Kenyan Mandarin Learners' Motivations, Beliefs & Strategies

Stephen Ondago Oduor

School of International Education, Wuhan University

Wuchang District, Wuhan 430072, Hubei, China

&

Tutorial Fellow, School of Education, Arts, & Social Sciences

University of Kabianga, Kenya

E-mail: soduor@kabianga.ac.ke

Abstract

As one of the six official working languages of the United Nations, Mandarin Chinese plays an important role in international communication. China as the world's largest developing country with a strong economic performance, Mandarin has increasingly become a popular language in the world. In Africa, Kenya's exchanges with China have also expanded over the years and bilateral relations have reached the level of a comprehensive strategic cooperative partnership. Therefore, having a good command of Mandarin language and culture is a prerequisite to ensure that Kenyans participate in global competition.

This quantitative study involved a 26-item-modified questionnaire aimed at investigating the situation of Mandarin learning in the Kenyan higher education context. The objectives of the current research including analysis of learning motivations, description of learning beliefs and strategies of Mandarin learners, are further discussed. The results indicated that students had six different categories of motivations, held a variety of perceptions and beliefs, and adopted diverse learning strategies. Last but not least, implications and future contributions will be provided.

Keywords: Mandarin learning in Kenya, Learning motivations, Learning beliefs, Learning strategies

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

With the introduction of Mandarin as a foreign language in most African schools and universities, the African education landscape is gradually changing. From the sociolinguistics perspective, China is now playing a prominent role in Africa which was initially played by French, English and Portuguese speakers. China ranks third to France and USA as the country with the highest number of cultural institutions in Africa. According to data from Development Reimagined regarding Confucius Institutes only, "France has 204, USA 176, China 78, Germany 45, UK 38, Portugal 34, Italy 20, and Spain 14. This is a remarkable number considering that China has no colonial ties with any country on the continent unlike France and the UK, which have traditionally used cultural institutes such as the British Council or Institut Français to wield influence abroad" (Note 1). Confucius Institutes are fashioned in the mould of the Alliance Française institutes established across Africa by the French, although they enjoy the added advantage of being attached to universities as independent departments awarding certificates, diplomas and degrees in Chinese language studies. Politically, China has already established diplomatic relations with 48 African countries. Spolsky (2003) argues that China's international language policy in Africa is inextricably intertwined with its economic and political role. This has been manifested by the Chinese government investing heavily in the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language globally. For instance, in a standard Memorandum of Agreement with African countries through Confucius Institutes, which are run by Hanban (the Office of Chinese Language Council International) and are part-funded by the Chinese government and the universities that host them to promote the teaching and popularization of Chinese language in Africa. The Chinese government committed itself to four obligations which were well-received by Africa and helped increased China's influence: "the provision of start-up funds for the setting up of new Confucius Institutes, the training and deployment of Chinese teachers and/or volunteers to Confucius Institutes, the payment of teachers' salaries and allowances and provision of language teaching materials." Spolsky (2003, p. 340). These attractive obligations led to the Confucius Institute launching its first outpost in Africa at the University of Nairobi in 2005 and has since expanded to 48 centers across the continent. Since 2005, China has helped Kenya set up three other Confucius Institutes at Egerton University, Kenyatta University and Moi University. In addition, Kabianga University, Nairobi Radio Confucius classroom, also offer majors in Mandarin.

The Confucius Institute, as a non-profit organization, aims at working with host countries to promote Chinese language and culture around the world. Hence, despite being thousands of miles away from the continent, China's influence in Africa is steadily growing as more young people are learning Mandarin. In 2019, Kenya's Ministry of Education announced that all schools would start offering Mandarin courses by 2020, when Mandarin will be officially taught in all Kenyan schools alongside French, German, and Arabic, which are already part of the new curriculum. In addition, policymakers want children to get an early start on a language that is becoming increasingly important. Kenya is joined by Uganda and South Africa in launching similar initiatives, the drive behind such initiatives by various education

authorities being the belief that it is a logical step towards helping school children take advantage of potential business opportunities on a continent where trade with China is increasingly the norm, as noted by Dr. Julius Jwan, former CEO of the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD), during the interview with Chinese state-owned news agency Xinhua: "The place of China in the world economy has also grown to be so strong that Kenya stands to benefit if its citizens can understand Mandarin." (Note 2)

In order to understand the topic being investigated, the following section presents an overview of the research questions.

1.2 Research Questions

Given the state of the research on L2 motivation, learner beliefs and learning strategies of Mandarin learners, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

1)   What are the participants' motivations for learning Mandarin?

2)   What beliefs do the participants hold concerning learning Mandarin?

3)   What learning strategies do the participants use to learn Mandarin?

2. Literature Review

In this study, the theoretical framework consists of the definition and review of relevant literature. From the field of language learning, motivation is defined as the driving influences from intrinsic or extrinsic forces that give students power to learn effectively. According to Longman (2002), motivation refers to "a combination of the learner's attitudes, desires, and willingness to expend effort in order to learn the second language." (p. 443).

The term "beliefs", refers to the feeling of being sure that someone or something exists or that something is true. Learner beliefs can be defined as "the cultural aspect of teaching and learning; what people believe about 'normal' and 'good' learning activities and processes, where such beliefs have a cultural origin" (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, p. 230) or "beliefs about the nature of language and language learning" (Barcelos, 2003, p. 8).

Learning strategies may refer to students' self-generated feelings, actions and operations, which are systematically oriented toward obtaining and storing information, extracting it from memory and its use. An early definition by Rigney (1978) of learning strategies as operations employed by the learner for acquiring, retaining, retrieving or performing has formed the basis of definitions since developed by several major writers in the field (such as O'Malley *et al*., 1985; Oxford, 1990). Oxford and Griffiths expands this definition by saying that "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8) or "specific actions consciously employed by the learner for the purpose of learning language" (Griffiths, 2003, p. 368-369).

2.1 Motivation Studies

A number of studies over the past couple of decades have investigated and analyzed the

patterns of motivation in a variety of situations. One major finding from the previous studies (Barley, 1969, 1970; Clement et al., 1978; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Spolsky, 1969) was that learners with an integrative motivation tended to obtain better achievement than those with an instrumental motivation. Other studies were (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Williams & Burden, 1997; Wen, 1997; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005, 2008; Chuan, 2018). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) developed a socio-educational model of second and foreign language learning in school settings. This theory emphasized the role of integrative motivation.

Williams & Burden (1997) distinguished three stages of motivation in their proposed model: reasons for doing something, deciding to do something, and sustaining the effort or persisting. They argued that the first two stages are more concerned with initiating motivation, whereas the last stage refers to sustaining motivation. Wen (1997) conducted research on the motivational factors of Asian and Asian American Chinese learners at various US universities, where her investigation showed that their interest in Chinese culture and pursuit of their own heritage prompted them to learn Mandarin Chinese. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) asked 200 Hungarian teachers of English how important they considered a list of 51 motivational strategies and how frequently they used them in their teaching practice. They came up with 10 major macro strategies and called them "ten commandments for motivating language learners", arguing that there is no reason to assume the ten commandments as absolutely valid in any cultural, ethnolinguistic, and institutional setting. More recently, Dörnyei (2008) proposed a new framework of motivational strategies emphasizing the relevance of generating a vision of learners' ideal L2 self to language learning motivation, outlining a motivational component such as construction of ideal L2 self, which concerns creating an L2-related vision of one's future self and activating the ideal L2 self or keeping the vision alive (Qin, 2016).

2.2 Learner Beliefs Studies

Numerous studies have addressed learning beliefs (e.g., Cotteralls, 1995; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Horwitz 1988, 1999; Rifkin, 2000; Barcelos, 2003; Puchta, 2010; Xuping, 2011)). Horwitz (1988) developed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), which has been used by many researchers in soliciting student views on issues relating to language learning. Rifkin (2000: 395) argues that there is little or shortage of research conducted on Chinese as a foreign language, since most language beliefs studies were conducted with learners of English, French, German and Spanish as the foreign language. Hence there is need to fill the gap in the context of Mandarin learning as it is not applicable to assume that Chinese learners' beliefs are similar to those held by English, French, German and Spanish learners.

In addition, Rifkin (2000) emphasizes that language learners' beliefs usually change over time: "none of the published studies on learner beliefs about foreign language learning has examined the beliefs of learners not in the first year of instruction. Learners change by virtue of the instruction they receive and we can only hope that the beliefs of students in intermediate, advanced, or even graduate level classes are different from the beliefs held by

their peers in the introductory courses" (p. 395). Xuping (2011) also argues that Mandarin language is generally considered orthographic, thus usually believed to be one of the most difficult languages to learn. Therefore, it is undeniable that students who are learning Mandarin may hold different beliefs once they are actually studying this language.

2.3 Learning Strategies Studies

In second language acquisition, a learning strategy is often an intentional or potentially intentional behavior carried out with the goal of learning. Empirical research has been conducted on language learning strategies (Rigney, 1978; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford, 1990, 1996; Cohen 1998; Griffith, 2003). Oxford (1990) designed Six-Category model taxonomy that acknowledged the relevance of the learning strategies which are geared towards communication competence, learners' interactions and the function of cognition, along with the important role played by metacognition, social interaction, and affect in language learning. Another study conducted by Cohen (1998), language learning strategies encompasses, "identifying the material that needs to be learned, distinguishing if from other material if needed, grouping it for easing learning, having repeated contact with the material, and formally committing the material to memory when it does not seem to be acquired naturally" (p. 5). Therefore, learning strategies in general are skills that students use to understand different tasks and choose and effectively employ the appropriate technique to accomplish tasks or meet goals.

2.4 Summary of Literature Review of Relevant Studies

1. The most of the literature review of the related prior studies, which were developed and researched on, to a greater extent were empirical and included areas such as teaching Chinese literature, Chinese curriculum design and program development, pedagogical approaches to teaching Chinese as a foreign language and Chinese language education policy (Chen, 2010). However, only a small proportion of studies have focused on the affective factors in the L2 Mandarin Chinese learning. Therefore, this study set out specifically to investigate L2 Mandarin Chinese learners' motivation variables, beliefs and strategies, will not only benefit both future Mandarin learners and teachers of Mandarin to speakers of other languages but will also contribute to the field of expertise of second language acquisition.

2. According to Boo et al. (2005)s' findings, over 70% of most of the empirical studies especially on L2 motivation research carried out between 2005 and 2014 was on English. However, very little effort has been put forward towards conducting research on the motivation, beliefs and strategies of Mandarin Chinese learners, as pointed out by Duff et al(2013):"Few studies of Chinese as an additional language have provided an in-depth and contextualized analysis of individual learners' motivations and goals for choosing to study Chinese, their experiences and milestones in Chinese language and literacy acquisition, the social, cultural, linguistic or affective characteristics of their development, the relationship between engaging in Chinese learning and their social, cultural and linguistic identities and selves, and their longer-term trajectories as Chinese learner and users"(p.13). In addition, research conducted about learner's beliefs and strategies were most exclusively with participants of German, French and Spanish background (Rifkin, 2000). However, little

literature explored the beliefs and strategies about Mandarin learning in Kenyan context. The three languages in essence belonging to the same linguistic system, are not applicable to Mandarin. Therefore, there is still much to be learned by conducting studies on the learning of Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language.

3. Method

This section describes the methodology used in this study. It presents a brief description of the participants, the type of instrumentation employed, and the structure and content of the questionnaire. To answer the research questions, this research employed a quantitative instrumentation approach where the study was divided into four parts. The first part questioned participants regarding their motivations for studying Mandarin. The second part asked participants what beliefs they held about Mandarin learning. The third part asked about their learning strategies and the fourth part gathered participants' background information.

3.1 Participants

The 78 participants of this study were 32 (41.03%) males and 46 (58.97%) females, aged 21 to 35 years with the mean and standard deviation of (M=26.07; SD=3.86) respectively (see Table 1).

Table 1. Age of Mandarin learners

Items	Number (N)	Minimum (Min)	Maximum (Max)	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
Age	78	21	35	26.07	3.86

The participants are Kenyan Mandarin learners in China as well as students from three public universities in Kenya, the University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University and Kabianga University, and were invited to participate in this research in the form of a questionnaire.

3.2 Instrumentation

This is a quantitative research. The type of questionnaire that was administered in this study was a 28-item-modified web-based survey derived from Wen (1997) and Taguchi, T., Magadi, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The questionnaire items consist of both multiple-choice and open-ended items. The structure and sources of the questionnaire are described in the following section, followed by brief descriptions of the content of the questionnaire items. Quantitative instrumentation in the study primarily involved the *Mandarin Chinese Learner Questionnaire* (see Appendix 1).

3.3 Descriptions of the Structure of the Questionnaire

The *Mandarin Chinese Learner Questionnaire* consists of four parts as presented below:

3.3.1 Learning Motivations

This section was designed to explore the participants' motivations for learning Mandarin. Questionnaire items on the reasons for learning Mandarin Chinese contained 8 items (Appendix 1).

3.3.2 Learning Beliefs

This part consists of statements of beliefs about language learning (BALLI). BALLI questionnaire items were adapted from instruments designed by Horwitz (1988). This design was developed to assess language learners' beliefs. The participants indicated their opinions by responding to items of the questionnaire in terms of a 5-point Likert scale ranging from: 1) I strongly disagree to 5) I strongly agree, as follows: 1) I strongly disagree with this statement; 2) I disagree with this statement; 3) I neither agree nor disagree with this statement; 4) I agree with this statement; 5) I strongly agree with this statement.

3.3.3 Learning Strategies

This section contains statements concerning learning strategies and is further divided into two subparts: The questionnaire items for part one was adapted from Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), the instruments designed by Oxford (1990) to measure the frequency under which learners use learning strategies. This section has a total of 8 questionnaire items. Participants again responded to all items using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1) This statement is never or almost never true of me to 5) This statement is completely or almost completely true of me, as follows: 1) This statement is never or almost never true of me; 2) This statement is usually not true of me; 3) This statement is somewhat true of me; 4) This statement is usually true of me; 5) This statement is completely or almost completely true of me (see Appendix 1). The other section consists of 4 items regarding learning resources and audiovisual materials used by learners.

3.3.4 Learners' Background Information

This section consists of learners' background questionnaire items used in inquiring learners' demographic data. This section is further divided into two subparts: the first one is about personal details (i.e., gender, age, education level, academic major, an estimate of time spent in studying Mandarin Chinese outside of class, and proficiency level) and the second one is about parental encouragement.

3.4 Descriptions of the Content of the Questionnaire

The following section will briefly describe the content of the questionnaire items. Descriptions will be first about the questionnaire items regarding learning purposes, then followed by items representing learner beliefs, and finally about the items used as indicators concerning language learning strategies.

3.4.1 Learning Motivations

The four items addressing learning motivation fall into two conceptual categories: extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. Extrinsic motivations are represented by items such as "I plan to

pursue advanced studies abroad; I study Chinese so that I can eventually become an official Chinese teacher" and intrinsic motivations such as "I am interested in learning foreign languages; I would like to know more about the Chinese culture". The other four items represent the following factors of L2 motivation: ideal L2 self by items such as "The things I want to do in the future require me to use Chinese e.g., work as an interpreter or guide"; travel orientation i.e., "I study Chinese because with Chinese I can enjoy travelling abroad"; instrumentality (promotion) i.e., "Studying Chinese is important to me to achieve a special goal (e.g., to get a diploma, degree or scholarship" and instrumental orientation like "I want to get a high-paid job after graduation".

3.4.2 Beliefs

The belief items were constructed centering around two conceptual areas: (1) The traditional beliefs, (2) The non-traditional beliefs. Indicators of traditional beliefs include items such as "It is important to repeat a lot; Memorizing Chinese words and sentence patterns is very important for learning Chinese; I think the best way to understand the Chinese text is to translate it; When listening to Chinese, the best way to grasp unfamiliar words is to guess". Questionnaire items describing non-traditional beliefs are "Listening to a wide range of materials, doing lots of speaking and writing practices is important for learning Chinese language; When using Chinese, it is best to keep English out of your mind".

3.4.3 Strategies

3.4.3.1 Management Strategies

Questionnaire items as indicators of management strategies were constructed accordingly, for example: "Despite the heavy workload of my major course, I still try to spend more time learning Chinese; I usually pay attention to learning the unfamiliar Chinese words that I come across".

3.4.3.2 Language Learning Strategies

The questionnaire items concerning language learning strategies are divided into two general categories: traditional and non-traditional strategies. Traditional strategies are expressed in questionnaire items such as "When reading texts, I try to understand everything in them; I make grammatical analyses of sentences when I cannot understand the meaning; After class I read texts aloud until I can read them fluently; When reading a Chinese text, I translate it into English for easy understanding; When listening to Chinese, I usually remember the meaning in English". Items related to non-traditional strategies include "I read (e.g., Chinese newspapers, magazines or novels) on my own initiative; I listen to Chinese broadcasts on my own initiative; I try to avoid thinking in English when communicating in Chinese; During the Chinese class, I try to be proactive and take the initiative to answer questions".

4. Results and Discussion

This section presents the data collection and procedures and descriptive statistics results of this study.

4.1 Data Collection and Procedures

The participants' data was collected via quantitative questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of multiple-choice items and open-ended items. The web-based survey was administered between the month of February and March, 2021. The participants completed the *Mandarin Chinese Learner Questionnaire* (see Appendix 1) and the questionnaire items were presented in English. The respondents were instructed to complete the questionnaire by providing answers to all the questions and to return it at their earliest convenience. To ensure that the information supplied by participants would be treated as confidential and only be used for research purposes, the participants answered the questionnaire anonymously. Participation and completion of the questionnaire was strictly voluntary.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

4.2.1 Learning Motivations

Research question 1: What are the participants' motivations for learning Mandarin?

As indicated in Chart 1 below, learners' reasons for learning Mandarin were differential. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations which are ideal in foreign language learning were dominant. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation goes back into Deci and Ryan, which noted that intrinsic motivation originates from the interior of an individual and allows the person to feel much better following finished jobs. The results indicated that, the majority of learners placed greater priority on the intrinsic motivation e.g., foreign language and cultural interest accounting for an average points and percentage of 8.26 & 33.18% respectively. In contrast, extrinsic motivation which stems from out reported 4.99 & 20.15%, reflecting learners' strong extrinsic motivation i.e., "pursue advanced studies abroad" and " eventually become Chinese teacher", which suggest that language use is heavily tinted with its culture, therefore a successful master of a given language has much to do with an understanding of that culture. This was followed by instrumental orientation, which is inclined to a more practical concerns such as getting high paid job, 3.9 & 15.74%; Ideal L2 self such as future plans e.g., work as an interpreter or guide, 3.01 & 12.15%, motivated participants to make unremitting efforts into Mandarin learning; instrumentality promotion which contains an immediate relevance to language learning i.e., "achieve a special goal e.g., to get a diploma, degree or scholarship", 2.37 & 9.57% and travel orientation i.e., "enjoy travelling abroad", 2.24 & 9.04% attracted the least feedback.
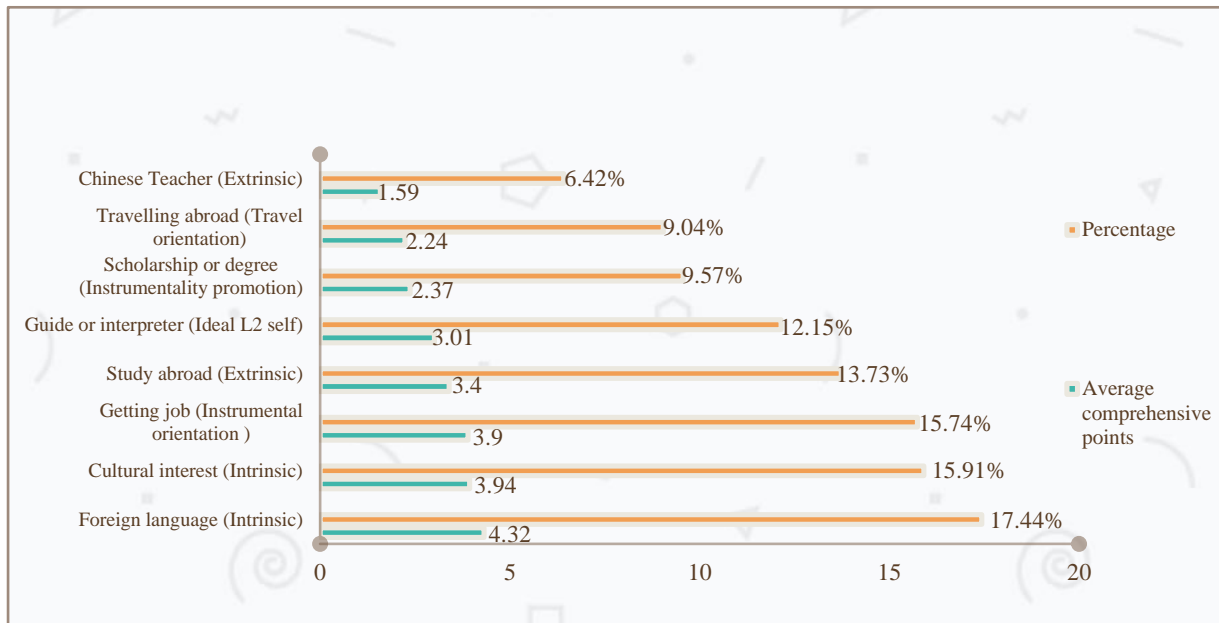
Chart 1. The participants' motivational components

In sum, the results obtained in this study, emphasizes that there is a big relationship between learning a second language and motivation. In addition, the results also correspond to the assertion that motivation can affect how students approach school in general, how they relate to teachers, how much support they seek when they're struggling, how much they attempt to engage or disengage their fellow students from academics, how much time and effort they devote to their studies and how they perform on assessments and how the school performs, and so on. (Center on Education Policy, 2012, p. 2). Therefore, Motivation is important because it not only provide primary impetus to initiate learning language, fulfills several qualities in the form of desire, effort, and positive effect, but it also allows achieving goals easily and individuals also show constant effort to experience the satisfaction of success. However, point worthy of paying attention to is that even though extrinsic motivations was predominant, but learners seemed to regard becoming target language teacher as the least useful factor for learning Mandarin, hence it is a calling for Mandarin teachers to boost extrinsic motivations by engaging students towards enhanced effective learning and professional use of language for the long-term success of Mandarin language.

4.2.2 Learning Beliefs

Research question 2: What beliefs do the participants hold concerning learning Mandarin?

Many studies have demonstrated that learners' Beliefs about language learning (BALLI) have profound impact on their approaches to foreign language learning. Thus, students' beliefs about language learning, not only influence the strategies they use, but also affect overall motivation and anxiety. Seven items of learning beliefs (see Table 2) were self-designed based on BALLI by Horwitz (1987).

Table 2. Learning beliefs

SD (%)	D (%)	N (%)	A (%)	SA (%)
Q. 2 It is important to repeat a lot.				
19 (24.36%)	3 (3.85%)	7 (8.97%)	25 (32.05%)	24 (30.77%)
Q. 3 Memorizing Chinese words and sentence patterns is very important for learning Chinese.				
24 (30.77%)	1 (1.28%)	4 (5.13%)	17 (21.79%)	32 (41.03%)
Q. 4 When using Chinese, it is best to keep English out of your mind.				
4 (5.13%)	13 (16.67%)	27 (34.62%)	11 (14.1%)	23 (29.49%)
Q. 5 I think the best way to understand the Chinese text is to translate it.				
11 (14.1%)	30 (38.46%)	12 (15.38%)	12 (15.38%)	13 (16.67%)
Q. 6 Repeatedly imitating the tape is very important to practicing good pronunciation and intonation.				
10 (12.82%)	13 (16.67%)	5 (6.41%)	14 (17.95%)	36 (46.15%)
Q. 7 Listening to a wide range of materials, doing lots of speaking and writing practices is important for learning Chinese language.				
6 (7.69%)	0 (0%)	19 (24.36%)	8 (10.26%)	45 (57.69%)
Q. 8 When listening to Chinese, the best way to grasp unfamiliar words is to guess.				
29 (37.18%)	14 (17.95%)	20 (25.64%)	9 (11.54%)	6 (7.69%)

Note: SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; N = neither agree nor disagree; A = agree; SA = strongly agree

As shown in Table 2 above, when it comes to the importance of repetition and practice (see Q. 2), a great majority of learners held strong belief 49 (62.82%); 25 (28.21%) either strongly disagree or disagree and 7 (8.97%) gave neutral response. This finding correlates with indirect processes, such as employing production tricks i.e., repetition (Rubin, 1981), which confirms the effectiveness of constant repetition in relation to Mandarin learning. In regards

to formal structural studies, such as the essential of using memorization (Q. 3). The results showed that the large majority of learners endorsed it 49 (62.82%), on the other hand 25 (32.05%) disapproved that practice and neutral attracted the least responses of 4 (5.13%). Regarding usage of mother tongue as a mediator (Q. 4), data revealed that 34 (43.59%) of participants were more likely make use of it, 27 (34.62%) prefer to remain neutral and 18 (21.80%) disregarded that belief. As far as translation is concerned (Q. 5), a large number of participants 41 (52.56%) do not believe that Mandarin learning is mostly a matter of translation, 12 (15.38%) were neutral and 25 (32.05%) favored that belief. Thus, these discoveries contradict Horwitz' (1988) study conducted on Spanish learners whose results had largely backed up the perception that mastering a foreign language relied mostly on translation.

In terms of formal oral practice beliefs, i.e., practicing the sound imitation (Q. 6), it was observed that 50 (64.10%) of learners demonstrated strong belief, 23 (29.49%) do not hold that belief, and 6.41% had neutral feedback. According to studies, when teachers use learning aids, students show interest and get more stimulate. These results demonstrated the importance of audiovisual aids in teaching and learning process. Regarding beliefs about the importance of practicing with audio materials (Q. 7), an overwhelming number of the learners strongly endorsed it 53 (67.95%), few repudiated that belief 6 (7.69%) and 24.36% had neutral views. This finding shows that language learning has a crucially important skill component, which involves the development of the ability to use the language, actively through speaking and writing and passively through listening and reading. When learners were asked the role of making guesses (Q. 8), in contrast, more than half of the participants 43 (55.14%) strongly disapprove of this belief, 20 (25.64 %) held neutral opinions, 15 (19.23%) endorsed its importance. This finding contradicts Oxford's (1990) study of compensation strategies tactics, e.g., bridging knowledge gap by making guesses.

To sum up, the result of this study has demonstrated that learner beliefs as opinions and ideas that learners have about the task of learning a second language are considered a vital component of language learning, since they not only determine how learners perceive the target language community, but also the process of acquiring that particular language, which also corresponds to Yang and Pekrun's assertion that "it is possible that learner beliefs led to their use of learning strategies, or that learners' use of learning strategies shaped their beliefs about language learning" (Yang, 1999, p. 531) and "academic emotions are significantly related to students' motivation, learning strategies, cognitive resources, self-regulation, and academic achievement" (Pekrun et.al, 2002, p. 91). Thus, Mandarin teachers should keep abreast of students' beliefs in order to assess whether beliefs might have a negative impact on learning in order to be able to assist them more effectively towards achieving their learning goals.

4.2.3 Learning Strategies

Research question 3: What learning strategies do the participants use to learn Mandarin?

Part A

In order to explore the management and learning strategies used by participants, this section is divided into two parts: Part A consists of 8 Items (see Table 3). The learners employed different strategies to learn Mandarin.

Table 3. Strategies

1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
Q. 9 When reading a text, I try to understand everything in it.				
5 (6.41%)	19 (24.36%)	18 (23.08%)	22 (28.21%)	14 (17.95%)
Q. 10 I memorize texts.				
10 (12.82%)	18 (23.08%)	32 (41.03%)	12 (15.38%)	6 (7.69%)
Q. 11 After class, I try to talk with my classmates and teachers in Chinese.				
3 (3.85%)	16 (20.51%)	18 (23.08%)	23 (29.49%)	18 (23.08%)
Q. 12 During Chinese class, I try to be proactive and take the initiative to answer questions.				
4 (5.13%)	5 (6.41%)	13 (16.67%)	27 (34.62%）	29 (37.18%)
Q. 13 When listening to Chinese, I usually remember the meaning in English.				
4 (5.13%)	19 (24.36%)	17 (21.79%)	19 (24.36%)	19 (24.36%)
Q. 14 When reading a Chinese text, I translate it into English for easy understanding.				
11 (14.1%)	10 (12.82%)	15 (19.23%)	17 (21.79%)	25 (32.05%)
Q. 15 Despite the heavy workload of my major course, I still try to spend more time learning Chinese.				
3 (3.85%)	5 (6.41%)	33 (42.31%)	23 (29.49%)	14 (17.95%)
Q. 16 I usual pay attention to learning the unfamiliar Chinese words that I come across.				
0 (0%)	2 (2.56%)	10 (12.82%)	28 (35.9%)	38 (48.72%)

Note: 1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Completely or almost completely true of me

With respect to understandably (see, Q. 9), the findings showed that, it was more often used by Mandarin learners, taking 54 (69.24%) of the total, thus representing the general comprehension principle, while 24 (30.77%) did not adopt it. As far as an independent strategy like memorizing the text is concerned (Q. 10), the results revealed that the majority 50 (64.1%) of the learners endorsed it and less frequently used by 28 (35.9%). To sum up, language teaching and learning should focus on the appropriate use of the target language, oral and written, according to situational and wider social context. When participants were asked about the importance of initiating conversation with classmates and teachers in Chinese (Q. 11), remarkably, over 59 (75.65%) of Mandarin learners reported most frequent use of it, 19 (24.36%) never employed it. Thus, these results are consistent with Ehrman and Oxford (1989) findings which emphasized authentic language use such as initiating conversations in the new language with native speakers. Pertaining taking the initiative to answer questions (Q. 12), 69 (88.46%) of learners unanimously adopted it, in contrast, only 9 (11.54%) rarely used it. This data accords to Rubin's (1981) study of indirect processes e.g., creating practicing opportunities for practice like answering questions. Item 11 and 12 emphasizes the communication exchanges usefulness in regards to Mandarin learning. With regards to the usage of the mother tongue as a mediator (Q. 13), 55 (70.51%) of learners reported more frequently use of it and least used by 23 (29.49%). Thus, this discovery tends to suggest that low proficiency L2 learners often make use of L1-based strategy (Ellis, 1985).

When it comes to the literal translation strategy (Q. 14), the findings showed that 57 (73.08%) applied it more frequently and 21 (26.92%) made use of it least frequently. This result demonstrated the importance of vocabulary learning and translation, as learning of second language's vocabularies involves the understanding and memory of their meanings. Since the differences between the first and second language's culture, there may be no corresponding meaning underlying the same sayings. Mandarin teachers should explain the different usage of implication of the target language's items. This is of much importance for cross-cultural translation practices. In terms of management strategies which include planning, goal setting, self-evaluation, searching for learning resources and options, study habits and affective control (see, Q. 15& Q. 16). Item Q. 15, was found to be used by an overwhelming 70 (89.75%) of learners and 8 (10.25%) seldom employed it. This discovery highlighted the importance of metacognitive and study skills strategies, such as high order executive skills that entail planning, monitoring and reviewing (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Schmidt and Watanabe, 2001). As for the importance of vocabulary-learning (Q. 16), a majority of learners frequently used it building inferences 76 (97.44%), 2 (2.56%) seldom made use of it. Hence, this discovery has revealed that most learners valued metacognitive strategies and tactics such as managing the learning process (Oxford, 1990). In summary, strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Thus, the finding of this study also accords to the empirical studies on student learning carried out since the 70s which found that students' learning outcomes to a great extent depended on their choice of learning approaches (Biggs, 1979, 1987).

Part B

To better understand and interpret the answers provided in Part A, Part B's questionnaire items consist of four components (number of hours spent learning Mandarin,cultural exposure, types of dictionaries and Audiovisual aids).

4.2.3.1 Weekly Remedial Hours

Chart 2 shows that the Mandarin learners' efforts to learn the language skills activities (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are high. This has been clearly demonstrated by numbers of hours dedicated to Mandarin learning. The majority of participants spent 2-4 hours 39 (50%), followed by 5-7 hours 16 (20.51%), 1 hour & below 14 (17.95%), 8-10 hours 5 (6.41%) and 11 hours & above 4 (5.13%).
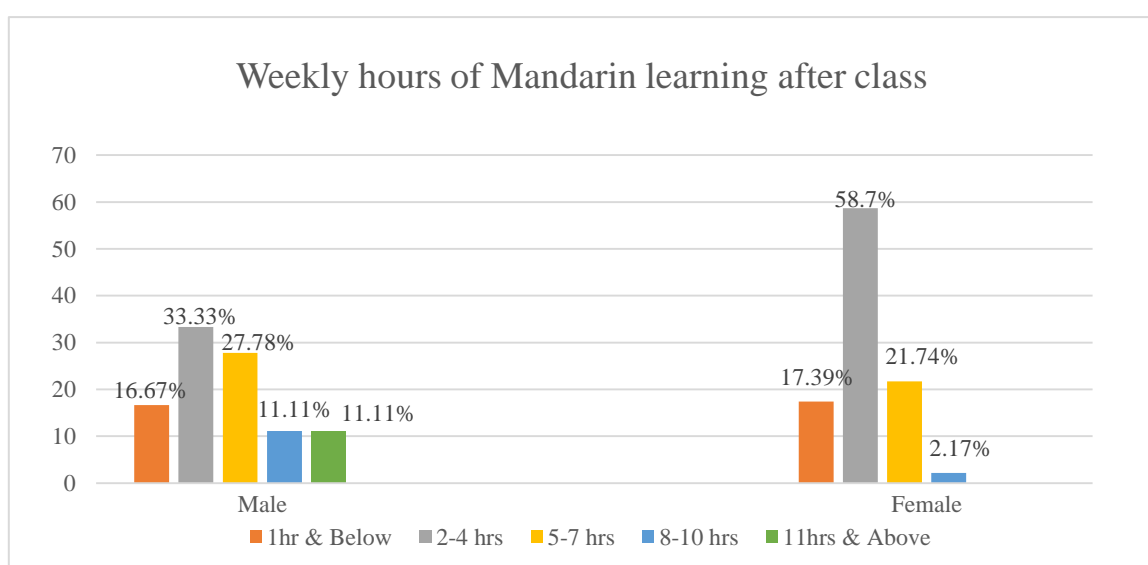

Chart 2. Remedial hours

This result has revealed the benefits of motivation in Mandarin learning, for instance motivation not only improves initiative as well as effort and persistence or "the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (Dörnyei's, 2005, p. 65), but also it is a kind of inner feeling that energizes a person to work hard.

4.2.3.2 Participants' Motivation Variable

As shown in chart 3 below, language is an indispensable carrier of culture and culture finds a better representation through language use.
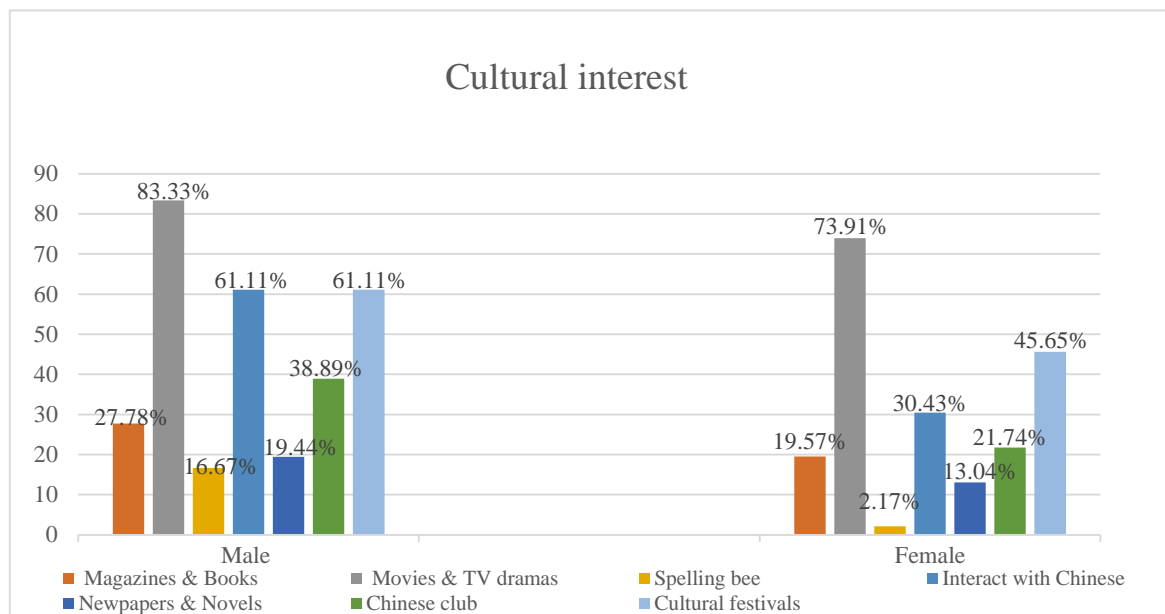
Chart 3. Cultural interest

The results shows that 60 (83.33% males, 73.91% females) out of 78 participants surveyed abundantly watched Chinese movies and TV dramas; 39 (61.11% males, 45.65% females) participated in cultural festivals; 36 (61.11% males, 30.43% females) interacted with Chinese speakers; 20 (38.89% males, 21.74% females) attended Chinese clubs; 19 (27.78% males, 19.57% females) read Chinese magazines and books; 13 (19.44% males, 13.04% females) read Chinese newspapers, magazines and novels and 7 (16.67% males, 2.17 females) showed solicitude for spelling bee.

This finding demonstrates that learners who lack sufficient knowledge about the target culture can hardly become active appropriate language users in their target language. For these reasons, we need to teach culture in our language classroom to enhance learners' cultural consciousness and improve their performance in cross-cultural context of communication.

4.2.3.3 Participants' Dictionaries Preferences

As shown in Chart 4, Mandarin learners consulted variety of bilingual dictionaries: 56 (80.56% M, 58.70% F) were Pleco users which was also dominant, followed by 28 (52.78% M, 28 F) Youdao, 21 (27.78% M, 32.61% F) Trainchinese, 18 (36.11% M, 19.57% F) were Baidu Chinese, 17 (30.56% M, 13.04% F) Modern Chinese, 12 (13.89% M, 23.91%) Ciwawa, 6 (13.89% M, 10.87% F) Yiya Chinese and 5 (25% M) Longman (LTAL) which only had male users attracted the least response.
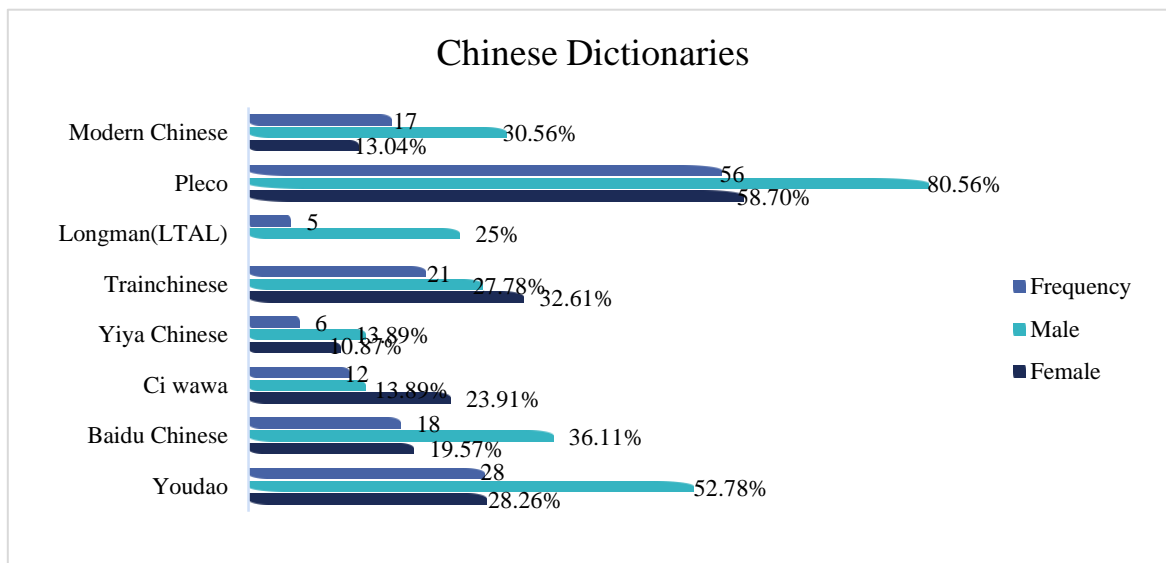
Chart 4. Dictionaries

To sum up, dictionaries are valuable learning tools as they offer students a fast way to know the meaning of an unknown word when reading a text as well as they are an essential tool when writing assignments in order to check the spelling of uncertain words. Therefore, in order to cultivate the students ability to study independently, language teachers should teach students how to use dictionaries adequately, making them aware of the information they contain (e.g., pronunciation, definition, type of word) and their usefulness. This will provide Mandarin learners with the opportunity of becoming autonomous language learners and practitioners.

4.2.3.4 Audio-Visual Aids

When participants were asked about what kinds of learning resources and apps they usually use while studying Mandarin, results revealed that learners utilized a variety of resources (Chart 5).
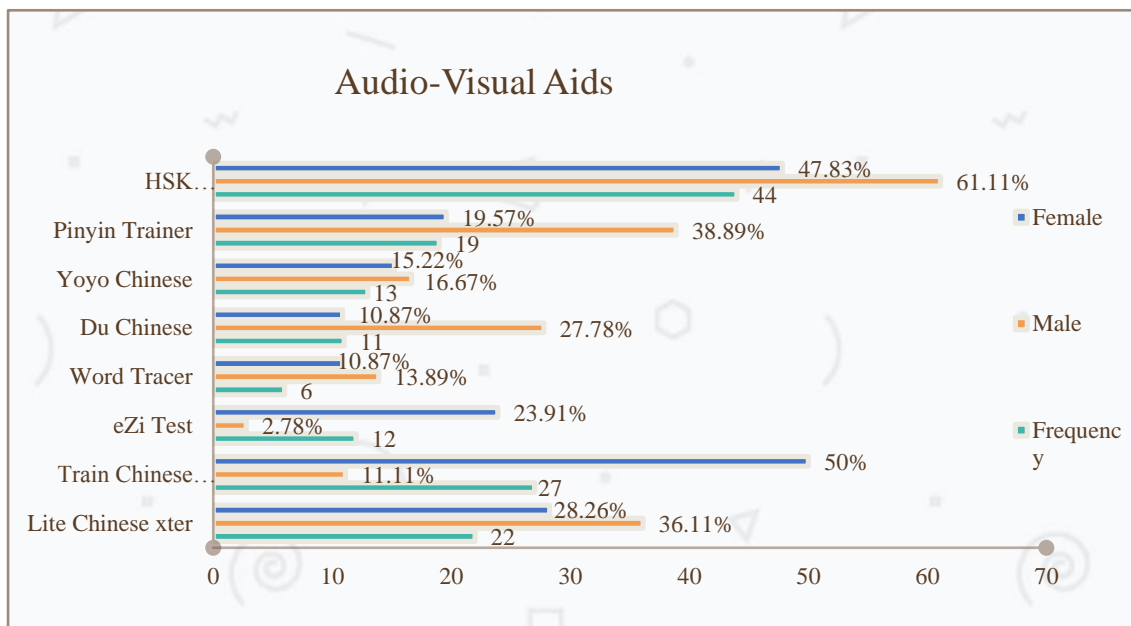
Audio-Visual Aids

Category	Female	Male	Frequency
HSK…	47.83%	61.11%	44
Pinyin Trainer	19.57%	38.89%	19
Yoyo Chinese	15.22%	16.67%	13
Du Chinese	10.87%	27.78%	11
Word Tracer	10.87%	13.89%	6
eZi Test	23.91%	2.78%	12
Train Chinese…	50%	11.11%	27
Lite Chinese xter	28.26%	36.11%	22

Chart 5. Audio-visuals

HSK Vocabulary Assistant 44 (47.83% female, 61.11% male) was frequently used by the majority of learners, followed by Train Chinese writer 27 (50% female, 11.11% male), Lite Chinese character 22 (28.26% female, 36.11% male), Pinyin Trainer 19 (19.57% f, 38.89% male), Yoyo Chinese 13 (15.22% female, 16.67% male), eZi Test 12 (23.91% female, 2.78% male), Du Chinese 11 (10.87% female, 27.78% male) and Word Tracer attracted the least users with 6 (13.89% female, 10.87% male).

In sum, technology has not only blessed student community with multimedia presentations but also Audiovisual aids which increase their interest and motivation in and outside the classrooms. Thus, providing them with a realistic approach and experience. Audiovisual materials also enhance teachers' skills which help to make teaching-learning process more effective and conceptual. Therefore, Mandarin teachers should encourage learners to keep utilizing various technological devices.

4.2.4 Personal Details

4.2.4.1 Categorical Variables

This section consists of participants' level of education and parental encouragement (see Table 4).

Table 4. Participants' categorical variables

Variables	Items	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency
Participants level of	Language (Non-degree)	11	14.11%	14.11

education	Undergraduate	26	33.33%	47.44
	Postgraduate	78	52.56%	100
	Total	78	100	
Parental Encouragem ent	Not at all	5	6.41%	6.41
	Rarely	3	3.85%	10.26
	Average	17	21.79%	32.05
	Quite a lot	10	12.82%	44.87
	Very much	43	55.13%	100
	Total	78	100	

In regards to level of education, participants from different majors participated in this research. They were mostly postgraduates 41(43.75% male, 58.7% female) and undergraduates 26 (34.38% male, 32.61% female), with the remaining learners being language (non-degree) 11(21.88% male, 8.7% female). The main objective was to obtain a diverse range of learners' motivations, beliefs and learning strategies from different levels.

As for parental encouragement, the findings revealed that most of the students received encouragement 43 (55.13%); followed by average 17 (21.80%); quite a lot 10 (12.82%); 5 (7.14%) not at all and 3 (3.85%) rarely received support. This result has demonstrated that the parental encouragement is critical to creating interest in different group of language learners, thus accords to Gardner's (1975) study, which pointed out: "Relationships between parents' attitudes and students' orientations suggest that students' orientation grows out of a family-wide orientation and consequently… the degree of skill which the student attains in a second language will be dependent upon the attitudinal atmosphere in the home." (p. 239).

4.2.4.2 Academic Majors

The participants were predominantly from the following majors (graph 1): Majority were others 36 (46.15%), followed by liberal arts 22 (28.21%), medicine 12 (15.38%) and science and engineering were the least 8 (10.26%).

Academic Majors
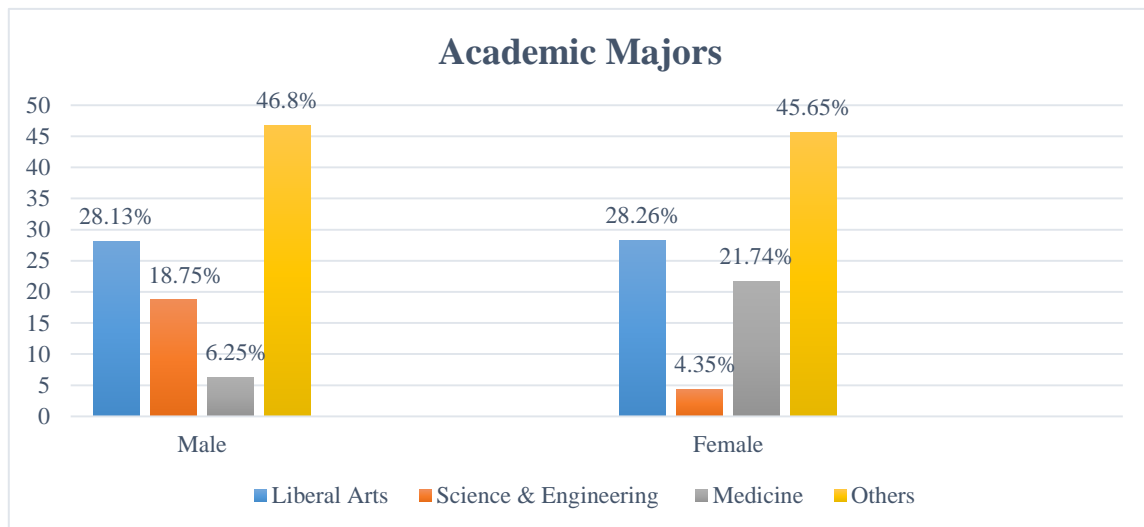
Graph 1. Participants' majors

4.2.4.3 Proficiency Levels

Participants in this study were drawn from different levels e.g., beginners, intermediate, and advanced proficiency levels (graph 2): 3 (6.25% were male, 2.17% were female) had attained HSK level 2 and below, 22 (15.63% male, 36.96% female) HSK 3; 18 (15.63% male, 28.26% female) HSK 4; 19 (34.38 male, 17.39% female) HSK 5; 16 (28.13% male, 15.22% female) HSK 6 respectively. Proportionally, more males had attained HSK 2, HSK 5 and HSK 6 than females, in contrast, more females than their male counterparts dominated HSK 3 and HSK 4.
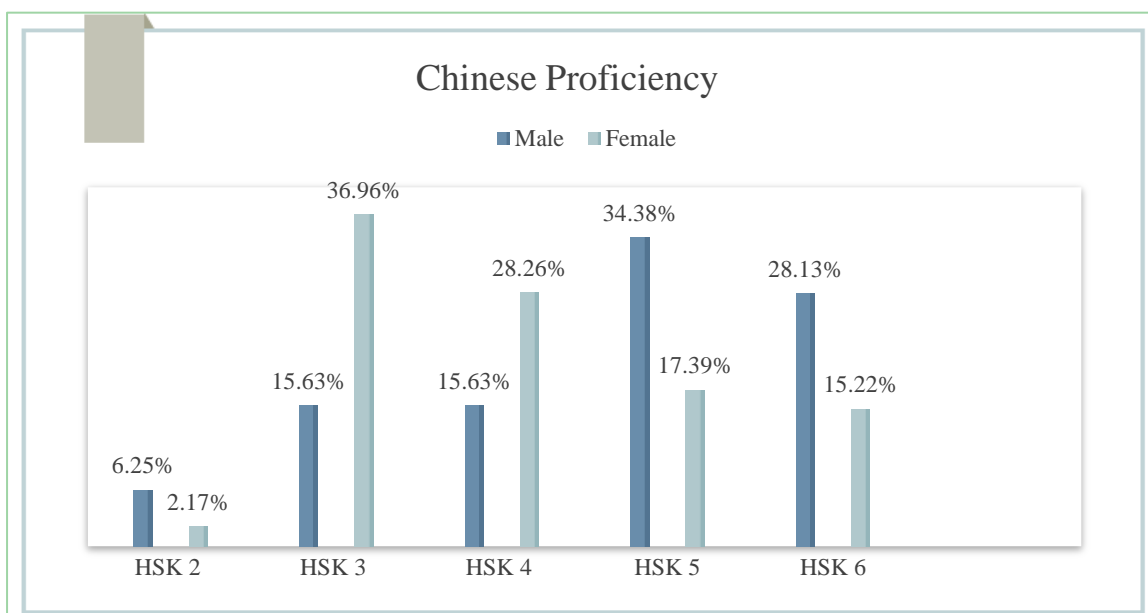
Graph 2. Mandarin proficiency level

This research indicated that learners' desire to learn the language is dependent on how much the student wants to become proficient in that particular language (Gardner 2010).

5. Conclusions

A number of studies have analyzed patterns of motivation in language classrooms in a variety of situations and they have established a consistently strong relationship between motivation and Second language success. For instance, Oxford and Shearin (1994, p.13) research shows that motivation directly influences how often students use foreign language learning strategies, how much input they receive in the target language, how long they preserve and maintain L2 skills after language study is over, how well they do on curriculum-related achievement tests, how much students interact with native speakers, and how high their general proficiency level becomes. Based on the current study, the results found that participants enrolling to learn Mandarin varied depending on the reasons. There were six different categories of motivations realized in this study, ranging from intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, instrumental orientation, ideal L2 self, instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation in that frequency order. Therefore, teachers' accurate understanding of learners' motivation is critical towards catering for their learning needs.

This study also revealed that learners not only held a variety of beliefs toward Mandarin learning ranging from traditional beliefs like the importance of repetition, memorizing vocabulary, sentence patterns and text, intensive study of text and using of mother tongue as mediator but also non-traditional beliefs such as the importance of communicative activities and thinking in Mandarin, reading Chinese magazines, newspapers and novels, listening to a wide range of target language materials, and avoiding thinking in English while conversing in Chinese. Therefore, Mandarin teachers should recognize that students come to class with preconceived notions about the nature of language learning and that many of these preconceptions can be counterproductive to language learning.

The fact that learners can choose strategies leads Cohen (1998) to asserts that the conscious choice factor is important to the language learning strategy concept because "the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from those processes that are not strategic" (Cohen, 1998: 4). This study accords to Cohen's assertion, since Mandarin learners employed a number of broad categories of learning strategies. They adopted cognitive strategies such as analyzing the target language, comparing what is newly encountered with what is already known in either the L1 or the L2, and organizing information; independent strategies, e.g., reading aloud to oneself and using a tape recorder; social strategies such as seeking out friends who are native speakers of the target language or working with peers in a classroom setting; memory strategies, e.g., using rhyme or repetition and making associations and resource management strategies such as setting aside a regular time and place for language study (Chengbing, 2008).

In sum, it is imperative for Mandarin teachers not only to have deeper understanding of learners' motivations incentives for choosing Mandarin but also assess their learning beliefs and identify learning style as this will play a critical role of adopting effective and appropriate teaching methods. Lastly, since most of the theories in the second language acquisition are based on English as a foreign language, this study will benefit both future Mandarin learners and teachers of Mandarin to speakers of other languages, thus contributing to the SLA

existing literature.

References

Barcelos, A. M. F. (2003). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. In P. Kalja, & A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches.* Norwell, MA: Kluwer Academic Press.

Bernard, S. (2003). *The Cambridge Handbook of Language Policy*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Biggs, J. B. (1987). *Student approaches to learning and studying*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.

Boo, Z., Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). L2 motivation research 2005-2014: Understanding a publication surge and a changing landscape. *System*, *55,* 147-157.

Center on Education Policy. Retrieved from https://www.cep-dc.org/displayDocument.cfm?DocumentID=390

Chen, J. (2010). Introduction: Teaching and learning Chinese in a global era. In J. Chen, C. Wang, & J. Cai (Eds.), *Teaching and learning Chinese: Issues and perspectives* (pp. ix-xx). NC: Information Age Publishing.

Cohen, A. D. (1987). Students processing feedback on their compositions. In A. Wenden, & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner Strategies in Language Learning* (pp. 57-69). Hemel Hempstead, UK: Prentice-Hall.

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1996). Cultures of learning: Language classrooms in China. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the language classroom* (pp. 169-203). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cotterall, S. (1995). Readiness for autonomy: Investigating learner beliefs. *System*, *23*(2), 195-205.

Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005a). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *The Modern Language Journal 89*, 19-36.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching 31*, 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and application. *Language Learning*, *53*, 3-32.

Duff, P., Anderson, T., Inyckyj, R., VanGaya, E., Wang, R. T., & Yates, E. (2013). *Learning Chinese*: *Linguistic, sociocultural, and narrative perspectives*. Boston, MA & Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1989). Effects of sex differences, career choice, and psychological type on adult language learning strategies. *Modern Language Journal*, *73*, 1-13.

Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. L. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *Modern Language Journal, 74*(3), 311-327.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford: OUP.

Gardner, R. C. (1975). Attitudes and motivation: their role in second language acquisition. In J. W. Oller, & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Focus on the Learner: Pragmatic Perspectives for the Language Teacher*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*: *The Socio-Educational Model.* Peter Lang Pub.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Gardner, R. C., Day, J. B., & Maclntyre, P. D. (1992). Integrative motivation,induced anxiety,and language learning in a controlled environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 14*, 197-242.

Griffiths, C. (2003). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, *31*, 367-383.

Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *Modern Language Journal, 72*, 283-294.

Likert, R. (1932). A technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Archives of Psychology, 22,* 1-55.

Lin, C. (2018). Motivation in U.S. Learners of Mandarin as a Foreign and Heritage Language. The University of Hawaii. *PhD. Dissertation*.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies*: *What Every Teacher Should Know*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. New York: Newburry House Publisher.

Oxford, R., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *Modern Language Journal*, *73*(3), 291-300.

Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal, 78*, 12-28.

Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Titz, W., & Perry, R. P. (2002). Academic emotions in students self-regulated learning and achievement: A program of qualitative and quantitative research. *Educational Psychologist*, *37*(2), 91-105.

Qin, X.-Q. (2016). *Quantitative Approaches and Quantitative Data Analysis in L2 Research.* Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Richards, J. C., Schmidt, R., Kendricks, H., & Kim, Y. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. London; New York: Longman.

Rigney, J. W. (1978). Learner Strategies: A theoretical perspective. In H. F. O'Neil Jr. (Ed.), *Learning Strategies* (pp. 165-205). New York: Academic Press.

Rubin, J. (1981). Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *11*(2), 117-131.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*, 54-67.

Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. In Z. Dörnyei, & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 313-359). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Spolsky, B. (1969). Attitudinal aspects of second language learning. *Language Learning*, *19*, 271-183.

Taguchi, T., Magadi, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 Motivational self system among Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 43-65 & 66-97). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Wen, Q.-F. (2001). Development Patterns in Motivation, Beliefs and Strategies of English Learners in China. *Nanjing University, 33*(2), 105-110.

Wen, X. (1997). Motivation and language learning with students of Chinese. *Foreign Language Annals*, *30*(2), 235-251.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Xuping, S. (2011) Motivations, Beliefs, and Chinese Language Learning: A Phenomenological Study in a Canadian University. *University of Manitoba Winnipeg.*

Yang, N.-D. (1999). The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategy use. *System*, *27*(4), 515-535.

Yin, C.-B. (2008). Language learning strategies in relation to attitudes, motivations, and learner beliefs: Investigating learner variables in the context of English as a foreign language in China. University of Maryland. *Ph.D. Thesis*.

Appendix 1. Mandarin Chinese Learner Questionnaire

Dear Students: Hello!

I am Aballah (陈帝）from the School of Chinese Language and Literature, Wuhan University.

You are sincerely invited to participate in this research study for Mandarin learners. This survey is designed to better understand Mandarin learners' motivations, beliefs held by learners about Mandarin learning and learning strategies adopted by learners. This quantitative instrument is composed of 4 parts: Part I: learning motivations; Part II: learning beliefs; Part III: learning strategies; and Part IV: learner background information. This questionnaire lists people's views and practices on foreign language learning, hence there is no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your personal opinion, as the data collected will be confidential and will only be used for research purposes. This questionnaire will be anonymous so please answer the questions according to your actual situation. Your answers will be helpful to the improvement of the Mandarin teaching in Kenyan colleges and universities. Thank you for your support and assistance!

Part I: Learning Motivations

The following section is to understand your reasons for learning Mandarin. The following is a list of Mandarin learning motivations for ordinary people. Please rank them according to your actual situation. You just need to fill in the corresponding blanks.

Q.1 Why do you want to learn Chinese? (Rank in order the following items according to your perceived importance.)

(1) □I am interested in learning a foreign language.

(2) □I want to get a high-paid job after graduation.

(3) □I plan to pursue advanced studies abroad.

(4) □ I would like to know more about Chinese culture.

(5) □I study Chinese so that I can eventually become a Chinese teacher.

(6) □ The things I want to do in the future require me to use Chinese, e.g., work as an interpreter or guide.

(7) □ Studying Chinese is important to me in order to achieve a special goal (e.g., a diploma, degree or scholarship).

(8) □ I study Chinese because with Chinese I can enjoy travelling abroad.

Part II: Beliefs

Below there are some beliefs that people have about learning Mandarin Chinese. Please write the response which best describes your opinion in the bracket at the end of each statement. The symbols stand for the following responses:

Strongly disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Uncertain (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly agree (SA)

Q.2 It is important to repeat a lot.	SD D N A SA
Q.3 Memorising Chinese words and sentence patterns is very important for learning Chinese.	
Q.4 When using Chinese,it is best to keep English out of your mind.	
Q.5 I think the best way to understand the Chinese text is to translate it.	
Q.6 Repeatedly imitating the tape is very important to practicing good pronunciation and intonation.	
Q.7 Listening to a wide range of materials,doing lots of speaking and writing practices is important for learning Chinese language.	
Q.8 When listening to Chinese, the best way to grasp unfamiliar words is to guess.	

Part III: Learning Strategies

Part A

Below there are some strategies that people use when learning Mandarin Chinese. Please read each statement and write down the number that best describes you in the bracket at the end of each statement. The numbers stand for the following responses: 1=This statement is never or almost never true of me; 2=This statement is usually not true of me; 3= This statement is somewhat true of me; 4= This statement is usually true of me; 5=This statement is completely or almost completely true of me.

Items	1 2 3 4 5
Q.9 When reading a text, I try to understand everything in it	
Q.10 I memorize texts.	
Q.11 After class, I try to talk with my classmates and teachers in Chinese.	

Q.12 During Chinese class, I try to be proactive and take the initiative to answer questions.

Q.13 When listening to Chinese, I usually remember the meaning in English.

Q.14 When reading Chinese text, I translate it into English for easy understanding.

Q.15 Despite the heavy workload of my major course, I still try to spend more time learning Chinese.

Q.16 I usual pay attention to learning the unfamiliar Chinese words that I come across.

Part B

Please respond to the following questions, by ticking in the box so that we can interpret your previous answers better.

Q.17 About how many hours a week do you spend learning Chinese after class?

☐1 hour or less ☐2-4 hours ☐5-7 hours ☐ 8-10 hours ☐11 hours & above

Q.18 How do you learn the cultural differences in your daily life? Please check as many as you like.

☐ Read Chinese magazines and books on Chinese customs and etiquette.

☐ After class, I watch Chinese movies, TV dramas and video-clips on my own initiative.

☐ After class, I usually follow Spelling Bee via Discovery Chinese platform.

☐ I actively interact with Chinese people.

☐ After class, I read Chinese newspapers, magazines and novels on my own initiative.

☐ I often attend the Chinese club in my school.

☐ I actively participate in cultural activities, e.g., Spring festival.

Q.19 Which dictionaries do you use mostly when learning Chinese? (Multiple choice)

☐Modern Chinese ☐Pleco Chinese ☐Trainchinese ☐Longman (LTAL) ☐YiyaHanyu ☐Ci wawa   ☐Baidu Chinese ☐Youdao

Q.20 Which of the following learning resources and apps do you usually use while learning Chinese? (Multiple choice)

☐Lite Chinese characters ☐Train Chinese Writer ☐Trainchinese dictionary ☐eZi Test Chinese ☐Word Tracer ☐Du Chinese ☐yoyo Chinese ☐Pinyin Trainer ☐HSK Vocabulary Assistant

Part IV: Background Information

In order to make this questionnaire as comprehensive as possible and better interpret and classify your answers, would you kindly provide your personal information and language learning background.

Q.21 Gender: ☐Male ☐Female

Q.22 Your age (please fill in the number, e.g., 18) _____

Q.23 What is your student status? (Please select)

☐Language (non-degree) ☐Undergraduate ☐ Postgraduate

Q.24 How much do your parents encourage you to study Chinese?

☐Not at all ☐Rarely ☐Average ☐Quite a lot ☐Very much

Q.25 Your major：☐Liberal Arts ☐Science and Engineering ☐Medicine ☐Others

Q.26 Please rate your Chinese proficiency level：

☐HSK 2 & below ☐HSK 3 ☐HSK 4 ☐HSK 5 ☐HSK 6

Notes

Note 1. https://edition.cnn.com/travel/article/mandarin-language-courses-africa-intl/index.html

Note 2. https://qz.com/africa/1517681/kenya-to-teach-mandarin-chinese-in-primary-classrooms/

Copyrights