: the i) Guangzhou incident and ii) the changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policy.

i) The Guangzhou incident:

As mentioned earlier, in the lead up to the 2010 Asian Games, protests were held in Guangzhou, China. This was caused by the proposed replacement of Cantonese with Mandarin on the main television programmes. In a show of solidarity (and out of fear that the same will happen in Hong Kong), similar demonstrations were held in Hong Kong (Branigan, 2010; Ramzy, 2010). During the interviews, this was a shared point brought up by the participants:

> In Guangzhou, they speak Cantonese as well but there was a period of time when the Chinese government tried to diminish Cantonese (…) and that stirred up some concerns in Hong Kong as well. People from Hong Kong are really against this because they want to protect Cantonese and that's what I want as well because to be fair I think Cantonese is a really good language. (Alice)

From how this was a common example brought up by the participants, it is apparent that this incident in Guangzhou holds a high level of significance for the Hong Kong people. As mentioned earlier in *Chapter Four*, Cantonese is seen to be synonymous with the Hong Kong identity and thus, the fear that an eradication of Cantonese in Hong Kong is one that is not all that far-fetched. Beyond the loss of the language, Grace mentioned that this will also result in a cultural loss:

> Personally, I think if you wipe out a language, you will be wiping out certain big parts of culture too. I feel that if they use Mandarin to replace Cantonese then a lot of culture will be lost in Hong Kong and also a lot of memories.

ii) Changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policy

Apart from the Guangzhou incident, the *Medium of Instruction* (see Section 4.2.3 for a recap) was also another issue that surfaced regularly in the dialogues and the changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policy is a fundamental concern by the participants as they see it as subversive move by the government to do away with Cantonese. The participants expressed their displeasure and they "*don't think they should change the Medium of Instruction policy. They are eroding Cantonese.*" (Diana)

> *Finding 7: The findings show that there is a perceived high level of Institutional Support for the Mandarin language. This perception of the participants is based on two reasons: a) the Guangzhou incident and b) the changes made to the Medium of Instruction policy.*

At this point in the discussion, perhaps, the participants' adamant rejection of Mandarin seems somewhat perplexing. After all, as earlier mentioned by Cassie – "*with their presence, you can learn another language*". Unfortunately, despite their similarities, Mandarin language learning in Hong Kong is not a simple matter. In his study where he studied the problems, dilemmas and stakeholders' views regarding the *Medium of Instruction* issue, Li (2017) pointed out that Mandarin language learning for Hong Kong people is not as straightforward a process as it seems:

> Despite the commonalities outlined above [for example, the origins of the scripts], for the majority of Hongkongers, the learning of Putonghua [Mandarin] somehow exhibits certain characteristics of the learning of a second language. Most of the learning difficulties are related to the rather different phonological systems between the two Chinese varieties, notably with regard to their systems of tones. (p. 76)

Admittedly, while a less than favourable opinion for Mandarin was common to the participants, there were some attempts at achieving a balance. At times, the participants acknowledged that "*the conflict that we are having is definitely more than just language*" (Grace) and that this negative attitude for the language is not so much because the participants hate the language, but that "*it's more of a resent towards the government*" (Alice). Elaborating on this "resentment" further, she continued:

> It's not mutually exclusive right? It doesn't mean that if you have Mandarin, you lose Cantonese. You can do both. A lot of Hong Kong-ese are multilingual. They will spend time and money to learn other languages like Japanese, French and other languages but why are we particularly resistant to the Mandarin language? I would say it's because of politics. I wouldn't say that we are afraid of losing Cantonese. I would rather say that people are particularly rejecting the whole Chinese politics (…) Mandarin is a symbol to many people that China is now ruling Hong Kong. They really do not want to accept this. (Alice)

Thus, the findings in this section have demonstrated that the relationship the participants have with Mandarin is one that is far from simple or straightforward. In fact, it is one that is highly emotional and tangled in politics. Indeed, as investigated previously by local Hong Kong linguists (Bolton, 2011), one main explanation for this conflict is that the use of Cantonese goes against the official language policy of China, and, in the Hong Kong context, "the status of Cantonese is much higher than is normally thought and cannot be simply brushed aside as the 'vernacular' (Sin & Roebuck, 1996, p. 252). In the next section, a summary of the findings and their implications will be conducted.

5.3.3 Discussion

The main goal of this *Qualitative Pilot* was to showcase Hong Kong as a potentially fertile ground for unconscious motivational undercurrents. The findings from this small-scale qualitative investigation do not claim to offer a comprehensive overview of the complex linguistic landscape of Hong Kong. Instead, the purpose of this pilot was to document that the Hong Kong language attitudinal terrain is one that is highly intricate, with multiple considerations pulling and pushing at the individuals. This objective has been met and this pilot has demonstrated Hong Kong's viability for unconscious motivation research.

There were two parts to the reporting of the findings. The first sought to provide an overview of the attitudes towards the three languages. It was found that the participants' attitudes for the three languages differed and a distinct meaning was attached to each of the languages. Cantonese was found to be synonymous with the Hong Kong identity, and the participants expressed a need to protect and preserve the language. While the use of English is considered to be marked in Hong Kong, it is nevertheless regarded as a superior language and associated with prestige and professionalism. Apart from this, there is also a social advantage attached to the use of English. Lastly, with regards to Mandarin, the participants expressed the language's lack of relevance (apart for "business people") and submitted that the feelings towards Mandarin are "complicated".

In an attempt to understand this "complication", the second part of the report took a closer look at the data and what emerged was a clear significance of *Fear of Assimilation*. Specifically, the participants fear that Cantonese will be eroded by the Mandarin language and that underscoring this fear is the ethnolinguistic tension between the Hong Kong citizens and the Mainland Chinese, culminating in a tension between the Cantonese language and the Mandarin language. The use of the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* framework (Giles et al., 1977) was employed to unpack this tension, and based on its three dimensions – *status*, *demography* and *institutional support* – it was found that despite the growing global status of China, the Hong Kong people think of themselves to be more civilised and thus to hold a higher *status* than the Mainland Chinese group. However, with regards to *demography*, the perceived increased population of the Mainland Chinese is seen as a threat to the Cantonese language. This is due to two reasons: a) the growing Chinese population is able to "self-sustain" in Mandarin and b) the Hong Kong people are "expected" to converse in Mandarin because they have a certain degree of proficiency in the language. At the same time, the participants also expressed their concern that Mandarin is receiving more *institutional support* than Cantonese. This worry is based on the Guangzhou incident and the changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policy which are seen as subversive moves by the Chinese government to erode Cantonese in Hong Kong.

While the findings have demonstrated that the language learning situation in Hong Kong is one that is less than straightforward and loaded with ethnolinguistic tension, it is necessary to bear in mind that, these are nevertheless explicit self-reports that the participants felt comfortable (or were aware of) to share. The findings provided do not necessarily paint the full picture of how they feel towards the languages. For instance, while the participants' *dislike* for Mandarin and subsequent blame on the government emerged clearly in the interviews, there was no mention of their *like* for Mandarin. This could be because they felt it was 'wrong' to admit to liking the language and want to hide the fact so as to remain politically correct or that, perhaps, they are simply *not aware* that they like the language.

From the findings presented, it is obvious that Hong Kong is a fertile ground for unconscious motivation undercurrents and a viable location for my research. Next, the design of the *Main Study* will be discussed below in *Section 5.4*.

5.4 Main Study

Study design

This *main study* seeks to empirically quantify the Hong Kong participants' implicit and explicit attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages. It is made up of two components which, although both quantitative in nature, measure different aspects of learner attitudes: *Part I* consists of a traditional questionnaire which seeks to measure the explicit attitudes of the Hong Kong language learners. *Part II* is made up of an implicit instrument – the *Implicit Association Test* (for a recap on the tool, see *Chapter Three*) – which taps into the subconscious attitudes of Hong Kong language learners. Some questions that this two-part study seeks to address are:

- What is the explicit motivational composition of the Hong Kong language learners towards the learning of English and Mandarin?
- Is there congruence (or incongruence) in their implicit and explicit attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages? In the event that there is an incongruence, what causes this?

- What are the implications of implicit attitudes on the participants' motivational set-up towards English and Mandarin?

Before the commencement of the main data collection, a pilot study was conducted. The initial results from the quantitative pilot will be presented before this section discusses the methodological components of the main study.

i) Pilot study

A pilot study (N = 50) was conducted with a sample of male (N = 21) and female (N = 29) Hong Kong natives. The participants were made up of the following age groups: 16-20 (N = 27), 21-25 (N = 21), 26-30 (N = 2) and were undergraduates at a Hong Kong university.

This pilot was conducted for two reasons: a) to obtain some feedback on the practicalities of the questionnaire (e.g. its feasibility, its layout, an initial gauge of the length of time required for completion) and more importantly, b) to ensure validity of the motivational and attitudinal scales. An initial analysis revealed that certain scales did not reach the recommended validity threshold of .07 (see Table 5-2) and a closer inspection revealed that there was a need to reword the problematic items.

Table 5-2: Internal reliability of variables (Pilot study)

Variables	Language	No. of items	No. of omitted items	Cronbach Alpha
Ideal L2 Self	English	3	2	.75
	Mandarin	5	-	.70
Ought-to L2 Self	English	4	1	.71
	Mandarin	5	-	.68
Attitudes towards the L2	English	3	2	.52
	Mandarin	5	-	.81
Attitudes towards L2 Community	English	2	3	.61
	Mandarin	5	-	.65
Attitudes towards L2 learning	English	5	-	.84
	Mandarin	5	-	.85
Language learning effort	English	4	1	.61
	Mandarin	5	-	.68
Ethnocentrism	-	6	-	.31
Fear of Assimilation	-	4	2	.71
Ethnolinguistic Vitality	Cantonese	14	4	.65
	English	10	5	.56
	Mandarin	8	7	.71

There were several observations from the reliability coefficients and three are of particular mention. First, because of its low Cronbach Alpha of .31, the *Ethnocentrism* scale had to be amended in its entirety. Second, with regards to the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* scales, its inclusion was considered because of how it entered the research paradigm during the analysis of the pilot interviews where the variables of *status*, *demographic* and *institutional support and control* were revealed to be key influences in the Hong Kong participants' attitudes towards the three languages. However, due to how it will significantly lengthen the questionnaire, I had to consider the likelihood of participant fatigue. In an attempt to mitigate this issue, the pilot questionnaire was made up of 15 out of the original 22 questions. However, because of the low reliability scores reflected in the analysis, all 22 questions were restored in the final version.

The third observation was that some *Mandarin-related* scales were found to be more reliable than the *English-related* scales. That is, despite being similarly worded, the *Mandarin-related* scales managed to remain intact at five items per scale and they were also found to be more reliable than the *English-related* scales (e.g. *Ideal English L2 self* reached a coefficient of .75 after an omission of two items out of the original five whereas the *Ideal Mandarin L2 self* obtained a coefficient of .70 with an intact scale). To address this issue, the problematic items of each scale were revised and worded more carefully. For example, for the *Ideal L2 self* variable the item "*Ideally, I want to be able to have a confident in-depth discussion with others in English/Mandarin*" was revised to "*I can imagine a situation where I am doing business with foreigners by speaking English/Mandarin*" and for the *Attitudes towards the L2* scale, the question "*I have positive opinions about the English/Mandarin language*" was changed to "*Knowing English/Mandarin well gives the impression of being more educated"*. Apart from revising the questions to better reflect their corresponding scales, to prevent confusion with the "*English*" and "*Chinese*" labels, "*English*" was replaced with "*native English-speaker*" and "*Chinese*" was replaced with "*native Mandarin-speaker (Mainland)*".

The changes made on the back of the results from this pilot study were effective in ensuring the internal reliability of the scales. The improved Cronbach Alpha figures are reported in *Chapter Six*, Table 6-2.

ii) The main data collection

A total of 105 students (male = 20, female = 85) from University A (male = 13, female = 28) and University B (male = 7, female = 57) participated in this study. The participants belong to the age groups of 16-20 (49%) and 21-25 (51%) years old and are currently enrolled as English (50.5%) and Chinese (49.5%) majors at the Universities. The students are at different stages of their education (Year 1 = 19.0%, Year 2 = 4.8%, Year 3 = 26.7%, Year 4 = 41.9% and Year 5 = 5.7%), with two respondents having missing "year of study" data.

The participants are made up of native Hong Kong citizens. They are all trilingual L1 Cantonese speakers who started learning English at the mean age of 3.46 (*SD* = 2.07) and Mandarin at the mean age of 4.97 (*SD* = 1.79).

As mentioned previously, while the initial intention was to collect data from different university majors such as that of Mathematics and Physical Education, due to the realities of on-site data collection and my limitations as a self-funded PhD student, this was deem unfeasible during the data collection process.

Instruments

This section presents the two quantitative components as follows: *Part I* explains the structure of the questionnaire and *Part II* details the design and discusses the considerations involved in writing the script for the *Implicit Association Test*. The questionnaire was conducted via paper and pen while the *Implicit Association Test* was performed on a laptop computer. The software employed was designed by Millisecond Software – Inquisit 5, 2017 – and it was used to record the precise reaction times needed for this time-response component.

Part I: The explicit component

The questionnaire consisted of five sections: i) motivational variables, ii) ethnolinguistic vitality, iii) self-assessment of language abilities, iv) two semantic differential scales and v) background questions.

i) Motivational variables

The scales were made up of the following established motivational variables. An example of each is provided:

- *Ideal L2 self* – e.g. I imagine myself as a proficient speaker of English/Mandarin.

- *Ought-to L2 self* – e.g. I ought-to do well in English/Mandarin because it is expected of me.
- *Attitudes towards the L2* – e.g. The English/Mandarin language is relevant in my life.
- *Attitudes towards the L2 community* – e.g. I enjoy interacting with native English-speakers/ Mandarin-speakers (from the Mainland).
- *Attitudes towards L2 learning* – e.g. I feel that time passes quickly while studying English/Mandarin.
- *Effort towards the L2* – e.g. Despite a long day at work/school, I am still willing to make time for English/Mandarin learning (even if it is just for half an hour).

These six scales were each made up of five items (except for the *Attitudes towards the L2 community* scale which had six items). The layout was designed in a way that each question allowed for side-by-side responses for the English and Mandarin languages.

Included was also the *Ethnocentrism* scale that was made up of eight questions and the *Fear of Assimilation* scale which had six questions.

- *Ethnocentrism* – e.g. I find it difficult to work with people who have a different cultural background.
- *Fear of Assimilation* – e.g. The greatest danger for Hong Kong citizens is in the loss of their cultural identity.

Together, this first component had a total of 45 questions that were measured on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from *Strongly Agree* to *Strongly disagree*.

ii) Ethnolinguistic vitality

The concept of Ethnolinguistic vitality (Bourhis et al., 1981; Giles et al., 1977) is based on a theoretical framework which allows for an understanding into the interrelationships among language, ethnicity and intergroup relations (see *Chapter Three* for a recap of the concept).

For the purposes of this study, the original scales were modified so as to cater to the three target groups and languages of interest: i. Hong Kong and the Cantonese language, ii. English-speaking community in Hong Kong and the English language and last but not least, iii. the Mainland Chinese and the Mandarin language. The ethnolinguistic vitality framework is made up of three components and an example question of each factor and its corresponding bipolar adjectives are provided below:

- *Status* – e.g. How highly regarded are the following languages in Hong Kong – Cantonese/Mandarin/English? (Not at all/ Extremely highly)
- *Demography* – e.g. Estimate the proportion of the Hong Kong population made up of the following groups – English-speaking natives, native Mainland Chinese, Hong Kong natives. (0%/ 100%)
- *Institutional support and control* – e.g. How much are the following languages taught in Hong Kong schools – Cantonese, Mandarin, English? (Not at all/ Exclusively)

This section consisted of a total of 22 items. In each question, the participants were required to make an evaluative assessment of the three groups/languages and from this design, a basis of comparison across the three groups/languages was allowed for.

Included in this section were four additional questions. These invited participants to think about the global roles of the two languages (English and Mandarin) and comment on how concerned (or unconcerned) they were:

1. Taking into account the global roles of these languages, do you think they will influence Hong Kong's current language situation? (Not at all/Extremely likely). Please also indicate if the influence is one that is positive or negative, and comment why?
2. On a scale of 1-7, how concerned are you? Why?
3. Do you think such global influences will affect your earlier answers? Please use the red pen to indicate your changes (if any).
4. How soon do you think such change will take place? (___ years)

iii) Self-assessment of language abilities

In this questionnaire, an assessment of the participants' language abilities was also included. Based on a simple "can do" scale, participants were asked to rate their speaking, writing, listening and reading abilities on a 6-point Likert scale. In addition to this self-assessment, included were also three open-ended questions which allowed for participants to i) identify the skill they would most want to improve on, ii) provide a reason as to why they would like to improve on this particular skill and to iii) comment on how they intend to approach this self-improvement.

iv) Semantic differential scales

Two semantic differential scales made up of 10 adjective-pairs that belong to the evaluative categories of broadly *Pleasant* and *Unpleasant* were used to determine the attitudes towards the English and the Chinese (see Table 5-3). These were included because it was found that a higher explicit-implicit consistency was observed when implicit scores and semantic differential scales are compared (Hofmann et al., 2005). These lexical items were later used in the design of the *Implicit Association Test* (to be discussed below in *Part II*).

Table 5-3: The two semantic differential scales and the 10 attribute pairs

	Semantic differential scales	The 10 attribute pairs
1	Attitudes towards the native-English	Kind/Mean, Beautiful/Ugly, Honest/dishonest,
2	Attitudes towards the native-Mainland Chinese	Optimistic/Pessimistic, Fair/Unfair, Knowledgeable/Ignorant, Hardworking/Lazy, Polite/Impolite, Cheerful/Cheerless, Friendly/Unfriendly

v) Background questions

To allow for analysis and comparisons between subsamples, this section collected personal data from the participants. Included were questions pertaining to demographics (gender, age), language learning history and current educational status.

The final explicit component was made up of 83 items, in which 69 questions were multiplied to cater to the two target languages – English and Mandarin. The items were translated into Chinese (Traditional script) and the questionnaire was presented to the participants in a booklet format. A copy of the English version of the questionnaire is available in Appendix E of this thesis.

Part II: The implicit component

The implicit component of the instrument was made up of the *Implicit Association Test*. As mentioned earlier in *Chapter Three*, the *Implicit Association Test* is a time-response task where participants have to quickly sort various lexical items into concept and attribute categories. This section will explain i) how the lexical items for the concept and attribute categories were selected, ii) the design of the *Implicit Association Test* procedure and iii) how the *Implicit Association Test* is scored.

i) Choosing the lexical items for the concept and attribute categories

The two superordinate concept categories used in this study are "China/the Chinese" and "the native English-speaking community" (henceforth known as "Chinese" and "English").

Because it has been previously observed that additional time is needed to negate and categorise ambiguous terms correctly (Lane et al., 2007), an informal word-association task was conducted with native Hong Kong citizens to elicit familiar lexical items. The respondents were asked to come up with as many words as possible when the attribute categories of "Chinese" (Mainland China) and native-English speaking countries such as "America", "England", "Canada" were presented. Following this, the high frequency responses were identified and a careful selection of the options was conducted.

Keeping in mind that "ambiguity about an item's appropriate categorization may slow reaction times" (Lane et al., 2007, p. 87) and that "exemplars should be categorized solely on the basis of their membership in the appropriate category" (p. 87), it was important that the words do not overlap categories. For instance, because of the similarity between the two Chinese communities – China and Hong Kong – the items "chopsticks" or "Chinese New Year" will not work for the "Chinese" attribute. Apart from avoiding such ambiguous items, to avoid potential cognitive interference, words with negative connotations were also excluded. This additional precaution was considered because of the political climate felt around Hong Kong and the world at the time when the study was conducted. As a result, despite their high frequency, words such as "Xi Jinping" and "Donald Trump" were omitted from the final list.

While the number of stimuli items is not important (it can range from as few as four to as many as 24 items), it was previously observed that "better construct validity will be obtained when researchers select the exemplars that best capture the construct of interest rather than trying to generate a longer list of exemplars that are not high-quality representations of the category" (Lane et al., 2007, p. 88). Therefore, only 20 lexical items (10 for each concept dimension) were selected and translated into Chinese. Table 5-4 below displays the lexical items used for the concept dimension.

Table 5-4: Lexical items for the concept dimension

Concept Dimension	Lexical items
Words related to "China/Chinese"	Beijing, Shanghai, Great Wall, Forbidden City, Confucius, Panda, WeChat, Weibo, Chinese Yuan and Peking University
Words related to "English"	London, Princess Diana, Shakespeare, Cambridge University, Oxford University, New York, Hollywood, McDonald's, Statue of Liberty and White House

A point to note here is that the final selection for the "English" items are specifically linked to British and American English contexts. While the initial intention was to provide for an accurate representation of "Global English", this final decision was arrived at because of two reasons: a) due to its colonial past, the preference of British English as a teaching model (Groves, 2011) and the growing influence of American British in the Hong Kong media (Chan, 2013) and their resonance with the Hong Kong participants which was reflected in how b) these lexical items appeared as high frequency responses during the informal lexical item quiz.

With regards to the attribute discrimination, evaluative adjectives belonging to the categories of *Pleasant* and *Unpleasant* were used. These attributes for this component were made up of the same 20 attributes that were used in the semantic differential scales mentioned earlier (see Table 5-3).

ii) Designing the Implicit Association Test

There are three main categorisation tasks in an *Implicit Association Test*: single-category classifications where only items belonging to i) the concept (i.e. "Chinese" and "English") or ii) attributes (i.e. "Pleasant" and "Unpleasant") were presented (Steps 1, 2 and 5), one configuration of double categorisations where a combination of stimulus belonging to both "concept" and "attribute" dimensions were presented (Steps 3 and 4) and an alternative configuration of double categorisations (Steps 6 and 7) (Lane et al., 2007). It was found that the inclusion of 20 trials in Steps 3 and 6 and 40 trials in Stages 4 and 7 result in good psychometric properties (Greenwald et al., 1998; Nosek et al., 2005). Together, these three categorisation tasks make up seven steps (also known as task blocks). An overview (Table 5-5) and the task descriptions of the seven steps are as follows:

Table 5-5: Overview of the Implicit Association Test

Step	No. of trials	Function	Response key assignment "E" key	 "I" key
1	20	Practice	*Chinese*	*English*
2	20	Practice	*Pleasant*	*Unpleasant*
3	20	Test 1 (Critical block)	*Pleasant* + *Chinese*	*Unpleasant* + *English*
4	40	Test 2 (Critical block)	*Pleasant* + *Chinese*	*Unpleasant* + *English*
5	20	Practice	*Unpleasant*	*Pleasant*
6	20	Test 1 (Critical block)	*Unpleasant* + *Chinese*	*Pleasant* + *English*
7	40	Test 2 (Critical block)	*Unpleasant* + *Chinese*	*Pleasant* + *English*

Step 1: *Learning the concept dimension*. By using the keys 'E' for *Chinese* and 'I' for *English* on the computer's keyboard, in this step, participants sort items belonging in the concept dimension (see Table 5-4) into the two superordinate categories: *Chinese* and *English*. Following the onset of the stimulus items that were presented in a sequential manner in the middle of the computer screen, respondents are to categorise their responses as quickly and as accurately as they can.

Step 2: *Learning the attribute dimension*. In this step, participants sort the different adjectives that represent the two different attributes (see Table 5-3) into the respective categories: *Pleasant* and *Unpleasant*. The procedure is similar to that of Step 1, however, the 'E' key is now used to represent *Pleasant* and the 'I' key is now used to indicate *Unpleasant*.

Step 3: *Concept-attribute pairing 1 (critical block)*. This step is a critical block. In this step, the sorting tasks in *Steps 1* and *2* are combined and participants perform a block of 20 trials on an alternating basis. The 'E' key is now used as the correct response for *Chinese* and *Pleasant* and the 'I' key is now the correct response for *English* and *Unpleasant*.

Step 4: *Concept-attribute pairing 1 (critical block)*. Similar to *Step 3*, participants now repeat the same concept-attribute pairing for 40 trials.

Step 5: *Learning to switch the spatial location of the concepts*. At this stage, participants learn to switch the spatial location of the concepts. The key assignment is now reversed where the 'E' key is now for *English* and the 'I' key is for *Chinese*. There is a total of 20 trials in this step.

Step 6: *Concept-attribute pairing 2 (critical block)*. This step is similar to that of *Step 3* where once again, participants perform a block of 20 trials on an alternating basis. The difference here is that *English* and *Pleasant* are now represented by the 'E' key and *Chinese* and *Unpleasant* are indicated by the 'I' key. For participants who have a harder association with the concept-attribute pairing, this step will result in a latency in response. These 20 items make up a critical block.

Step 7: *Concept-attribute pairing 2 (critical block)*. This is the final step of the task and there are 40 trials in this critical block. Similar to *Step 6*, participants repeat the categorisation task for *English* with *Pleasant* and *Chinese* with *Unpleasant*.

Embedded in the design of this task was also an allowance for error correction. This was to ensure that the items are categorised as intended (Lane et al., 2007; Nosek et al., 2007). In the event of an error, a red 'X' will be displayed in the middle of the screen. This provided the participants with the necessary error feedback whereby they are required to make the correct response before the next stimuli is presented. At the same time, because of the possibility in artificially suppressed explicit-implicit correlations (Gawronski, 2002) and the occasional artificial inflation of scores (Hofmann et al., 2005), the tasks were not counterbalanced. Figures 5-1 and 5-2 illustrate the compatible and incompatible concept-attribute pairings:

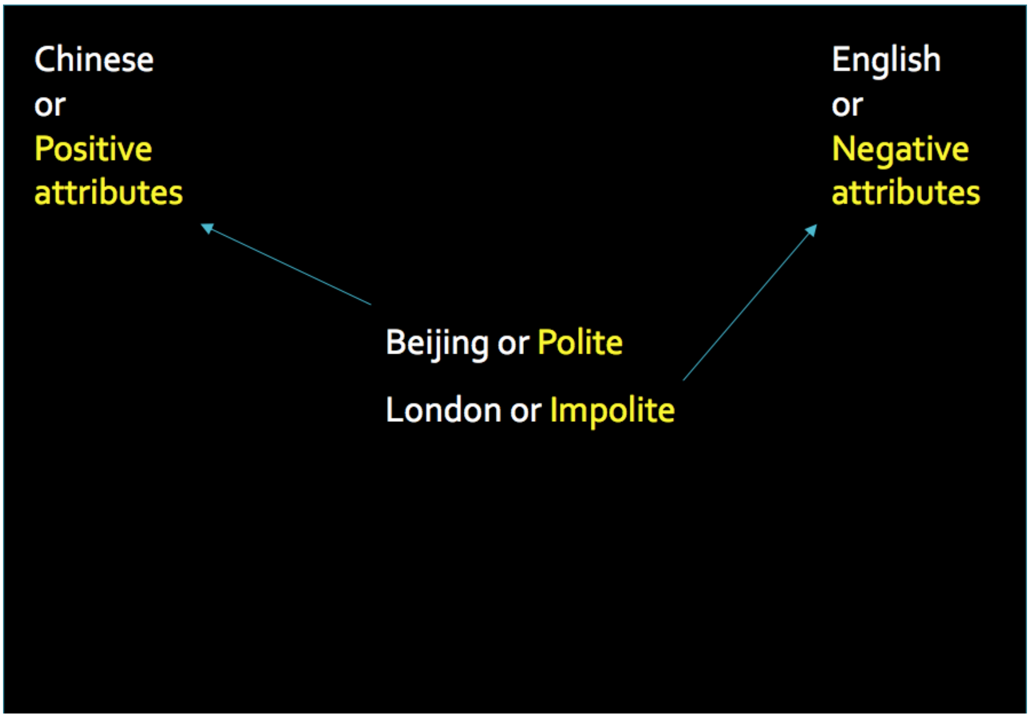

Figure 5-1: Compatible concept-attribute pairing

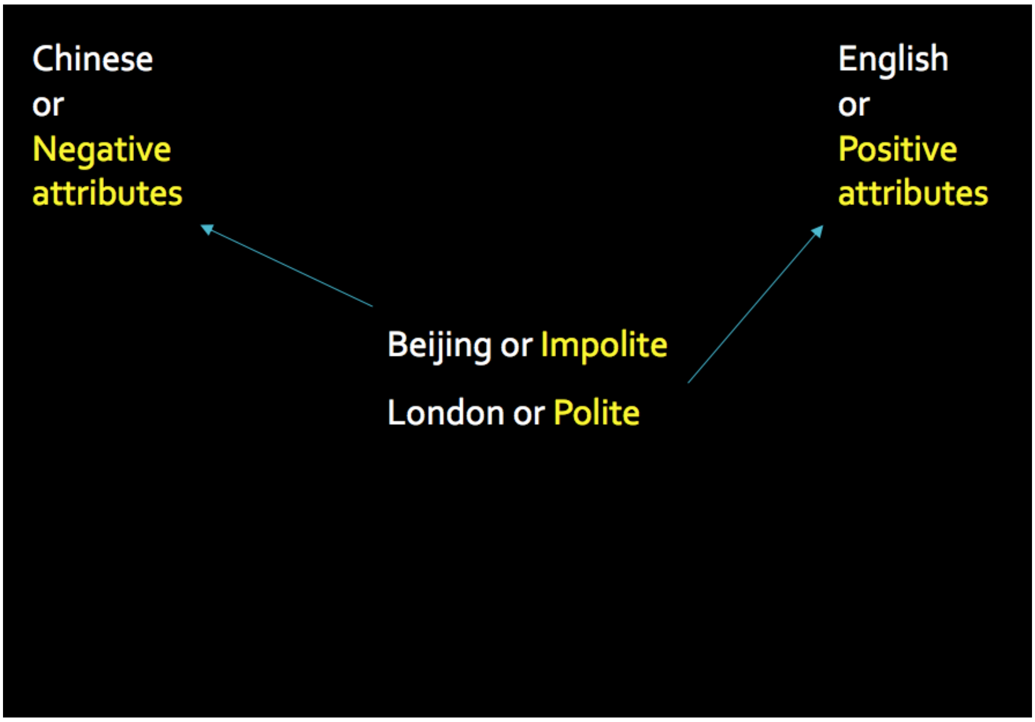

Figure 5-2: Incompatible concept-attribute pairing

iii) Scoring the Implicit Association Test (D measure)

There are two known ways to obtain the *D* score: the conventional method and the improved scoring algorithm (see Greenwald et al., 2003, p. 214). As the improved version was refined based on analyses of large data sets and can be "recommended as a general replacement for the previous conventional procedure" (p. 215), this thesis adopts the improved scoring algorithm.

The scoring procedure is based on the data collected from the critical blocks at Steps 3, 4, 6 and 7 (see Table 5-5) and as part of this improved scoring algorithm, included in this study was also a 600 millisecond (msec) error penalty that was implemented in the second step. Table 5-6 below details how the implicit *D* score is calculated (Lane et al., 2007, p. 92)

Table 5-6: Scoring procedure of the implicit D score as recommended by Greenwald et al. (2003)

1.	Delete trials greater than 10,000 msec
2.	Delete subjects for whom more than 10% of trials have latency less than 300 msec
3.	Compute the 'inclusive' standard deviation for all trials in Stages 3 and 6 and likewise for all trials in Stages 4 and 7
4.	Compute the mean latency for responses for each of Stages 3, 4, 6 and 7
5.	Compute the two mean differences ($\text{Mean}_{\text{Stage 6}} - \text{Mean}_{\text{Stage 3}}$) and ($\text{Mean}_{\text{Stage 7}} - \text{Mean}_{\text{Stage 4}}$)
6.	Divide each difference score by its associated 'inclusive' standard deviation
7.	*D* = the equal-weight average of the two resulting ratios

To reiterate, the science behind the *Implicit Association Test* is founded on the underlying concept by Donders (1969):

> The easier a mental task, the quicker the decision point is reached and the fewer the errors that result. To make the right-right and left-left association is easier than the right-left and left-right association, and the difference in speed

between the two tasks can serve as an indicator of their relative difficulty (as cited in Lane et al., 2007, p. 60)

The basis of the *D* score "is based on latencies for two tasks that differ in instructions" (Greenwald et al., 2003, p. 197) and from the above calculations, a relative figure is produced. Figure 5-3 provides a visual representation of how the *D* score is interpreted:

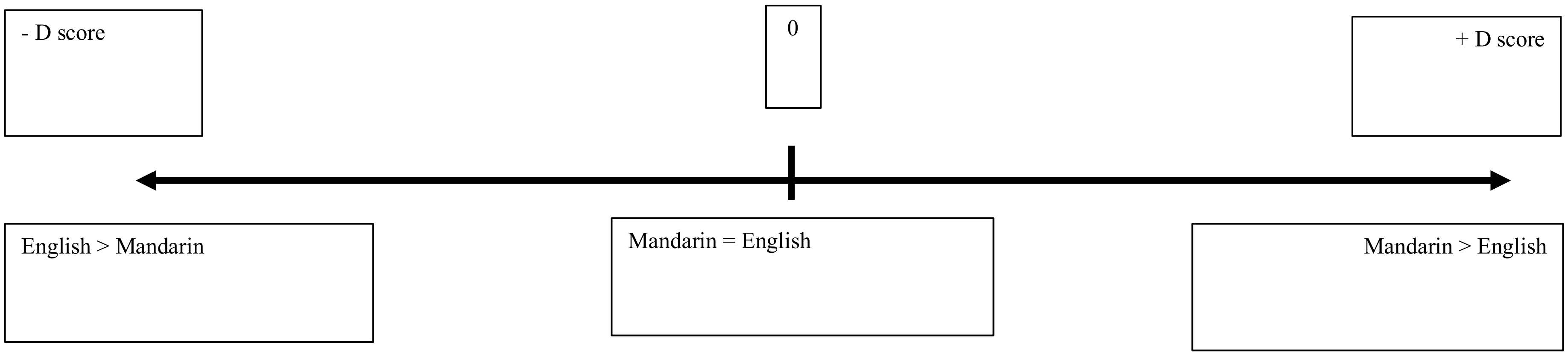

Figure 5-3: Scoring the *D* measure

Because the design of the *Implicit Association Test* was positively coded towards "Chinese" (Mainland China), a positive *D* score represents an implicit preference for "Chinese" and conversely, a negative *D* score signifies an implicit preference for "English". In order to establish a basis of comparison, a relative explicit *D* measure was also calculated. It was obtained from the two semantic differential scales by way of the following equation: Chinese SDS scores - English SDS scores. A detailed interpretation of the *D* score will be presented later in *Chapter Seven*.

Prior to the main data collection, the *Implicit Association Test* component was informally piloted to ensure that the instrument worked. That is, the code for the test was written accurately and that there was no ambiguity in the stimuli and their respective concept and attribute categories.

Procedure

The data collection of these two components was conducted on-site in Hong Kong by the researcher. The participants were recruited in two ways: via the researcher's personal contact and an online recruitment email was disseminated to the students whereby interested participants signed up via a Google document. The purpose of the study was stated clearly in both forms of recruitment. As a token of appreciation, it was also announced that an inconvenience fee of 50 Hong Kong dollars (equivalent to £5) would be paid to each participant.

The data collection was conducted via a two-step approach and participants completed the explicit component before proceeding onto the implicit component. First, the rationale of this study was explained to the participants who were recruited. Following their consent, a hard copy of the questionnaire was presented to them. An explanation of each section (and any clarification) was made before the commencement of the study. To prepare the participants for the task ahead, they were told that the entire questionnaire would take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete and they were encouraged to take their time and not to rush through the questions.

Following the explicit component, participants were asked to continue with the computerised *Implicit Association Test* task. On-screen instructions were provided prior to each stage and in the occasion where there was need for clarification, it was addressed immediately by the researcher. Due to the rapid nature of the *Implicit*

Association Test component, this component took less than 5 minutes to complete. In total, it took approximately 20-25 minutes to finish these two components.

Data analysis

From the explicit component, the responses from the questionnaire were coded and manually keyed into an Excel file before they were exported to SPSS Version 23 for analysis. From the implicit component, the *D* score was first derived by way of the syntax provided by *Project Implicit* at its website (https://www.projectimplicit.net/index.html). After this, results from both the explicit and implicit components were consolidated and analysed in their entirety via SPSS.

As the emphasis was on the attitudinal patterns across the different subsamples, the analysis relied heavily on descriptive statistics and standard statistical procedures such as correlation analysis, independent-samples t-tests and analyses of variance (ANOVA).

Ethical considerations

Full ethical approval was provided by the ethics committee at the School of English, University of Nottingham. The participants were presented with a project information sheet before the commencement of the study. It details the research aims and states that the data was to be used only for research purposes. It was highlighted that participation in the study was entirely voluntary and that their anonymity will be protected. Participants were informed that they would be paid an inconvenience fee of 50 Hong Kong dollars (equivalent to £5 pounds) as a token of appreciation for their time. This money was awarded by the RKEC committee at the School of English, University of Nottingham. Participants were also reminded that they have the option to opt out of the study at any point after their data was collected.

Prior to the study, any questions were clarified by the researcher in person before the participants were asked to review and sign an informed consent form to indicate that they understood and agreed to their involvement in the study (see Appendix D).

Chapter 6: Hong Kong participants – congruent or incongruent?

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the main study of this thesis and there are two aims of this chapter. The first is to address a focal issue addressed repeatedly throughout the earlier chapters, namely the question as to whether there is congruence or incongruence in the Hong Kong participants' explicit and implicit attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages. It will be shown in this respect that the dataset is made up of two clear groups of participants – congruent and incongruent. The second aim is to provide support for the inclusion of implicit attitudes in L2 motivation research. This objective is motivated by the literature review in earlier chapters, which revealed an implicit research lacuna.

This chapter is made up of three parts. It begins with an interpretation of the *D* score of the *Implicit Association Test* in Section 6.2 before the results are presented and discussed in Section 6.3. This latter section will a) report the reliability analysis of the questionnaire component of the study, b) identify the two groups of congruent and incongruent participants, c) look at how the relationship between the motivation variables differ for these two groups, d) examine if implicit attitudes affect the participants' attitudes towards the L2 and L2 communities and e) explore if the *type* of implicit preferences translate into significant differences in language learning attitudes. Finally, Section 6.4 concludes this chapter by summarising and discussing the implications of these findings.

6.2 Interpreting the *D* scores

In *Chapter Five* earlier, it was mentioned that the design of the *Implicit Association Test* used in this study was coded positively towards "Chinese". As a result, a positive *D* score is interpreted as an implicit preference for the Mandarin language and conversely, a negative *D* score is read as an implicit preference for the English language. No implicit preference for either languages is represented by a score of zero. Table 6-1 illustrates and lists the possible scenarios and their respective interpretations of the *D* scores.

Table 6-1: Interpreting the *D* score

+ D score = Preference for Mandarin

		Possible scenarios:	**Interpretation:**
↑	a)	High Mandarin and low English	Likes Mandarin and dislikes English
	b)	High Mandarin and less high English	Likes both but likes Mandarin more
	c)	Low Mandarin and lower English	Dislikes both but likes Mandarin better
0		**No preference for either language**	
	d)	High English and low Mandarin	Likes English and likes Mandarin
	e)	High English and less high Mandarin	Likes both but likes English more
↓	f)	Low English and lower Mandarin	Dislikes both but likes English better
		Possible scenarios:	**Interpretation:**

- D score = Preference for English

A point to note here is that such a range of interpretations is admittedly less than ideal, since a specific score can be the outcome of different scenarios. Nevertheless, because the current research interest concerns the relative relationship between the two languages, this less than ideal interpretation does not play a limiting factor in this study.

While the words “like” and “dislike” are used in Table 6-1 to indicate the polar opposites, it is important to keep in mind that attitudes are measured on a cline and therefore the use of “prefer more” and “prefer less” would be more accurate to reflect the spectrum of such attitudinal preferences.

6.3 Results and discussion

6.3.1 Internal reliability of the scales and the overall validity of the questionnaire

The internal reliability of the multi-item scales was calculated using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and an overview is provided in Table 6-2.

Table 6-2: Internal reliability of scales

Variables	**Language**	**No. of items**	**Cronbach Alpha**
Ideal L2 Self	English	5	.88
	Mandarin	5	.85
Ought-to L2 Self	English	5	.65
	Mandarin	5	.71
Attitudes towards L2	English	5	.65
	Mandarin	5	.77
Attitudes towards L2 Community	English	6	.81
	Mandarin	6	.86
Attitudes towards L2 learning	English	5	.84
	Mandarin	5	.86
Language learning effort	English	5	.77
	Mandarin	5	.77
Ethnocentrism	-	3	.81
Fear of Assimilation	-	6	.71
Ethnolinguistic Vitality	Cantonese	20	.77
	English	22	.75
	Mandarin	22	.77
Attitudes to the English (SDS)		10	.78
Attitudes to the Chinese (SDS)		10	.78

The results show that the vast majority of the variables reached the recommended threshold of .07 demonstrating that the questionnaire yielded reliable data. With regards to the *Ethnocentrism* and the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Hong\ Kong/Cantonese}$ scales, they require further explanation.

The *Ethnocentrism* scale was originally made up of eight items. However, during the reliability analysis, only three items remained. Questions such as *"I respect the values and customs of other cultures"* and *"There are many values and customs that I like in other cultures"* were removed and a possible reason as to why these items did not work could be due to their double-barrelled nature. Nevertheless, despite having only three items, the *Ethnocentrism* scale managed to reach a Cronbach alpha of .81.

With regards to the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Hong\ Kong/Cantonese}$ scale – compared to the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{English}$ and *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Chinese/Mandarin}$ scales which were made up of 22 items each – this scale consists of only 20 items. This is because two questions – "How many of the following groups immigrate into Hong Kong each year?" and "In general, how much contact is there between the Hong Kong people and the native English-speakers and Mainland Chinese-speakers?" – were excluded due to their inapplicability to the Hong Kong context. Despite the omission of these two questions, the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Hong\ Kong/Cantonese}$ scales still managed to reach a strong internal consistency of .77.

6.3.2 The congruent and incongruent participants

There has been one focal issue addressed repeatedly throughout the earlier chapters of this thesis, the question as to whether there is congruence or incongruence in the Hong Kong participants' explicit and implicit attitudes towards the two languages. To find out, a systematic 2-step approach was conducted: (a) identifying the congruent-incongruent contrast that applies to this dataset and (b) assessing the strength of the incongruence.

Step 1: Identifying the congruent-incongruent contrast that applies to this dataset

Table 6-3 shows the four possible outcomes of the congruent and incongruent explicit-implicit pairings, and following that, Table 6-4 provides the frequency counts of the explicit and implicit scores within the current dataset.

Table 6-3: Possible congruent/incongruent pairings

Possible outcomes	Congruent/ Incongruent	Explicit preference	Implicit preference
A	Congruent	English	English
B	Congruent	Mandarin	Mandarin
C	Incongruent	English	Mandarin
D	Incongruent	Mandarin	English

Table 6-4: Frequency count of the Explicit and Implicit D scores (N=105)

	Mean	*SD*	English preference (negative *D score*)	Mandarin preference (positive *D score*)	Total
Explicit *D*	-1.13	.83	96	8	104*
Implicit *D*	.05	.52	50	55	105

*Missing Explicit Semantic differential scales data from one participant

To reiterate, the Explicit *D* was computed from the two semantic differential scales (SDS) by way of subtracting the English SDS scores from the Chinese SDS scales (see *Chapter Five* for a recap).

Based on the frequency figures, it was found that 92.31% (N = 96) of the participants expressed an explicit preference for the English language while 52.38% (N = 55) showed an implicit preference towards the Mandarin language. Together, these figures are in line with Outcome C (see Table 6-3) and demonstrate the presence of an explicit-implicit dissonance in the Hong Kong participants' attitudes towards the two languages.

> *Finding 1: The present dataset is made up of two groups of participants: congruent and incongruent. The congruent group is reflective of an explicit and implicit preference for English whereas the incongruent group is made up of an explicit preference for English and an implicit preference for Mandarin.*

Step 2: Assessing the strength of the incongruence

To further understand the composition of this incongruence, that is, to learn whether the dissonance is one that is *weak* or *strong*, $M = 0$ was used as the point of division and from there, the strength of incongruence – *weak* and *strong* – was derived by way of the following formulas:

If Explicit D - Implicit $D < 0$ = *Weak* incongruence strength
If Explicit D - Implicit $D \geq 0$ = *Strong* incongruence strength

Table 6-5 shows the breakdown of the participants by their study majors and the strength of their preferences. It was found that the incongruence was largely of a weak strength (77.36%) and made up of both English majors (weak: 26.42%, strong: 5.66%) and Chinese majors (weak: 50.94%, strong: 16.98%).

During the analysis, it was revealed that three participants – English major (N = 1), Chinese major ($N = 2$) – showed a congruent explicit Mandarin and implicit Mandarin preference. However, such a small sample size does not allow for a representative analysis and thus the data from these three participants was excluded. From this point onwards, the analysis was conducted based on $N = 102$.

Table 6-5: Breakdown of congruent and incongruent groups

	Explicit preference	Implicit preference	Strength		Total
			Weak	Strong	
English Majors:					52
Congruent	English	English	8	27	35
Incongruent	English	Mandarin	14	3	17
Chinese Majors:					49
Congruent	English	English	1	12	13
Incongruent	English	Mandarin	27	9	36
	Total		50	51	101*

*Missing Explicit Semantic differential scales data from one participant

Interim summary

Based on the above-mentioned findings, it was observed that the current dataset is made up of a comparable number of congruent ($N = 48$; 47.52%) and incongruent ($N = 53$; 52.48%) participants. Of these, congruence was found to comprise an explicit and implicit preference for English whereas incongruence was found to be caused by an explicit preference for English and an implicit preference for Mandarin. In an attempt to further explore and better understand the motivational construct of the congruent and incongruent (henceforth represented by this format: "congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$" and "incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$") participants, the following section explores the relationship between the motivational variables for the two groups of participants.

6.3.3 Part 1: An overview of the relationships between the motivational variables

To obtain an overview of the relationships between the motivational variables, a correlation analysis was conducted for the entire sample (see Tables 6-6 and 6-7). The following discussion will be presented in two parts: explicit correlations and implicit correlations.

Table 6-6: Correlation matrix (Part 1/2) of the entire sample (N=102)

	1. Eng_Ideal	2. Man_Ideal	3. Eng_Ought	4. Man_Ought	5. ENG_ATTL2	6. MAN_ATTL2	7. ENG_ATTL2C	8. MAN_ATL2C	9. ENG_ATTLL	10. MAN_ATTLL	11. ENG_EFFOT	12. MAN_EFFORT	13. Ethnocentrism	14. FOA	15. EV_HK	16. EV_ENG	17. EV_CHI	18. ENG_SDS	19. MAN_SDS	20. Explicit *D*	21. Implicit *D*
1.	-																				
2.	.06	-																			
3.	.29**	.03	-																		
4.	.01	.41**	.46**	-																	
5.	.40**	-.01	.44**	.08	-																
6.	-.16	.58**	-.04	.40**	.01	-															
7.	.71**	-.04	.28**	.02	.37**	-.14	-														
8.	-.03	.77**	.01	.41**	-.04	.66**	.02	-													
9.	.62**	-.25**	.10	-.22*	.28**	-.33**	.65**	-.28**	-												
10.	-.13	.60**	.02	.33**	-.09	.54**	-.08	.69**	-.12	-											
11.	.42**	.14	.42**	.18	.38**	-.13	.42**	.07	.34**	.02	-										
12.	-.18	.58**	.04	.44**	-.10	.64**	-.10	.59**	-.27**	.62**	.11	-									

**. $p \leq 0.01$ *. $p \leq 0.05$

1. English Ideal self	6. Attitudes towards the Mandarin language	11. English language learning effort	16. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of English speaking community in Hong Kong	21. Implicit *D*
2. Mandarin Ideal self	7. Attitudes towards the English-speaking community	12. Mandarin language learning effort	17. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Mandarin speaking community in Hong Kong	
3. English Ought-to self	8. Attitudes towards the Mandarin-speaking community	13. Ethnocentrism	18. English semantic differential scales	
4. Mandarin Ought-to self	9. Attitudes towards English language learning	14. Fear of Assimilation	19. Mandarin semantic differential scales	
5. Attitudes towards the English language	10. Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning	15. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Hong Kong natives in Hong Kong	20. Explicit *D*	

Table 6-7: Correlation matrix (Part 2/2) of the entire sample (N=102)

	1. Eng_Ideal	2. Man_Ideal	3. Eng_Ought	4. Man_Ought	5. ENG_ATTL2	6. MAN_ATTL2	7. ENG_ATTL2C	8. MAN_ATL2C	9. ENG_ATTLL	10. MAN_ATTLL	11. ENG_EFFOT	12. MAN_EFFORT	13. Ethnocentrism	14. FOA	15. EV_HK	16. EV_ENG	17. EV_CHI	18. ENG_SDS	19. MAN_SDS	20. Explicit *D*	21. Implicit *D*
13.	-.19	-.14	-.12	.00	-.19	.05	-.25*	-.05	-.15	-.01	-.20*	-.11	-								
14.	.10	-.11	.00	-.04	-.10	-.25*	.19	-.19	.11	-.11	.16	-.11	-.02	-							
15.	.18	.04	.17	.12	.23*	.21*	.22*	.19	.17	.12	.15	.11	.00	-.17	-						
16.	-.01	.19	.14	.16	.06	.25*	.09	.22*	-.05	.26**	.03	.29**	.03	-.14	.25*	-					
17.	.08	.01	.05	.11	-.05	.13	.09	.01	.02	.09	-.12	.15	.01	-.03	.22*	.39**	-				
18.	.02	-.05	.08	-.02	.16	-.03	.02	-.07	-.03	-.07	.09	-.06	.06	.01	.01	.08	.08	-			
19.	-.19	.10	.07	.12	-.02	.30**	-.15	.17	-.13	.13	-.06	.12	-.01	-.32**	.01	.09	-.10	.16	-		
20.	-.17	.12	.00	.11	-.13	.27**	-.14	.19	-.08	.15	-.11	.14	-.06	-.27**	.00	.01	.14	-.58**	.71**	-	
21.	-.13	.16	.05	.24*	-.10	.14	-.15	.22*	-.21*	.15	-.09	.23*	.08	.10	.04	.01	.11	-.02	-.07	-.04	-

**. p ≤ 0.01 *. p ≤ 0.05

1. English Ideal self	6. Attitudes towards the Mandarin language	11. English language learning effort	16. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of English speaking community in Hong Kong	21. Implicit *D*
2. Mandarin Ideal self	7. Attitudes towards the English-speaking community	12. Mandarin language learning effort	17. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Mandarin speaking community in Hong Kong	
3. English Ought-to self	8. Attitudes towards the Mandarin-speaking community	13. Ethnocentrism	18. English semantic differential scales	
4. Mandarin Ought-to self	9. Attitudes towards English language learning	14. Fear of Assimilation	19. Mandarin semantic differential scales	
5. Attitudes towards the English language	10. Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning	15. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Hong Kong natives in Hong Kong	20. Explicit *D*	

a. Explicit correlations

Based on the correlation matrixes, four observations were made: i) the respective language-related items worked together coherently, ii) there is an attitudinal incompatibility between English and Mandarin, iii) the learning of English and Mandarin are moderated by different motivational variables and iv) Mandarin is employed as a "defensive mechanism" towards the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the English group.

i) The respective language-related items worked together coherently

Expected positive relationships were found amongst the English-related scales (e.g. *Ideal English self* and *Attitudes towards English language learning* $r = .62$, $p \leq .01$) and Mandarin-related scales (e.g. *Ideal Mandarin self* and *Attitudes towards Mandarin language* $r = .58$, $p \leq .01$). These strong positive relationships demonstrate that the respective language-related items worked together coherently. The figures also show a positive correlation between the *Ought to English* and *Mandarin selves* ($r = .46$, $p \leq .01$), thereby implying that the participants feel a sense of correlational external obligation towards these two languages.

ii) There is an attitudinal incompatibility between the two languages

The findings also show inverse correlations between the *Attitudes towards English language learning* and Mandarin-related scales: *Ideal Mandarin self* ($r = -.25$, $p \leq .01$); *Ought to Mandarin self* ($r = -.22$, $p \leq .05$); *Attitudes towards Mandarin language* ($r = -.33$, $p \leq .01$) and *Attitudes towards the Mandarin language community* ($r = -.28$, $p \leq .01$). These results suggest that the more one is inclined towards English language learning, the less one is attracted towards the Mandarin language and the Chinese community. These inverse relationships thereby demonstrate an attitudinal incompatibility between the two languages.

iii) The learning of English and Mandarin are moderated by different motivational variables

Negative correlations were found between the *Ethnocentrism* and *Attitudes towards the English language community* (r = -.25, p ≤ .05) and *English language learning effort* (r = -.20, p ≤ .05) scales. These inverse relationships show that ethnocentrism (i.e. a proclivity towards people of similar cultures) effects negatively towards English language acquisition. Taking the demographics of the current sample into consideration, these findings thus imply that the more the participants resonate with their Chinese heritage, the less inclined they will be towards the English language.

At the same time, a negative correlation was found in the *Fear of Assimilation* and *Attitudes towards the Mandarin language* scales (r = -.25, p ≤ .05). This demonstrates that the participants attitudes' towards the Mandarin language is moderated by their fear of assimilation into China. This finding is consistent with the pilot data (see *Chapter Five*) where the participants' less than favourable attitudes towards Mandarin were identified to be caused by their fear of assimilation by China. Together, these findings show that the learning of the two languages are moderated by different motivational variables. That is, attitudes towards the English language is moderated by *Ethnocentrism* while attitudes the Mandarin language is regulated by one's *Fear of Assimilation.*

iv) A "defensive mechanism" employed by the participants to counter the perceived increased *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the English group in Hong Kong

Consistent with what was indicated in the pilot interviews, the results in this section further elaborates on the role of *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* on the participants' attitudes towards the two languages. A look at the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* scales show that *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Hong\ Kong}$ correlates positively with *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{English}$ (r = .25, p ≤ 0.05) and *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Chinese}$ (r = .22, p ≤ 0.05). The positive relationship between these scales demonstrate the participant's correlational perception of the three groups. That is, the higher they perceive the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Hong Kong group, a higher perception of the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the English and Chinese groups will result.

The *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Hong\ Kong}$ scale also showed a positive correlation with the *Attitudes towards English language* (r = .23, p ≤ .05), *Attitudes towards the Mandarin language* (r = .21, p ≤ .05) and *Attitudes towards the English L2 community* (r = .22, p ≤ .05) scales. This positive relationship informs that the higher the perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Hong Kong group, higher positive attitudes towards the other two languages will occur. Interpreting this finding, this implies that if the participants feel "secure" in Hong Kong's *Ethnolinguistic Vitality*, they will be more open towards the other two languages.

In his discussion on the possibility of Chinese taking over from English as the world's most important language (Graddol, 2010), it was mentioned that Hong Kong students expect English to retain its local importance. Rather, some students "saw a need for Hong Kong to improve its competence in English further to maintain its cultural and linguistic distinctiveness, and thus *use English to protect the future of Cantonese* [emphasis added]." (p. 4). Specific to the present dataset, the lack of an inverse relationship between the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Hong\ Kong}$ *and the English-related scales* suggests that this role of English as a "protector of Cantonese" does not appear to exist. That is, if English is employed as a "protector", a lower *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Hong\ Kong}$ should result in a more positive attitude towards the English language.

At the same time, positive correlations between the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{English}$ scale and the Mandarin-related scales (*Attitudes towards the Mandarin language*, *Attitudes towards the Mandarin language community*, *Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning* and *Mandarin language learning effort*) were found. What this means is that the higher the perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the English group in Hong Kong will result in a corresponding increase in the attitudes towards Mandarin. This thus suggests that Mandarin is used as a "defensive mechanism" to counter the perceived increased *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the English group in Hong Kong.

In comparison, because such positive relationships are absent between the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese and the English-related scales. This thus reflects that this "defensive mechanism" is one-sided and that the participants are not employing the use of English to counter any increased *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group. This "defensive" use of the Mandarin language against English is potentially a very interesting finding. Unfortunately, due to the limited data, it is impossible to further explore this point.

b. Implicit correlations

With regards to the implicit data, the figures show that there is a positive relationship between the Implicit *D* and Mandarin-related scales: *Ought to Mandarin self* (r = .24, $p \leq 0.05$); *Attitudes towards the Mandarin language community* (r = .22, $p \leq 0.05$); *Mandarin language learning effort* (r = .23, $p \leq 0.05$) and a negative relationship with *Attitudes towards English language learning* (r = -.21, $p \leq 0.05$). However, because these correlations are made up of both congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants, it is difficult to interpret these findings accurately. These associations will be revisited when we examine the two groups separately.

One final observation is the lack of a correlation between the *Explicit* and *Implicit D* scores. Recalling that the *Explicit* D is an artefact of the semantic differential scales (expected correlations were found between the *Explicit D* and the *English SDS*: r = -.58, $p \leq 0.01$; *Chinese SDS*: r = .71, $p \leq 0.01$ scales), this lack of a relationship between the Implicit *D* and the Explicit *D* thus implies that they are tapping into different aspects of the participants' attitudinal and motivational psyche.

This absence of a relationship has been, in fact, the typical finding in the literature over the past two decades (Kihlstrom, 2019; McClelland et al., 1989) and in his summary regarding this matter, Dörnyei (2020) identified two fundamental implications: the measurement of *only* one type (explicit or implicit) of motivation will result in *only* a one-sided perspective of motivation and the presence of either congruence or incongruence in an individual's conscious and subconscious motives will determine the push or pull effects on one's motivation. Consequently, he suggests that the incremental value of both explicit and implicit motives and the dissonance and congruence of conscious and unconscious attitudes be taken into consideration for future research designs.

In summary, the findings presented in this section provided an overview of the relationships between the motivational variables for the whole sample. While a few broad trends emerged, the results could not shed light on the different nature of the congruent and incongruent groups. *Part 2* of this section seeks to address this matter.

6.3.4 Part 2: Relationship of the motivational variables for the congruent and the incongruent participants

Separate correlation analyses were conducted for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ groups. The correlational matrixes are presented in two parts: Tables 6-8 and 6-9 display the correlation matrixes of the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ sample while the correlation results of the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants are presented in Tables 6-10 and 6-11.

Table 6-8: Correlation matrix (Part 1/2) of the congruent English-English participants (N=48)

	1. Eng_Ideal	2. Man_Ideal	3. Eng_Ought	4. Man_Ought	5. ENG_ATTL2	6. MAN_ATTL2	7. ENG_ATTL2C	8. MAN_ATL2C	9. ENG_ATTLL	10. MAN_ATTLL	11. ENG_EFFOT	12. MAN_EFFORT	13. Ethnocentrism	14. FOA	15. EV_HK	16. EV_ENG	17. EV_CHI	18. ENG_SDS	19. MAN_SDS	20. Explicit *D*	21. Implicit *D*
1.	-																				
2.	-.05	-																			
3.	.34*	-.14	-																		
4.	.01	.32*	.29*	-																	
5.	.40**	.06	.42**	-.02	-																
6.	-.16	.65**	-.22	.51**	.04	-															
7.	.66**	-.04	.29*	.03	.48**	-.02	-														
8.	-.14	.80**	-.21	.24	.04	.67**	.10	-													
9.	.62**	-.39**	.21	-.16	.30*	-.46**	.64**	-.32*	-												
10.	-.27	.55**	-.16	.27	-.03	.49**	-.01	.60**	-.12	-											
11.	.36*	.09	.31*	.12	.55**	-.08	.40**	-.02	.41**	.03	-										
12.	-.35*	.45**	-.19	.38**	-.19	.66**	-.11	.53**	-.34*	.60**	-.05	-									
13.	-.26	-.21	-.03	.08	-.19	-.13	-.30*	-.14	-.13	.00	-.18	-.19	-								
14.	.26	-.05	.12	-.03	.05	-.23	.21	-.20	.22	.03	.05	-.15	-.13								

**. p ≤ 0.01 *. p ≤ 0.05

1. English Ideal self	6. Attitudes towards the Mandarin language	11. English language learning effort	16. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of English speaking community in Hong Kong	21. Implicit *D*
2. Mandarin Ideal self	7. Attitudes towards the English-speaking community	12. Mandarin language learning effort	17. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Mandarin speaking community in Hong Kong	
3. English Ought-to self	8. Attitudes towards the Mandarin-speaking community	13. Ethnocentrism	18. English semantic differential scales	
4. Mandarin Ought-to self	9. Attitudes towards English language learning	14. Fear of Assimilation	19. Mandarin semantic differential scales	
5. Attitudes towards the English language	10. Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning	15. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Hong Kong natives in Hong Kong	20. Explicit *D*	

Table 6-9: Correlation matrix (Part 2/2) of the congruent English-English participants (N=48)

	1. Eng_Ideal	2. Man_Ideal	3. Eng_Ought	4. Man_Ought	5. ENG_ATTL2	6. MAN_ATTL2	7. ENG_ATTL2C	8. MAN_ATL2C	9. ENG_ATTLL	10. MAN_ATTLL	11. ENG_EFFOT	12. MAN_EFFORT	13. Ethnocentrism	14. FOA	15. EV_HK	16. EV_ENG	17. EV_CHI	18. ENG_SDS	19. MAN_SDS	20. Explicit *D*	21. Implicit *D*
15.	.26	-.07	.15	.04	.28	.04	.33*	.12	.21	-.08	.23	.07	.08	-.02	-						
16.	.12	.18	.22	.32*	.20	.19	.39**	.31*	.12	.23	.17	.22	.01	-.01	.28	-					
17.	.31*	-.12	.20	.15	.09	.01	.27	-.13	.23	-.07	.02	-.09	.10	-.04	.16	.36*	-				
18.	-.06	-.04	.16	.00	.12	-.05	.00	-.10	-.03	-.06	.08	-.17	.10	.07	-.04	.11	.02	-			
19.	-.25	.26	-.01	.15	-13	.34*	-.18	.26	-.34*	.13	-.23	.16	.08	-.48**	-.04	.09	-.13	.35*	-		
20.	-.19	.29*	-.13	.14	-.22	.36*	-.17	.33*	-.30*	.17	-.28	.29*	-.01	-.51**	-.01	.00	-.14	-.44**	.69**	-	
21.	.09	.07	.20	.07	-.02	-.04	.05	.11	.21	.10	.01	.10	.09	.29*	.03	.12	-.29*	-.10	-.05	.03	-

**. $p \leq 0.01$ *. $p \leq 0.05$

1. English Ideal self	6. Attitudes towards the Mandarin language	11. English language learning effort	16. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of English speaking community in Hong Kong	21. Implicit *D*
2. Mandarin Ideal self	7. Attitudes towards the English-speaking community	12. Mandarin language learning effort	17. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Mandarin speaking community in Hong Kong	
3. English Ought-to self	8. Attitudes towards the Mandarin-speaking community	13. Ethnocentrism	18. English semantic differential scales	
4. Mandarin Ought-to self	9. Attitudes towards English language learning	14. Fear of Assimilation	19. Mandarin semantic differential scales	
5. Attitudes towards the English language	10. Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning	15. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Hong Kong natives in Hong Kong	20. Explicit *D*	

Table 6-10: Correlation matrix (Part 1/2) of the incongruent English-Mandarin participants (N=53)

	1. Eng_Ideal	2. Man_Ideal	3. Eng_Ought	4. Man_Ought	5. ENG_ATTL2	6. MAN_ATTL2	7. ENG_ATTL2C	8. MAN_ATL2C	9. ENG_ATTLL	10. MAN_ATTLL	11. ENG_EFFOT	12. MAN_EFFORT	13. Ethnocentrism	14. FOA	15. EV_HK	16. EV_ENG	17. EV_CHI	18. ENG_SDS	19. MAN_SDS	20. Explicit *D*	21. Implicit *D*
1.	-																				
2.	.22	-																			
3.	.08	.23	-																		
4.	.38**	.44**	.65**	-																	
5.	-.14	-.01	.44**	.21	-																
6.	.74**	.50**	.13	.47**	.03	-															
7.	.16	.05	.28*	.11	.26	-.20	-														
8.	.60**	.70**	.25	.51**	-.05	.65**	.06	-													
9.	.04	-.04	.01	-.18	.22	-.19	.62**	-.15	-												
10.	.46**	.62**	.22	.33*	-.09	.57**	-.07	.76**	-.02	-											
11.	.02	.24	.51**	.29*	.25	-.16	.43**	.21	.27*	.05	-										
12.	-.13	.68**	.25	.43**	.02	.62**	.00	.59**	-.12	.60**	.28*	-									

**. $p \leq 0.01$ *. $p \leq 0.05$

1. English Ideal self	6. Attitudes towards the Mandarin language	11. English language learning effort	16. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of English speaking community in Hong Kong	21. Implicit *D*
2. Mandarin Ideal self	7. Attitudes towards the English-speaking community	12. Mandarin language learning effort	17. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Mandarin speaking community in Hong Kong	
3. English Ought-to self	8. Attitudes towards the Mandarin-speaking community	13. Ethnocentrism	18. English semantic differential scales	
4. Mandarin Ought-to self	9. Attitudes towards English language learning	14. Fear of Assimilation	19. Mandarin semantic differential scales	
5. Attitudes towards the English language	10. Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning	15. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Hong Kong natives in Hong Kong	20. Explicit *D*	

Table 6-11: Correlation matrix (Part 2/2) of the incongruent English-Mandarin participants (N=53)

	1. Eng_Ideal	2. Man_Ideal	3. Eng_Ought	4. Man_Ought	5. ENG_ATTL2	6. MAN_ATTL2	7. ENG_ATTL2C	8. MAN_ATL2C	9. ENG_ATTLL	10. MAN_ATTLL	11. ENG_EFFOT	12. MAN_EFFORT	13. Ethnocentrism	14. FOA	15. EV_HK	16. EV_ENG	17. EV_CHI	18. ENG_SDS	19. MAN_SDS	20. Explicit *D*	21. Implicit *D*
13.	.00	-.09	-.22	-.09	-.20	.20	-.21	.02	-.16	-.01	-.20	-.05	-								
14.	.10	-.18	-.10	-.06	-.22	-.28*	.20	-.20	.04	-.23	.24	-.08	.04	-							
15.	.10	.13	.25	.24	.23	.36**	.15	.31*	.14	.28*	.10	.18	.00	-.27	-						
16.	-.17	.26	.08	.08	-.09	.33*	-.23	.19	-.27	.34*	-.11	.44**	.07	-.23	.19	-					
17.	-.07	.06	-.04	.02	-.11	.21	.00	.05	-.08	.17	-.21	.31*	-.05	.00	.24	.47**	-				
18.	.09	-.04	.01	-.02	.19	-.01	.03	-.02	-.06	-.06	.08	.07	.03	-.03	.05	.05	.16	-			
19.	-.17	-.06	.15	.14	.08	.29*	-.17	.13	.02	.18	.07	.13	-.10	-.18	.05	.07	-.03	-.05	-		
20.	-.18	-.02	.10	.11	-.08	.21	-.14	.10	.05	.17	.00	.04	-.09	-.11	.00	.01	-.13	-.71**	.74**	-	
21.	-.08	-.10	.14	.11	.02	.18	.07	-.08	-.13	-.21	-.04	.03	.28*	.08	.15	.21	.13	.13	.09	-.02	-

**. p ≤ 0.01 *. p ≤ 0.05

1. English Ideal self	6. Attitudes towards the Mandarin language	11. English language learning effort	16. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of English speaking community in Hong Kong	21. Implicit *D*
2. Mandarin Ideal self	7. Attitudes towards the English-speaking community	12. Mandarin language learning effort	17. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Mandarin speaking community in Hong Kong	
3. English Ought-to self	8. Attitudes towards the Mandarin-speaking community	13. Ethnocentrism	18. English semantic differential scales	
4. Mandarin Ought-to self	9. Attitudes towards English language learning	14. Fear of Assimilation	19. Mandarin semantic differential scales	
5. Attitudes towards the English language	10. Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning	15. Ethnolinguistic Vitality of Hong Kong natives in Hong Kong	20. Explicit *D*	

Once the entire sample was divided into the congruent and incongruent groups, only a limited number of significant correlations emerged between the Implicit *D* and the other motivational variables. Specifically, significant correlations were found with the *Fear of Assimilation* and *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Chinese}$ scales of the congruent participants' correlation matrix. Because the congruent participants are made up of an implicit and explicit preference for English (as seen earlier in Section 6.3.2), these results mean that the more the participants fear being assimilated, the higher their implicit attitudes towards English. At the same time, the more implicitly inclined they are towards English, the lower their perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group.

With regards to the incongruent participants, a significant correlation was found between the Implicit *D* and the *Ethnocentrism* scale. Because the incongruent group is made up of participants with an explicit preference for English and implicit preference for Mandarin, the positive relationship demonstrates that the higher their sense of ethnocentrism, the higher their implicit preference for Mandarin, which stands to reason.

Earlier in *Part 1* of this section (which looked at the correlations of the entire sample), negative correlations were found between the *Ethnocentrism* and English-related scales and between the *Fear of Assimilation* and Mandarin-related scales. In an attempt to better understand how these findings apply to the two groups of participants, a comparison of the implicit and explicit correlations of the *Ethnocentrism* and *Fear of Assimilation scales* for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants was made. Because the correlation results for the congruent group showed a significant relationship between the Implicit *D* and the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{Chinese}$ scale, a closer look at this finding is also warranted. A comparison of these correlations will be discussed in turn.

a. *Ethnocentrism*

Table 6-12 shows a subset of the explicit and implicit correlations for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants regarding the *Ethnocentrism* scale.

Table 6-12: Correlations of the Explicit and Implicit D coefficients with Ethnocentrism

		Ethnocentrism
Congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ sample ($N = 48$):		
Explicit D	correlates	-.01
Implicit D	correlates	.09
Incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ sample ($N = 53$):		
Explicit D	correlates	-.09
Implicit D	correlates	.28*

*. $p \leq 0.05$

The results show a significant positive correlation between the incongruent participants' *Implicit D* and *Ethnocentrism*. Because this group of participants exhibited an explicit English and implicit Mandarin preference, what this finding means is that the more ethnocentric the participants feel, the more implicitly they will prefer Mandarin. Because no such relationship was found for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants, who exhibited an implicit English preference, this finding thus confirms a positive relationship between ethnocentrism and implicit attitudes for Mandarin.

> *Finding 2: The incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants are implicitly motivated by Ethnocentrism. This association does not apply to the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants.*

b. Fear of Assimilation

Table 6-13 presents a subset of the explicit and implicit correlations for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants regarding the *Fear of Assimilation* scale.

Table 6-13: Correlations of the Explicit and Implicit D coefficients with Fear of Assimilation scale

		Fear of Assimilation
Congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ sample ($N = 48$):		
Explicit D	correlates	-.51**
Implicit D	correlates	.29*
Incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ sample ($N = 53$):		
Explicit D	correlates	-.11
Implicit D	correlates	.08

**. $p \leq 0.01$ *. $p \leq 0.05$

With regards to the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants, an inverse explicit-implicit relationship was found: a strong negative correlation was reported between the *Explicit D* and *Fear of Assimilation* scale and a positive correlation was found in their *Implicit D* and *Fear of Assimilation* scale. Recalling that the congruent group is made up of an explicit and implicit English preference, these findings mean that the more explicit their fear of assimilation is, the lower their explicit English preference and the higher their implicit English preference. At first glance, it is difficult to make immediate sense of these contradicting findings. It appears therefore that the more the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants worry that their Hong Kong identity is at threat, the stronger implicit attitudes towards English will develop.

In contrast, the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ group did not exhibit any significant correlations of their explicit and implicit attitudes with *Fear of Assimilation*. This suggests that fear of assimilation does not play a significant part in the incongruent participants' attitudes towards English and Mandarin.

Finding 3: The congruent $_{English\text{-}English}$ participants are implicitly motivated by Fear of Assimilation, whereas the incongruent $_{English\text{-}Mandarin}$ participants are not.

c. Ethnolinguistic Vitality scales

Table 6-14 presents a subset of the correlations of the explicit and implicit correlations for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants regarding the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* scales.

Table 6-14: Extract of significant explicit and implicit correlations for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants and the Ethnolinguistic Vitality scales

		Variables		
		Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{Hong\ Kong}$	*Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{English}$*	*Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{Chinese}$*
Congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ sample ($N = 48$):				
Explicit D	correlates	-.01	.00	-.14
Implicit D	correlates	.03	.12	-.29*
Incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ sample ($N = 53$):				
Explicit D	correlates	.00	.01	-.13
Implicit D	correlates	.15	.21	.13

**. $p \leq 0.01$ *. $p \leq 0.05$

A negative correlation was found between the *Implicit D* and *Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{Chinese}$* amongst the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants and this finding suggests that the higher the congruent participants perceive the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese population in Hong Kong, the lower their implicit preference for English; that is, the more the congruent participants feel that the Chinese group is gaining strength in Hong Kong, the less inclined they become towards English. Taking into consideration the interpretation made previously regarding the positive correlation found in the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants' *Implicit D* and *Fear of Assimilation*, this finding is confusing. In an attempt to understand these two results, the analysis returned to the construct of the two scales; that is, drawing on the core factor that the

Fear of Assimilation and *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* scales sought to measure. In this case, they are the underlying concepts of *fear* and *perceived group status*, respectively. By interpreting the results with these core characteristics in mind, some sense could then be made out of these less-than-clear findings: if *fear* is the dominating factor, the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants will implicitly draw on the use of English to offset their fear of assimilation. Conversely, if the *status* of the Chinese group is well-perceived, that is, the role of the China/Mandarin in Hong Kong is *recognised/acknowledged* by the participants, this same group of participants will be implicitly less inclined towards English.

In comparison, no such significant finding was found for the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants. The absence of an association between these variables indicates that unlike their congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ counterparts, the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants are not motivated by their perceived ethnolinguistic vitality of the Hong Kong, English and Chinese groups.

> *Finding 4: The congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants are motivated by either the fear or the perceived status of the Chinese group. If fear is the primary factor, the congruent participants will implicitly employ the use of English to offset this fear. Alternatively, if they accept and recognise the status of China (or the role of Mandarin), they will be implicitly less inclined towards the English language.*

Interim discussion

This section sought to understand the relationship between the motivational variables for the congruent and incongruent participants by way of correlational analysis. The overall findings were discussed based on the explicit and implicit correlational results. The explicit correlations show expected positive correlations between the English-related and the Mandarin-related scales, which indicated that the questionnaire items worked coherently together. However, the negative relationships between several English- and Mandarin-related scales demonstrated a certain amount of attitudinal incompatibility between the two languages. At the same time, the full correlation matrix provided indication that the learning of the two languages are moderated by different motivational variables such as that of *Ethnocentrism* and *Fear of Assimilation.*

With regards to the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* scales, the results suggest that the participants perceived the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* to be positively intercorrelated in the three groups. That is, a higher perception of the perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Hong Kong group is associated with a higher opinion of the perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the English and Chinese groups too.

However, on closer inspection of the positive correlation found between *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* $_{\text{English}}$ and the Mandarin-related scales, the result suggests that, in spite of the participants' seeming reservations about the Mandarin language, the use of Mandarin is employed to offset any perceived growth in strength of the English group in Hong Kong.

Because the implicit correlations for the entire sample concerned both congruent and incongruent participants, the overall findings were found to be difficult to interpret. However, once the sample was divided into the two groups, in this respect, several important findings emerged. First, the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants were found to be implicitly motivated both by *Fear of Assimilation* and the perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group. These findings were initially confusing as these two results were incompatible with each other, on closer inspection, however, these seemingly contradictory findings began to make sense: if the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants are motivated by fear, they will be more inclined to use English to counter their fear of assimilation; on the other hand, if the participants accept the increase in *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group, they will feel less favourable towards the English language.

In comparison, the incongruent participants' implicit attitudes towards Mandarin were found to be moderated by their sense of *Ethnocentrism*. Given the similarities (i.e. ethnicity) between the Hong Kong people and their Chinese counterparts, this finding is understandable. However, when one considers the complicated historical and political relationship between Hong Kong and Mainland China (as mentioned in *Chapter Four*), this is an interesting finding given that the explicitly stated consensus seems to be a denial for Mandarin. In sum, the findings in this section have provided a level of understanding into the motivational psyche of the two groups of participants. At the same time, they have also showcased the complex nature of learner attitudes.

6.3.5 The impact of implicit attitudes on attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community

To learn if implicit attitudes affect one's attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community, independent t-tests were conducted between the congruent and incongruent subsamples. The results are presented in Table 6-15 (Part 1/2) and Table 6-16 (Part 2/2).

Table 6-15: Independent samples t-test of the different motivational variables of the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ (N = 48) and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ (N = 53) participants (Part 1/2)

Scale	Language	Congruent/ Incongruent	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*Effect size*
Ideal L2 Self	English	Congruent	5.03	.87	1.47	.02
		Incongruent	4.76	.95		
	Mandarin	Congruent	4.27	1.02	-2.10*	.04
		Incongruent	4.67	.90		
Ought to Self	English	Congruent	4.20	.88	.57	.02
		Incongruent	4.09	.92		
	Mandarin	Congruent	3.20	.93	-2.31*	.04
		Incongruent	3.63	.93		
Attitudes towards the L2	English	Congruent	5.62	.45	1.32	.02
		Incongruent	5.49	.48		
	Mandarin	Congruent	4.45	.90	-1.17	.01
		Incongruent	4.66	.87		
Attitudes towards the L2 Community	English	Congruent	5.00	.69	2.16*	.05
		Incongruent	4.69	.76		
	Mandarin	Congruent	3.75	1.09	-2.61*	.06
		Incongruent	4.28	.92		
Attitudes towards language learning	English	Congruent	4.81	.77	2.71**	.07
		Incongruent	4.38	.82		
	Mandarin	Congruent	3.61	.98	-2.22*	.05
		Incongruent	4.03	.89		

Table 6-16: Independent samples t-test of the different motivational variables of the congruent English-English (N = 48) and incongruent English-Mandarin (N = 53) participants (Part 2/2)

Scale	Language	Congruent/ Incongruent	*M*	*SD*	*T*	*Effect size*
Language learning effort	English	Congruent	4.80	.76	.97	.00
		Incongruent	4.65	.88		
	Mandarin	Congruent	3.55	.92	-2.40*	.06
		Incongruent	3.99	.91		
Ethnocentrism		Congruent	2.85	.90	-.11	.00
		Incongruent	2.87	1.01		
Fear of Assimilation		Congruent	3.49	.72	-.07	.00
		Incongruent	3.50	.82		
Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{Hong\ Kong}$		Congruent	5.15	.46	-.08	.00
		Incongruent	5.16	.50		
Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{English}$		Congruent	4.62	.47	.96	.00
		Incongruent	4.53	.43		
Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{Chinese}$		Congruent	4.48	.49	-1.83^	.03
		Incongruent	4.66	.48		
Attitudes to the English (SDS)		Congruent	4.89	.58	.42	.00
		Incongruent	4.84	.56		
Attitudes to the Chinese (SDS)		Congruent	3.76	.71	.92	.00
		Incongruent	3.64	.60		

Because the focus of this section is on *Attitudes towards language learning* and *Attitudes towards the L2 community*, the significant results pertaining to these two variables are presented in Table 6-17.

Table 6-17: Significant t-test results of congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants (Part 1/2)

Scale	Language	Congruent/ Incongruent	*M*	*SD*	*T*	*D*	*Effect size*
Attitudes towards the L2 Community	English	Congruent	5.00	.69	2.16*	99	.05
		Incongruent	4.69	.76			
	Mandarin	Congruent	3.75	1.09	-2.61*	99	.06
		Incongruent	4.28	.92			
Attitudes towards language learning	English	Congruent	4.81	.77	2.71**	99	.07
		Incongruent	4.28	.82			
	Mandarin	Congruent	3.61	.98	-2.22*	99	.05
		Incongruent	4.03	.89			

**. $p \leq 0.01$ *. $p \leq 0.05$

The results show that the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants displayed significantly higher *Attitudes towards the English L2 community* than their incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ counterparts. In a similar vein, a significant difference in the *Attitudes towards English language learning* scores for congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants was also found. Correspondingly, when compared to the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants, the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants had significantly higher *Attitudes towards the Mandarin L2 community* and *Attitudes towards Mandarin language learning*.

Because the reception of the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants towards the two L2 languages and communities are found to be consistent with their implicit preferences, these findings suggest that implicit attitudes play a prominent role in moderating one's explicit attitudes towards the L2 language and the L2 community.

Finding 5: Implicit preferences affect one's explicit attitudes towards the L2 language and the L2 community

In addition to this key finding, there were several other significant results produced by the independent sample t-tests and a summary of these is presented in Table 6-18.

Table 6-18: Significant t-test results of congruent English-English and incongruent English-Mandarin participants (Part 2/2)

Scale	**Language**	**Congruent/ Incongruent**	***M***	***SD***	***T***	***D***	***Effect size***
Ideal L2 Self	Mandarin	Congruent	4.27	1.02	-2.10*	99	.04
		Incongruent	4.67	.90			
Ought to Self	Mandarin	Congruent	3.20	.93	-2.31*	99	.04
		Incongruent	3.63	.93			
Language learning effort	Mandarin	Congruent	3.55	.92	-2.40*	99	.06
		Incongruent	3.99	.91			
Ethnolinguistic Vitality $_{Chinese}$		Congruent	4.48	.49	-1.83*	99	.03
		Incongruent	4.66	.48			

**. $p \leq 0.01$ *. $p \leq 0.05$

It should be noted that the differences were found specifically in the Mandarin-related scales, where once again the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants scored higher than the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants. Because the results are in agreement with the implicit preference of the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participant, these findings further clarify the differences between the two groups of participants: an implicit Mandarin preference results in higher scores in the *Ideal Mandarin self*, *Ought to Mandarin self*, *Mandarin learning effort* and a higher perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group. In contrast, there were no significant differences reported for the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants.

These findings unambiguously demonstrate that implicit attitudes play an important part in shaping one's attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community and, in the case of the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants, their implicit Mandarin preference performs a significant role in the formation of their L2 Mandarin selves. In the next section, the analysis will seek to explore if the *type* of implicit preferences translates into further significant differences, that is, if there are further differences between an implicit English and an implicit Mandarin preference.

6.3.6 Implicit English preference versus implicit Mandarin preference

The findings have thus far shown that implicit preferences affect one's explicit attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community. Exploring the role of implicit preferences further, this section seeks to examine if the *type* of implicit preference matters. In order to do so, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed comparing three preference groups. The following stepwise analysis describes the process.

Step 1: The preference groups

In order to allow for a 3-way group comparison, the entire sample was divided by way of their implicit scores:

Positive implicit *D* score	= *Implicit Mandarin preference*
A 0 and/or close to 0 score	= *No preference*
Negative implicit *D* score	= *Implicit English preference*

Three preference groups emerged: a) *Mandarin preference (N = 42)*, b) *no preference (N = 20)* and c) *English preference (N = 40)*. Once these groups were derived, the mean and standard deviations were calculated and the results are reported in Tables 6-19 and 7-20.

Table 6-19: Mean and Standard deviation (in brackets) figures for the Implicit preferential groups (Part 1/2)

D		*N* =	*Proficiency*		*Effort*		*Ideal self*		*Ought self*		*ATTL2*		*ATTL2C*		*ATTLL*	
			Eng	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**
+	Implicit Mandarin preference	42	4.15 (.70)	4.83 (.69)	4.66 (.76)	3.97 (.87)	4.72 (.88)	4.56 (.90)	4.15 (.95)	3.63 (.93)	5.47 (.50)	4.58 (.87)	4.69 (.73)	4.18 (.86)	4.30 (.73)	3.91 (.78)
0	No preference	20	4.05 (1.04)	4.59 (1.02)	4.49 (1.06)	3.87 (.96)	4.75 (1.08)	4.75 (.91)	4.14 (.85)	3.50 (.99)	5.62 (.42)	4.84 (.79)	4.65 (.82)	4.32 (.97)	4.63 (.90)	4.19 (1.04)
-	Implicit English preference	40	4.47 (.71)	4.39 (1.05)	4.90 (.72)	3.55 (.96)	5.12 (.83)	4.26 (1.04)	4.16 (.89)	3.19 (.91)	5.61 (.44)	4.39 (.92)	5.07 (.66)	3.73 (1.16)	4.85 (.80)	3.55 (1.01)
	Total	102														

Table 6-20: Mean and Standard deviation (in brackets) figures for the Implicit preferential groups (Part 2/2)

D		*N* =	*Ethnocentrism*	*FOA*	*EV* *Hong Kong*	*EV* *English*	*EV* *Chinese*	*SDS* *English*	*SDS* *Chinese*
+	Implicit Mandarin preference	42	2.98 (.97)	3.60 (.83)	5.10 (.56)	4.57 (.35)	4.64 (.51)	4.87 (.57)	3.65 (.64)
0	No preference	20	2.75 (1.03)	3.38 (.74)	5.15 (.40)	4.43 (.53)	4.42 (.53)	4.85 (.70)	3.80 (.84)
-	Implicit English preference	40	2.83 (.92)	3.46 (.73)	5.18 (.47)	4.65 (.48)	4.56 (.44)	4.87 (.50)	3.69 (.66)
	Total	102							

To find out if there were significant differences in the means between the three groups, an ANOVA was employed. Several significant differences emerged and the results will be presented later in *Step 3* of this section.

To uncover any significant differences in the explicit dataset, three explicit preference groups were derived. As the present dataset does not consist of participants with an explicit Mandarin preference, the explicit data was divided into the following groups: a) *no explicit preference (N = 33)*, b) *low explicit English preference (N = 33)* and c) *high explicit English preference (N = 35)*. By doing so, the entire sample was divided into approximate thirds. Tables 6-21 and 6-22 report the figures for the three *explicit preference groups*. Once again, an ANOVA was conducted so as to examine if there were significant differences in the means between the three groups, with the results presented in *Step 3* of this section.

Table 6-21: Mean and Standard deviation (in brackets) figures for the Explicit preferential groups (Part 1/2)

D		*N =*	*Proficiency*		*Effort*		*Ideal self*		*Ought self*		*ATTL2*		*ATTL2C*		*ATTLL*	
			Eng	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**	**Eng**	**Man**
0	No preference	33	4.14 (.91)	4.66 (.81)	4.56 (.75)	3.93 (.73)	4.66 (1.08)	4.70 (.70)	4.01 (.97)	3.55 (.98)	5.47 (.54)	4.74 (.71)	4.69 (.68)	4.28 (.92)	4.55 (.84)	3.95 (.93)
-	Low English preference	33	4.25 (.89)	4.51 (1.08)	4.72 (.87)	3.58 (.93)	4.95 (.80)	4.30 (1.09)	4.28 (.82)	3.36 (.83)	5.56 (.40)	4.61 (.79)	4.88 (.63)	3.98 (.98)	4.58 (.71)	3.84 (.91)
-	High English preference	35	4.38 (.57)	4.66 (.89)	4.87 (.84)	3.83 (1.10)	5.05 (.83)	4.45 (1.07)	4.14 (.90)	3.37 (1.03)	5.62 (.46)	4.34 (1.08)	4.93 (.88)	3.83 (1.15)	4.63 (.92)	3.71 (1.04)
	Total	101														

Table 6-22: Mean and Standard deviation (in brackets) figures for the Explicit preferential groups (Part 2/2)

D		*N =*	*Ethnocentrism*	*FOA*	*EV* $_{Hong\ Kong}$	*EV* $_{English}$	*EV* $_{Chinese}$	*SDS* $_{English}$	*SDS* $_{Chinese}$
0	No preference	33	2.76 (.90)	3.34 (.77)	5.07 (.43)	4.52 (.43)	4.46 (.49)	4.47 (.59)	4.10 (.68)
-	Low English preference	33	2.95 (.87)	3.46 (.70)	5.20 (.51)	4.62 (.44)	4.58 (.47)	4.85 (.43)	3.84 (.41)
-	High English preference	35	2.87 (1.09)	3.68 (.82)	5.19 (.49)	4.59 (.48)	4.67 (.50)	5.25 (.39)	3.18 (.47)
	Total	101							

Upon establishing the explicit and implicit preference groups, they were "matched" against one another. Table 6-23 shows the pairings.

Table 6-23: How the explicit and implicit preference groups are matched against each other

Explicit preference groups	matched against	***Implicit preference groups***
No preference ($N = 33$)	→	Mandarin preference ($N = 42$)
Low English preference ($N = 33$)	→	No preference ($N = 20$)
High English preference ($N = 35$)	→	English preference ($N = 40$)
$N = 101$*		$N = 102$

* Missing Explicit SDS data from one participant

Admittedly, such a "match" between the *implicit* and *explicit preference groups* is less than ideal. This is especially so when an explicit Mandarin preference does not exist. However, given the limitations of the dataset, this less than fair "match" will have to suffice. A discussion of this less than ideal pairing will be made later during the summary of the ANOVA findings.

Step 2: Obtaining a relative figure for the motivational variables

In order to manage the data more easily, a relative score for the motivational variables was obtained by subtracting the Mandarin scores from the English scores. For instance, *Relative language proficiency* was derived by way of the following formula:

Relative language proficiency = English proficiency – Mandarin proficiency

Because of how the relative scores were obtained, a positive figure refers to a preference for English while a negative score indicates a preference for Mandarin.

Step 3: ANOVA analysis – significant findings and discussion

An ANOVA was conducted to learn if there are significant differences between the means of the relative scores reported for the three *implicit preference groups* and the full results are presented in Table 6-24.

Table 6-24: ANOVA of the implicit preference groups and the motivational variables (relative scores)

	Means of relative scores				
Motivational variable (English-Mandarin)	***Mandarin preference (N =42)***	***No preference (N = 20)***	***English preference (N = 40)***	***F***	***Effect size***
Relative Proficiency	-.68	-.54	.08	3.39*	.07
Relative Language learning effort	.70	.62	1.35	4.31*	.08
Relative Ideal L2 self	.16	.00	.86	4.50*	.08
Relative Ethnolinguistic Vitality	-.07	.01	.08	.92	
Relative Ought to L2 self	.52	.64	.98	2.49*	.05
Relative Attitudes towards the L2	.89	.78	1.22	1.76	
Relative Attitudes towards the L2 Community	.51	.33	1.35	7.03**	.12
Relative Attitudes towards Language Learning	.40	.44	1.30	5.94**	.11

**. p ≤ 0.01 *. p ≤ 0.05

Note: A positive relative score reflects a preference for English and a negative relative score is in favour of Mandarin

Significant findings were found for these relative scales: *Proficiency*, *Language learning effort, Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, Attitudes towards the L2 Community and Attitudes towards language learning*. A more detailed analysis of these significant results was then conducted and the specific findings are reported in Tables 6-25 to 6-30, respectively. At the same time, ANOVAs were also conducted for the *explicit preference groups* as per the above-mentioned relative scales. These results will be discussed alongside their respective implicit counterparts in Tables 6-25 to 6-30. To conclude this section, a summary of the ANOVA findings will be presented.

a) Language proficiency

As can be seen in Table 6-25, there is a significant difference in the *Language proficiency* of the *implicit preference groups.* The effect size was moderate with an eta squared of .07 and L-S-D post hoc tests showed that the *implicit Mandarin preference* group differed significantly in their language proficiency when compared to the other participants. The other two groups did not differ from each other. Because the negative mean is in favour of the Mandarin language, this result shows that an implicit preference for Mandarin results in a significantly higher proficiency in Mandarin.

With regards to the *explicit preference groups*, the ANOVA results show no significant difference amongst these three groups. This demonstrates that when compared to implicit preferences, explicit preferences do not predict one's language proficiency.

Table 6-25: ANOVA –Language proficiency of the implicit and explicit preference groups

Implicit preference groups	***Mandarin preference (N =42)***	***No preference (N = 20)***	***English preference (N = 40)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	-.68	-.54	.08	3.39*	.07
Explicit preference groups	***No preference (N = 33)***	***Low English preference (N = 33)***	***High English preference (N =35)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	-.52	-.26	-.28	.37	.00

*. $p \leq 0.05$

b) Language learning effort

The ANOVA results in Table 6-26 show a significant difference in the *Language learning effort* amongst the three *implicit preference* groups. The effect size was moderate (eta squared = .08) and S-N-K post hoc tests showed that the *implicit English preference* group exhibited a significant difference in their language learning effort when compared to the other two implicit preference groups. Because a positive mean is in favour of the English language, this result thus shows that the English learning effort is significantly different for the *implicit English preference group* to that of the other two groups.

Likewise, an ANOVA was conducted for the *explicit preference groups*. No significant difference was found between the *explicit preference groups*. Together, the findings show that when compared against implicit preferences, explicit preferences do not play a part in the participants' language learning effort.

Table 6-26: ANOVA – Language learning effort of the implicit and explicit preference groups

Implicit preference groups	***Mandarin preference (N =42)***	***No preference (N = 20)***	***English preference (N = 40)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.70	.62	1.35	4.31*	.08
Explicit preference groups	***No preference (N = 33)***	***Low English preference (N = 33)***	***High English preference (N =35)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.63	1.14	1.05	1.78	.04

*. $P \leq 0.05$

c) Ideal L2 self

With regards to the *Ideal L2 self*, the ANOVA results in Table 6-27 show significant differences for both the *explicit* and *implicit preference groups*. A significant difference was found within the *implicit preference groups*. The effect size was moderate at eta squared .08 and S-N-K post hoc tests show that the *implicit English preference* group differed significantly to the other two groups.

The ANOVA analysis was repeated with the *explicit preference groups* and results also showed a significant difference in the three groups. There was a moderate effect size of .06 and post hoc L-S-D tests showed that the explicit *high English preference* differed significantly to that of the other two explicit preference groups. These findings demonstrate that the *Ideal L2 self* (in this case, specifically, the *Ideal English self*) is moderated by both explicit and implicit English preferences.

Table 6-27: ANOVA – Ideal L2 self of the implicit and explicit preference groups

Relative Ideal L2 self:

Implicit preference groups	***Mandarin preference (N =42)***	***No preference (N = 20)***	***English preference (N = 40)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.16	.00	.86	4.50*	.08
Explicit preference groups	***No preference (N = 33)***	***Low English preference (N = 33)***	***High English preference (N =35)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	-.04	.65	.60	3.00*	.06

*. $p \leq 0.05$

d) Ought-to self

Table 6-28 presents the ANOVA results for the *Ought-to self* which showed a significant difference between the *implicit preference groups*. The effect size was small with an eta squared of .05 and L-S-D post hoc tests showed that the implicit *Mandarin preference* group differed significantly in their language ought-to self when compared to the other participants. The two other groups did not differ from each other significantly.

The positive mean is favourable of the *English* language and this is an interesting finding as it contradicts the participants' implicit *Mandarin* preference. That is, based on this finding, the implicitly Mandarin-inclined participants somewhat feel obliged to do better at English. Because the explanation for this result is better understood when the ANOVA results are processed as a whole, the interpretation of this finding will be discussed later in the summary of this section.

In contrast, the ANOVA results for the *explicit preference groups* showed no significant difference amongst the three groups. This demonstrates that when compared to implicit preferences, explicit preferences do not predict one's ought-to language self.

Table 6-28: ANOVA – Ought-to L2 self of the implicit and explicit preference groups

Relative Ought-to L2 self

Implicit preference groups	***Mandarin preference (N =42)***	***No preference (N = 20)***	***English preference (N = 40)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.52	.64	.98	2.50*	.05
Explicit preference groups	***No preference (N = 33)***	***Low English preference (N = 33)***	***High English preference (N =35)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.46	.77	.92	2.02	.04

*. $p \leq 0.10$

d) Attitudes towards the L2 community

ANOVA results for *Attitudes towards the L2 community* in Table 6-29 showed a significant difference between the *implicit preference* groups. There was a moderate effect size of eta squared = .12 and the post hoc S-N-K test revealed that the *implicit English preference* group differed significantly when compared to the other two implicit preference groups. This positive relative mean is in line with the groups implicit preference for English. In comparison, the ANOVA results for the *explicit preference groups* revealed no significant difference.

These results show that when compared to explicit preferences, one's implicit preferences influence one's attitudes towards the L2 community. This result corroborates the earlier results presented in Section 6.3.5. In this case, when compared to the other two *implicit preference groups*, participants with an implicit English preference are more receptive towards the English L2 community.

Table 6-29: ANOVA – Attitudes towards the L2 community of the implicit and explicit preference groups

Implicit preference groups	***Mandarin preference (N =42)***	***No preference (N = 20)***	***English preference (N = 40)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.51	.33	1.35	7.03**	.12
Explicit preference groups	***No preference (N = 33)***	***Low English preference (N = 33)***	***High English preference (N =35)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.41	.90	1.10	2.80^	.05

**. $p \leq 0.01$ ^ $p \leq .10$

e) Attitudes towards language learning

The ANOVA results for the *Attitudes towards the L2 language* in Table 6-30 showed a significant difference between the *implicit preference* groups. There was a moderate effect size of eta squared = .11 and post hoc S-N-K test showed that the *implicit English preference* group differed significantly when compared to the other two implicit preference groups.

This finding demonstrates that implicit preferences play a part in one's attitudes towards language learning. That is, when compared to the other two groups, the participants with an *implicit English preference* are more receptive towards English language learning. Once again, the ANOVA results showed no significant differences between the *explicit preference groups*; demonstrating that explicit preferences do not moderate one's attitudes towards the L2 language.

Table 6-30: ANOVA – Attitudes towards language learning of the implicit and explicit preference groups

Implicit preference groups	***Mandarin preference (N =42)***	***No preference (N = 20)***	***English preference (N = 40)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.40	.44	1.30	5.94**	.11
Explicit preference groups	***No preference (N = 33)***	***Low English preference (N = 33)***	***High English preference (N =35)***	***F***	***Effect size***
	.60	.75	.91	.47	.00

**. $p \leq 0.01$

Summary of ANOVA findings

The findings presented in this section show that implicit preferences play a significant role in moderating one's attitudes towards language learning. The results show that an implicit preference for Mandarin predicts a higher *Mandarin language proficiency* and *Ought-to English self* while an implicit preference for English results in a higher *Ideal English self*, *English learning effort*, *Attitudes towards the English community* and *Attitudes towards English language learning*. In comparison, apart from the significant difference found in the *Ideal L2 self* scale, on a whole, explicit preferences do not significantly influence the outcome of the above-mentioned variables.

Table 6-31 provides a visual representation of the findings. The groups that differ significantly are represented by the vertical lines.

Table 6-31: Visual representation of ANOVA findings

	Implicit preference groups			***Explicit preference groups***		
	Mandarin preference (N =42)	*No preference (N = 20)*	*English preference (N = 40)*	*No preference (N = 33)*	*Low English preference (N = 33)*	*High English preference (N =35)*
Language proficiency				-	-	-
Language learning effort				-	-	-
Ideal L2 self						
Ought-to L2 self				-	-	-
Attitudes towards the L2 Community				-	-	-
Attitudes towards language learning				-	-	-

Several observations can be made from the visual representations. The first concerns the significant relationship between an *implicit Mandarin preference* and the *Ought-to English L2 self*. As mentioned earlier, this is an interesting finding as the positive mean (in favour of the English language) contradicts the participants' implicit preference for Mandarin. Table 6-31 shows that apart from the *Ought-to self*, the other variable that demonstrated significance in one's *implicit Mandarin preferenc*e was the *Language proficiency* variable. It was at this commonality that the analysis looked for an interpretation.

Recalling that the data showed that an implicit preference for *Mandarin* results in a significantly higher proficiency in *Mandarin*, the *Ought-to* self in favour of *English* begins to make sense: as the implicitly Mandarin-inclined participants already demonstrate a higher proficiency in Mandarin, there is no need for them to 'do better' for Mandarin. In comparison, they feel obliged to 'do better' at English. Consequently, this results in the development of their higher ought-to English L2 self.

It was mentioned earlier that a "comparison" between the *implicit preference* and *explicit preference groups* is one that is less than ideal. However, this analytical limitation did not hinder this stage of the analysis. Instead, significant results emerged from this less than ideal division and comparison.

Taking into consideration that significant differences were found in the implicit *English* preference groups but not in the explicit low and high *English* preference groups, this observation is particularly telling of the limitations of explicit self-report data. Once again, the results demonstrate the need for an implicit dimension in L2 motivation research.

> *Finding 6: Implicit preferences play a significant role in moderating learner motivation. Specific to this dataset, the impact is seen in the participants' Language proficiency, Language learning effort, Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, Attitudes towards the L2 community and Attitudes towards language learning. In contrast, the explicit preference was only associated with a significant finding with regard to the Ideal L2 self. Taken together, implicit preferences were found to be better at predicting language learner motivation than their explicit counterparts.*

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented the results of the first ever study of the implicit and explicit attitudes towards two foreign languages within the triglossic environment of Hong Kong. Several key findings were presented and they will be discussed in turn.

The first research question that this study sought to answer concerned the congruence or incongruence of the Hong Kong participants' implicit and explicit attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages. The results show that the dataset is made up of an almost equal number of congruent (47.52%) and incongruent (52.48%) participants. The congruent participants were characterised by an explicit and implicit English preference while the incongruent participants displayed an explicit English and implicit Mandarin preference. The findings show that the bulk of the incongruence was of a weak strength (77.36%) and that the dissonance found in the participants' attitudes is not related to their study major.

In an attempt to understand the correlational relationship between the motivational variables and to learn if there were any differences between the two groups of participants (i.e. congruent and incongruent), it was revealed that the implicit attitudes of the incongruent $_{English\text{-}Mandarin}$ participants were affected by *Ethnocentrism* whereas the congruent $_{English\text{-}English}$ participants were implicitly motivated by either *Fear of Assimilation* or their perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group.

Based on the independent t-tests, it was found that implicit attitudes moderated one's explicit attitudes towards the L2 language and the L2 community. The results showed that an implicit preference for English resulted in a more positive disposition towards the English language and the English community, and in a similar vein, that an implicit preference for Mandarin resulted in an inclination towards the Mandarin language and the Chinese community.

A comparison of different preference groups by means of ANOVA revealed that the "type" of implicit preference mattered and, compared to explicit attitudes, it was more accurate in predicting the outcomes of several motivational variables. Specific to the present dataset, an implicit preference for Mandarin was found to result in a higher *Mandarin proficiency* and *Ought-to English self*. In comparison, an implicit preference for English was found to predict higher scores in the participants'

Ideal English self, *English language learning effort*, *Attitudes towards the English L2 community* and *Attitudes towards English language learning*. In contrast, the explicit dataset reflected only one significant relationship between the high English preference group and the *Ideal English self*.

As seen consistently in this chapter, significant results were found in the implicit dataset but not in the explicit dataset, which highlights the limitations of explicit self-reports. Traditionally, motivation research has relied on explicit self-reports; however, the results presented in this chapter suggest that a reinterpretation is necessary in this respect. Further implications and limitations of these findings will be discussed later in *the final Conclusion* of this thesis.

In conclusion, the findings presented in this chapter have demonstrated the importance of implicit attitudes in language learning and thus the study has succeeded in what it set out to achieve, namely to provide support for the need to include implicit attitudes in future research paradigms.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

The objective of this thesis was to argue for an implicit focus in L2 motivation research through the exemplification of Hong Kong as a research location and this was conducted on the back of some antecedents which provided the foundation for the *Main Study*. As with any quantitative study, the *Main study* was built on a thorough review of the literature and the piloting of instruments and procedure. However, due to the unusual nature of this thesis which concerns a) a new theoretical domain – unconscious motivation and b) the “innovative” instrument used, both the literature review (*Chapter Two*) and the Qualitative Pilot Study (*Chapter Five*) were elaborated on more extensively than usually warranted.

The *Main Study* of this thesis was made up of two components: a traditional questionnaire and an implicit component. In this final chapter, Section 7.1 seeks to consolidate the key findings and to discuss the implications of the results. Section 7.2, then, considers the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research before this thesis concludes with implications for theory and future research in Section 7.3.

7.1 Summary of key findings

In the literature review presented in *Chapter Two,* an empirical understanding of the methodological and theoretical trends that occurred in the past decade was provided. A dataset made up of 416 publications published between 2005-2014 was compiled and, from it, several L2 methodological and theoretical trends were identified.

The findings reflected the unprecedented boom in published studies from the field in which a corresponding growth for both motivatION and motivatING studies was revealed. These studies were found to consist mostly of college/university students and investigated language learners that were made up of mainly Chinese (16.12%) and Japanese (9.25%) nationalities. Given that the profile of the research audience is made up of mostly East Asian learners of English, it is unsurprising that 72.67% of the empirical studies were committed to the study of English. However, in view of the ‘multilingual turn’ in the field of SLA, this skewed focus on English has become a theoretical concern for two reasons: a) the field's theoretical understanding has been affected by the L2-specific bias and b) there has been insufficient attention paid to language learning other than that of mastering Global English.

Regarding research methodology, the literature review shows that while quantitative approaches remain as a strong research preference, there has been a considerable increase in qualitative studies across the years. In addition, there has also been an emergence of "innovative" methodological approaches recently. In terms of theoretical developments, the results confirm the currently dominant status of the L2MSS framework and highlight its contribution to cultivating a creative and innovative research environment within the field.

Specific to this thesis, there were several key implications of significance. Mainly, the identification of the lack of any investigations into implicit aspects of L2 motivation. This research lacuna, thus, shaped the premise for the current thesis which seeks to argue for the inclusion of a subconscious dimension of L2 motivation.

Besides this main objective, there was another sub-goal: to employ the use of "innovative" research methods. This inclusion was considered because of the need to consider new channels for empirical investigations so as to gain better insights into learner motivation. To achieve this sub-goal, the application of the *Implicit Association Test* as a research tool was incorporated in the design of the *Main Study*.

Prior to the *Main Study*, a *Qualitative Pilot* was conducted. This was so as to determine if Hong Kong would be a viable location for unconscious motivation research. The results show that indeed, Hong Kong is loaded with ethnolinguistic tension and various motivational undercurrents. Apart from documenting the factors that contribute to Hong Kong's complex language attitudinal terrain, it was also for personal reasons that this confirmatory study was carried out. That is, as a non-Hong Kong native, my understanding of Hong Kong was limited to what I had read in the literature and while I had intuited that Hong Kong would be a viable location for my research, I needed to confirm my hypothesis.

The pilot interviews provided an overview of the participants' attitudes towards the three main co-existing languages in the city. Cantonese was found to be synonymous with the Hong Kong identity, which is in line with Hong Kong's status as *the* 'Cantonese city' (Harrison & So, 1997). Regarding English, it was found that it was seen as a superior language and was associated with prestige and professional opportunities. In comparison, Mandarin was considered to hold little relevance to the participants' everyday lives and, on the whole, feelings towards the Mandarin language were "complicated".

Upon further investigation, it was found that *Fear of Assimilation* was the main reason behind the participants' lacklustre attitudes towards Mandarin. That is, there exists a prevalent concern that the Cantonese language – more generally, the related Hong Kong identity – will be subsumed into greater China. The findings show that this fear was underscored by the perceived high *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Mainland Chinese groups. To unpack the nature of this fear, the dataset was interpreted based on the three factors of *Status*, *Demography* and *Institutional support and control*.

It was found that *status-wise,* the participants are generally unconcerned about China's growing global status. That is, despite their recognition of China's growing international role and economic presence, the participants are of the opinion that Hong Kong holds an edge over China. This is because they think of the Chinese to be "less civilised" than the Hong Kong people.

In contrast, *demography* turned out to be a key concern. The participants explained that this is due to the responsibility placed on them to speak Mandarin when interacting with the Chinese because they had learnt it in school. They feel that this expectation is "unfair" and that they are being disrespected in their own home. Consequently, the increased Chinese population is a key concern as it is associated with the increase of this "unfair responsibility", which in turn is perceived as a lead-up to the decreased use of Cantonese and a dilution of the Hong Kong identity.

Further exacerbating this unhappiness is the perceived *institutional support* that Mandarin is receiving. This discontent is fuelled by two factors. First, the Guangzhou incident has been seen as an example of how the Chinese government is attempting to eradicate Cantonese, and secondly, the changes made to the *Medium of Instruction* policy that are perceived to be subversive attempts at eroding the Cantonese language.

From these findings, *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* emerged as a crucial role in the understanding of the Hong Kong participants' attitudes towards the three languages. On the back of this awareness, the Subjective Vitality Questionnaire (Bourhis et al., 1981) – which measures a group member's own and salient outgroups' ethnolinguistic vitality – was included in the *Main Study*. Together, these findings presented an insight into the complexities underscoring Hong Kong's unique and emotionally loaded linguistic environment.

Having confirmed Hong Kong's suitability as a research location, a more systematic quantitative study was designed to further explore the Hong Kong situation. Besides finding out more about the motivational foundation of the language situation in Hong Kong, a more general purpose of the *Main Study* was also to make a case for including implicit attitudes in L2 motivation research. The study consisted of a two-part design: an explicit questionnaire and an implicit component that utilised the *Implicit Association Test*.

The study first sought to establish the extent of congruence and incongruence in the participants' explicit and implicit attitudes towards English and Mandarin. The results revealed that the dataset – which comprised of English and Mandarin university majors – was indeed, made up of congruent and incongruent groups of participants. The congruent group displayed an explicit and implicit preference for English whereas the incongruent group was characterised by an explicit preference for English and an implicit preference for Mandarin.

A breakdown of the frequency figures show that 92.31% of the participants expressed an explicit preference for the English language while 52.38% showed an implicit preference towards the Mandarin language. Taking into consideration the expressed interest in English and the less than enthusiastic feelings expressed towards Mandarin, this explicit-implicit dissonance is particularly interesting as it goes against the overall trend reported in the qualitative study. This finding demonstrates the biased nature of self-reports in that explicitly expressed attitudes provide only one dimension of understanding learner attitudes and, thus, they should not be accepted as the whole truth. With the identification of this dissonance, the primary objective of the research focus of the thesis was met.

In an effort to understand the motivational constructs of the participants better, correlational analyses were conducted for the entire sample. Overall, the findings demonstrated that the items in the explicit survey worked together in a coherent manner. Through the inverse relationships between *Attitudes towards English language learning* and the Mandarin-related scales, the data revealed an attitudinal incompatibility between the two languages. At the same time, the findings showed that the learning of English was moderated by *Ethnocentrism* while attitudes towards the Mandarin language were impacted by one's *Fear of Assimilation.* Finally, a "defensive mechanism" where the participants employ the use of Mandarin to offset any perceived increase in the *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the English group in Hong Kong was also detected. Unfortunately, due to the limited dataset, it was impossible to further analyse and explore this point. This will be picked up later in Section 7.2 as a recommendation for future research.

To learn how these findings affected the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ and congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants, separate correlational analyses were conducted for each group. The results showed that the implicit preferences presented associations that were not detected at the explicit level. For instance, although it was observed earlier (from the correlation analysis of the entire sample) that *Ethnocentrism* and *Fear of Assimilation* were moderators of attitudes towards the English and Mandarin languages, the separate incongruent and congruent correlation matrixes pick up on the fact that *only* the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants were implicitly motivated by *Ethnocentrism* and that *only* the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants were affected by *Fear of Assimilation*. Furthermore, and more specifically, the analysis of the implicit preferences revealed that the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ participants were motivated either by fear or by the perceived status of the Chinese group. That is, dependent on the main source of their motivation, they became, respectively, more or less inclined towards the English language. These findings demonstrate how the implicit data allowed for more depth and a better understanding of the motivational psyche of the participants.

Results from independent t-test statistics between the congruent $_{\text{English-English}}$ and incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ subsamples show that the participants' attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community were consistent with their implicit preferences. It was also found that the implicit Mandarin preference of the incongruent $_{\text{English-Mandarin}}$ participants plays a significant role in the formation of their L2 Mandarin selves. These findings demonstrate the impact of implicit attitudes on learner dispositions in general, and once again, they provide support for the inclusion of implicit attitudes in L2 motivation research.

In order to examine if the specific *type* of implicit preference matters, the implicit data were separated into three different preference groups: *implicit Mandarin preference*, *no preference* and *implicit English preference.* To allow for a comparison, the explicit data were also divided into three groups: *no explicit preference*, *low explicit English preference* and *high explicit English preference*. The implicit and explicit preference groups were matched against each other before ANOVAs were conducted.

The results show that an implicit preference for Mandarin was found to result in a higher *Mandarin proficiency* and *Ought-to English self* and an implicit preference for English was found to be a predictor of higher scores in the participants' *Ideal English self*, *English language learning effort*, *Attitudes towards the English L2 community* and *Attitudes towards the English language learning*. With regards to the explicit preference groups, only one significant result emerged: the *Ideal English L2 self* was moderated by an explicit English preference. The absence of any other significant findings from the explicit dataset was particularly conspicuous and highlighted the insufficiency of explicit self-reports. When taken as a whole, the ANOVA results revealed that, when compared to explicit preferences, implicit preferences in Hong Kong were found to be more accurate at predicting language learning motivation.

In sum, the findings from the *Main Study* have demonstrated the following five key points:

- The Hong Kong participants are made up of two groups in terms of their language disposition towards English and Mandarin: *congruent* and *incongruent*.
- The incongruent group is characterised by an explicit English preference and an implicit Mandarin preference. This finding goes not only against the overall trend that was reported previously in *Study Two* but also the results of the quantitative component of *Study Three*. The observed discrepancies demonstrate the insufficient nature of explicit self-reports.
- By separating the participants based on their degree of implicit preference, the data revealed more depth into the motivational psyche of the participants. Most notably by the fact that the congruent participants were motivated by *both* fear *and* their perceived *Ethnolinguistic Vitality* of the Chinese group. This distinction was not, again, reflected at the explicit level.
- *Attitudes towards the L2* and *Attitudes towards the L2 communities* are impacted by implicit attitudes. With regards to the incongruent participants, the data showed that their implicit Mandarin preference performed a significant role in the formation of their overall L2 Mandarin selves

- Implicit attitudes are significant predictors of language learning motivation, an association that could – understandably – not be reflected at the explicit level.

Together, these findings fulfil the objectives set forth at the beginning of this thesis and demonstrate that in order to achieve a holistic understanding of language learners, there is a need for an implicit dimension in L2 motivation research.

7.2 Limitations and suggestions for future research

The results presented in this thesis have highlighted the importance of implicit attitudes. However, due to several decisions made during the design of the study, there are, inevitably, several limitations.

The first pertains to the group sampled. This, unfortunately, was the result of a trade-off I had to make as a self-funded PhD student. To explain, while the choice of Hong Kong as a research location was based on a principled decision, it was however not one that was based on convenience.

During my PhD, I travelled twice to Hong Kong for data collection: once, for the qualitative pilot and again, for the *Main Study*. Although I had reached out to a couple of contacts so as to obtain ethics clearance to conduct research on university grounds, as a non-Hong Kong native, I did not have any real contacts.

As mentioned previously in *Chapter Five*, my original intention was to collect data from a diverse group of participants of different study majors. For example, from that of Mathematics and Physical Education majors where the use of English and Mandarin is assumed to be not as 'critical' as that of English and Chinese majors. However, when faced with the realities of data collection in Hong Kong, I had to make the final decision to collect data from only English and Chinese majors. To this day, I am relieved that I managed to meet the threshold on my last day of data collection and that the present dataset worked as a coherent whole.

Therefore, because of the specific demographics of the participants in the present dataset, (i.e. English and Chinese majors who are aiming to become future English and Chinese teachers), a limitation of the findings presented in this thesis would be in its generalisability. It would certainly be interesting to learn how students from other majors feel and if they would display similar (or different) attitudes towards the two languages. If presented with the opportunity, this is certainly an area that I would like to explore and expand on in the future. Notwithstanding, because of the specific demographics of the participants in the present dataset, (i.e. English and Chinese majors who are aiming to become future English and Chinese teachers) the findings presented in this thesis are nevertheless interesting as they provide an indication of the attitudes that these future language teachers would bring into their classrooms. Future investigations into the implicit attitudes of language teachers (in particular, teachers whose explicit-implicit attitudes are incongruent) and the implications of such dissonance in the language classroom will certainly be an interesting venture.

Apart from looking at the different study majors, continuing within the context of Hong Kong, further research could be done with working adults of different professions and with participants of different age groups to learn if they display similar (or different) attitudes towards the two languages. Such investigations could also potentially shed more light on the "defensive mechanism" deployed against English (see *Chapter Six*, Section 6.3.3). Also, this study could be replicated in different language contexts (e.g. multilingual and diglossic environments) and with different target groups. By conducting more implicit L2 studies, confirmatory analysis can be carried out and this will allow for a better understanding into how explicit and implicit attitudes converge or diverge in their paths.

At the same time, an area that was not explored in this thesis was the malleability of attitudes (see *Chapter Three* for a recap). Based on research on intergroup attitudes and intergroup contact theory, it was found that negative intergroup attitudes can be mediated not only by direct but also indirect contact by way of imagined contact between the ingroup and the outgroup. According to Crisp and Turner (2009):

> Imagined intergroup contact is the mental simulation of a social interaction with a member or members of an outgroup category. The basic idea is that mentally simulating a positive contact experience activates concepts normally associated with successful interactions with members of other groups. These can include feeling more comfortable and less apprehensive about the prospect of future contact with the group, and this reduced anxiety should reduce negative outgroup attitudes. (p. 234)

The use of imagery has been explored in the language classroom and in a study that looked at the use of vision in the Hong Kong language classroom, it was found that most Hong Kong students “found it relatively easy to visualise situations involving themselves using English in the future” (Magid & Chan, 2012, p. 11). On the back of the findings presented in this thesis, a potential follow-up study could be to investigate if this “relative ease” could also be applicable implicitly in the attitudes towards the two languages and their respective speaker groups. By way of the malleable nature of implicit attitudes, pedagogical implications could be potentially derived.

7.3 Implications for theory and future research

This thesis began with the intention to put forth a case for an implicit dimension to L2 motivation research and, by way of the significant results reported in this thesis, this objective was achieved. During the process of demonstrating the importance of implicit attitudes, it was inevitably necessary to highlight several inadequacies of explicit self-reports which ultimately, leaves open two main questions: a) the issue of measurability in L2 motivation research and b) the issue of motivation theory in general. That is, how are we empirically studying motivation if self-reports are wanting? At the same time, how are we to account for the theory of motivation which was almost entirely based on the assumption of consciousness and agency when this ‘agency’ is to some extent restricted by the subconscious. These points were similarly raised by Dornyei (2020) where in his discussion on unconscious research, he highlighted the theoretical viability of a one-sided perspective on motivation and the push-pull effect on one’s motivation in the presence of an implicit-explicit dissonance.

Unfortunately, these questions are beyond the scope of the present thesis and admittedly, I do not have the answers. However, my personal view is consistent with that of Bargh and his colleagues (see *Chapter Three* for a recap) that it is the cooperation of *both* the explicit and implicit that directs human behaviour. Similarly, I agree with Dornyei (2020) that there is need for a substantial change of research perspective in the field of L2 motivation.

In conclusion, it is my hope that by having demonstrated the importance of implicit attitudes (albeit only in the context of Hong Kong), this thesis has provided the field with some starting points for a more principled examination of this broad theoretical issue within the confines of SLA.

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Appendices

Appendix A – A complete list of the 416 pieces of work that made up the dataset used in *Study One*.

Aboshiha, P. (2013). 'Native Speaker' English language teachers: Disengaged from the changing international landscape of their profession. In E. Ushioda (Ed.), *International Perspectives on Motivation* (pp. 216–232). Palgrave Macmillan.

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Appendix B – Project Information Sheet and Informed Consent Form for Study Two

Project Information Sheet

1. You are invited to take part in the study titled *"Understanding Hong Kong language learners' attitudes towards English and Mandarin language learning"*. This study is conducted for the purpose of my PhD thesis and it is supervised by Professor Zoltán Dörnyei, School of English, University of Nottingham, (zoltan.dornyei@nottingham.ac.uk).

2. The purpose of this study is to investigate Hong Kong language learners' attitudes towards English and Mandarin language learning. By participating in this study, you will be contributing to greater insights into the motivations and attitudes of Hong Kong language learners.

3. This study is made up of two components. The first section is made up of a qualitative interview (focus group/individual). Following that, there will be a short background questionnaire where participants select their options from a list of items. For ease of analysis, the interview will be audio-recorded and transcribed at a later point. In the event where the excerpts of the interview are quoted, your name will be replaced by a pseudonym.

4. There are no known risks or hazards involved in your participation. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact the researcher, Zann Boo (zann.boo@nottingham.ac.uk). If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the School Ethics Office, Dr. Gareth Carrol (gareth.carrol@nottingham.ac.uk).

5. Your participation is voluntary. At any time, you have a right to withdraw from the study. Also, after the data is collected, you may request that the data not be used. If you choose to withdraw from the study or ask that the data not be used, please notify the researcher by way of an email.

6. This study will be conducted under strict confidentiality and the information obtained in the study will be used for research purposes only and will not be shared with anyone else. While reporting the findings, participants' names will be replaced by pseudonyms. Also, digital information will be kept on a password-protected computer and physical data (e.g., pen and paper forms) will be kept in a locked-cabinet in the researcher's office.

Informed Consent Form

Yes ☐	No ☐	I confirm that the purpose of the study has been explained and that I have understood it
Yes ☐	No ☐	I have had the opportunity to ask questions and they have been successfully answered
Yes ☐	No ☐	I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving a reason and without consequence
Yes ☐	No ☐	I understand that all data are anonymous and that there will not be any connection between the personal information provided and the data
Yes ☐	No ☐	I understand that there are no known risks or hazards associated with participating in this study
Yes ☐	No ☐	I confirm that I am over 16 years of age
Yes ☐	No ☐	I consent to my data being transcribed and wish to be referred to anonymously in written forms of dissemination
Yes ☐	No ☐	I confirm that I have read and understood the above information and that I agree to participate in this study

Participant's Name: ________________ Signature: ________________

Researcher's Signature: __________________ Date: ________________

Appendix C – Sample interview questions for *Study Two*

Sample interview questions:

1. Please tell me how you feel about Cantonese/English/Mandarin.
2. Do you like/dislike these three languages (i.e. Cantonese, English, and Mandarin), why?
3. Consider these three languages and discuss what they mean to you in terms of their roles and importance in your daily life.
4. Did you enjoy learning English/Mandarin?
5. What were some of the difficulties you faced in learning the language(s)?

Background Questionnaire:

1. Please select your gender: ☐ M ☐ F
2. Please select your age group: ☐ 16-20, ☐ 21-25, ☐ 26- 30
3. How many years have you studied English? ___ years ___ months
4. How many years have you studied Mandarin? ___ years __ months

Appendix D – Project Information Sheet and Informed Consent Form for Study Three

Project Information Sheet

1. You are invited to take part in the study titled *"Understanding the conscious-subconscious dimension of language learning within the Hong Kong context"*. This study is conducted for the purpose of my PhD thesis and it is supervised by Professor Zoltán Dörnyei, School of English, University of Nottingham, (zoltan.dornyei@nottingham.ac.uk).

2. The purpose of this study is to investigate Hong Kong language learners' attitudes towards English and Mandarin language learning. By participating in this study, you will be contributing to greater insights into the motivations and attitudes of Hong Kong language learners.

3. This study is made up of two components. The first section is made up of a traditional questionnaire where participants select their preferences from a list of items (on a scale of 1-6). Following that, there will be an interesting computerised time-response task which seeks to learn your strength of association between two categories: "English" and "Chinese".

4. There are no known risks or hazards involved in your participation. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact the researcher, Zann Boo (zann.boo@nottingham.ac.uk). If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the School Ethics Office, Dr. Dominic Thompson (lpzdt@exmail.nottingham.ac.uk).

5. To thank you for your participation, you will be paid an inconvenience fee of £5.

6. Your participation is voluntary. At any time, you have a right to withdraw from the study. Also, after the data is collected, you may request that the data not be used. If you choose to withdraw from the study or ask that the data not be used, please notify the researcher by way of an email.

7. This study will be conducted under strict confidentiality and the information obtained in the study will be used for research purposes only and will not be shared with anyone else. While reporting the findings, participants' names will be replaced by pseudonyms. Also, digital information will be kept on a password-protected computer and physical data (e.g., pen and paper forms) will be kept in a locked-cabinet in the researcher's office.

Informed Consent Form

Yes ☐	No ☐	I confirm that the purpose of the study has been explained and that I have understood it
Yes ☐	No ☐	I have had the opportunity to ask questions and they have been successfully answered
Yes ☐	No ☐	I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving a reason and without consequence
Yes ☐	No ☐	I understand that all data are anonymous and that there will not be any connection between the personal information provided and the data
Yes ☐	No ☐	I understand that there are no known risks or hazards associated with participating in this study
Yes ☐	No ☐	I confirm that I am over 16 years of age
Yes ☐	No ☐	I consent to my data being transcribed and wish to be referred to anonymously in written forms of dissemination
Yes ☐	No ☐	I confirm that I have read and understood the above information and that I agree to participate in this study

Participant's Name: ________________ Signature: ________________

Researcher's Signature: __________________ Date: ________________

Appendix E – Questionnaire (English version) for Study Three*

LANGUAGE ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for taking the time to take part in this survey. Your responses are very much valued.

This is a questionnaire to better understand the attitudes of Hong Kong people towards English and Mandarin. The survey is completely confidential and as there are no right or wrong answers, you can be as honest as you like! In fact, if you decide in the end that you would prefer not to participate in this survey, you can choose to opt out without any consequences. In total, there are 4 Sections and it will take approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to complete the entire survey.

SECTION 1A

In this Section, please indicate your response by circling a number from 1 to 6. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask the researcher. Otherwise, please start whenever you are ready. Please complete EVERY SINGLE question. Thank you!

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Example:	CHOCOLATE						ICE-CREAM					
I like chocolate/ice-cream very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

		ENGLISH						MANDARIN					
1	I feel that time passes quickly while studying English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I wish I had more time to improve on my English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I make an extra effort to improve on my English/Mandarin (e.g. making a conscious effort to sound 'right').	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I find learning English/Mandarin interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	There is pressure from my family to do well in English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I wish I could make more native English-speaking/ native Mandarin-speaking (Mainland) friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	It excites me when I make progress in learning English/Mandarin (e.g. learning a new word).	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I never feel bored when learning English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I enjoy interacting with native English-speakers/ native Mandarin-speakers (Mainland).	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I would like to learn more about the native English-speaking community / native Mandarin-speaking (Mainland) community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Personally, knowing English/Mandarin is a good skill to have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I feel a strong (positive) connection to the native English-speaking community / native Mandarin-speaking (Mainland) community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

1 of 9

* The Chinese version of this questionnaire was administered during the data collection. It is available upon request.

		ENGLISH						MANDARIN					
13	Compared to the other languages of the world, learning English/Mandarin is worth my effort and time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I imagine that I can understand and use English/Mandarin like how a native speaker can.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I ought-to do well in English/Mandarin because I would feel ashamed if I can't use it well	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I can imagine a situation where I am doing business with foreigners by speaking English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I ought-to do well in English/Mandarin because it is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I can imagine myself in the future having a discussion with foreign friends in English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I like the native English people / native Chinese (Mainland) people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	The English/Mandarin language is relevant in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	The native English-speaking community / native Mandarin-speaking (Mainland) community are open-minded and modern people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	English/Mandarin is an important tool in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I study English/Mandarin because my close friends/family members think it is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I am prepared to expend a lot of effort to improve my English/Mandarin	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Despite a long day at work/school, I am still willing to make time for English/Mandarin learning (even if it is just for half an hour).	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I consciously make an effort to learn English/Mandarin (e.g. memorising a vocabulary list).	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I imagine myself as someone who is fluent in English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I enjoy the English/Mandarin learning process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	My family will be disappointed if I don't master English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I imagine myself as a proficient speaker of English/Mandarin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Knowing English/Mandarin well gives the impression of being more educated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

Excellent! Now, please move on to the next section!

SECTION 1B

Similarly, in this Section, please indicate your response by circling a number from 1 to 6.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

32	I think the interest in the native-English speaking communities has a negative influence on the Hong Kong identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I would like it if others adopted the Hong Kong way of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	The greatest danger for Hong Kong citizens is in the loss of their cultural identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	I fear that the future generation will not know what it means to be Hong Kong-ese.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I think the interest in the native-Chinese (Mainland) community has a negative influence on the Hong Kong identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I respect the values and customs of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	The interest in the native-Mandarin speaking (Mainland) community is a threat to the Hong Kong identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	There are many values and customs that I like in other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	The interest in the native-English speaking communities is a threat to the Hong Kong identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	I trust people with different customs and values to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	I relate better towards people from a similar cultural mindset.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	I find it difficult to work with people who have a different cultural background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	I find it difficult to comprehend the values and customs of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	I find it difficult to work together with people who have different customs and values.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION 2

In this Section, please answer EACH question by circling a number from 1 to 7. Identical ratings given to two groups on any items will mean you regard the two groups as equal on the same item.

Example: How healthy are the following items?											
	Chocolate	Unhealthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Healthy
	Ice-cream	Unhealthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Healthy

46	Estimate the proportion of the Hong Kong population made up of the following groups.	English-speaking natives	0%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	100%
		Native mainland Chinese	0%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	100%
		Hong Kong natives	0%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	100%

47	How highly regarded are the following languages in Hong Kong?	Mandarin	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely highly
		English	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely highly
		Cantonese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely highly

48	How highly regarded are the following languages internationally?	English	Extremely highly	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all
		Mandarin	Extremely highly	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all
		Cantonese	Extremely highly	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all

49	How often are the following languages used in Hong Kong government services (e.g., health clinics, social welfare, etc)?	Mandarin	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		English	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Cantonese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively

50	Estimate the birth rates of the following groups in Hong Kong.	English-speaking natives	Decreasing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Increasing
		Native mainland Chinese	Decreasing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Increasing
		Hong Kong natives	Decreasing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Increasing

51	How much control do the following groups have over economic and business matters in Hong Kong?	Native mainland Chinese	None at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		English-speaking natives	None at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Hong Kong natives	None at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively

52	How well-represented are the following languages in the Hong Kong mass media (e.g. TV, radio, newspapers)?	English	Extremely well	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all
		Mandarin	Extremely well	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all
		Cantonese	Extremely well	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all

53	How much are the following languages taught in Hong Kong schools?	English	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Mandarin	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Cantonese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively

54	How highly regarded are the following groups in Hong Kong?	English-speaking natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely highly
		Native mainland Chinese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely highly
		Hong Kong natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely highly

55	In all parts of Hong Kong where the following groups live, to what extent are they in the majority or minority?	Native mainland Chinese	Very small minority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very large minority
		English-speaking natives	Very small minority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very large minority
		Hong Kong natives	Very small minority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very large minority

56	How many of the following groups immigrate into Hong Kong each year?	Native mainland Chinese	Very many	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all
		English-speaking natives	Very many	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all

57	To what extent do the following marry only within their own groups?	English-speaking natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Native mainland Chinese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Hong Kong natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively

58	How much political power do the following groups have in Hong Kong?	Native mainland Chinese	Complete	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all
		English-speaking natives	Complete	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all
		Hong Kong natives	Complete	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all

59	How well-represented are the following languages in Hong Kong business institutions?	English	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Mandarin	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively
		Cantonese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exclusively

60	How many of the following groups emigrate from Hong Kong to other countries each year?	English-speaking natives	Very many	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all
		Native mainland Chinese	Very many	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all
		Hong Kong natives	Very many	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all

61	How proud of their cultural history and achievements are the following groups in Hong Kong?	Native mainland Chinese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
		English-speaking natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
		Hong Kong natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely

62	How frequently are the following languages used in Hong Kong churches and places of religious worship?	English	Exclusively	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all
		Mandarin	Exclusively	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all
		Cantonese	Exclusively	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not at all

63	How well-represented are the following groups in the cultural life of Hong Kong (e.g. festivals, concerts, art exhibitions)?	Native mainland Chinese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
		English-speaking natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
		Hong Kong natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely

64 How strong and active do you feel the following groups are in Hong Kong?	English-speaking natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
	Native mainland Chinese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
	Hong Kong natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely

65 In general, how much contact is there between the Hong Kong people and the native English-speakers and Mainland Chinese natives?	Native mainland Chinese	Very much	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all
	English-speaking natives	Very much	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	None at all

66 How wealthy do you feel the following groups are in Hong Kong?	English-speaking natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
	Native mainland Chinese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
	Hong Kong natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely

67 How strong and active do you feel the following groups will be 20 to 30 years from now?	English-speaking natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
	Native mainland Chinese	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
	Hong Kong natives	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely

68 Taking into account the global roles of these languages, do you think they will influence (have an effect on) Hong Kong's current language situation? Please also indicate if the influence is one that is positive or negative.	English (the global language)	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely likely
		Positive/Negative? Why?								
	Mandarin (China's growing global power and her relationship with Hong Kong)	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely likely
		Positive/Negative? Why?								

69 On a scale of 1-7, how concerned are you? Why?	English	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
		Why ?								
	Mandarin	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely
		Why ?								

70 Do you think such global influences will affect your earlier answers? Please use the red pen to indicate your changes (if any).

71 How soon do you think such changes will take place? __________ years.

SECTION 3

Please indicate your response by circling a number from 1 to 6.

72 ENGLISH (I can):

Speaking	Low proficiency	1	2	3	4	5	6	High proficiency
Listening		1	2	3	4	5	6	
Reading		1	2	3	4	5	6	
Writing		1	2	3	4	5	6	

1. Which of the above skills do you most wish to improve?
2. Why?
3. How would you like to improve it?

73 MANDARIN (I can):

Speaking	Low proficiency	1	2	3	4	5	6	High proficiency
Listening		1	2	3	4	5	6	
Reading		1	2	3	4	5	6	
Writing		1	2	3	4	5	6	

1. Which of the above skills do you most wish to improve?
2. Why?
3. How would you like to improve it?

SECTION 4

74 Please indicate your response by circling a number from 1 to 7.

英語為母語的國家 (Attitudes towards native English-speaking people)

a.	親切 Kind	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	刻薄 Mean
b.	美 Beautiful	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	醜 Ugly
c.	不誠實 Dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	誠實 Honest
d.	樂觀 Optimistic	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	悲觀 Pessimistic
e.	公平 Fair	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	不公平 Unfair
f.	有文化 Knowledgeable	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	沒文化 Ignorant
g.	懶惰 Lazy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	勤勞 Hardworking
h.	沒禮貌 Impolite	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	禮貌 Polite
i.	不開朗 Cheerless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	開朗 Cheerful
j.	友善 Friendly	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	不友善 Unfriendly

75 Please indicate your response by circling a number from 1 to 7.

中國內地 (Attitudes towards native Chinese-speaking (Mainland) people)

aa.	親切 Kind	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	刻薄 Mean
bb.	美 Beautiful	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	醜 Ugly
cc.	不誠實 Dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	誠實 Honest
dd.	樂觀 Optimistic	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	悲觀 Pessimistic
ee.	公平 Fair	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	不公平 Unfair
ff.	有文化 Knowledgeable	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	沒文化 Ignorant
gg.	懶惰 Lazy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	勤勞 Hardworking
hh.	沒禮貌 Impolite	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	禮貌 Polite
ii.	不開朗 Cheerless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	開朗 Cheerful
jj.	友善 Friendly	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	不友善 Unfriendly

SECTION 5

This section consists of a few background questions. Please indicate your answers accordingly.

76 Please select your gender: Male/ Female

77Please select your age group: 16-20, 21-25, 26-30, 31 and above

78 Please indicate your first language: ___________________。 Please indicate your second language：___________________。 Please indicate your third language：___________________。

79 I started learning English at __________ years old

80 I started learning Mandarin at __________ years old

81 I am an English/Chinese major and the title of my degree is __________________________ 84 I'm currently in the _____ year of my study

82 Thank you for taking the time to participate in this study. Because we are taking this research seriously, your responses are highly valued. At times, there may be need for a short follow-up interview (approximately 10-15 mins) to clarify some of your answers. Please indicate if you will be willing to help with such clarification over a cup of delicious Starbucks coffee. (Yes/No + contact number/email ____________)

83 Please indicate your university: ______________

By submitting this questionnaire I agree that my answers, which I have given voluntarily, can be used anonymously for research purposes.

That's it! This is the end of the study. Thank you for your participation!!!