

CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF TEACHER CONFIRMATION, STUDENT  
MOTIVATION, CLASSROOM EMOTION AND EMOTIONAL INTEREST IN  
CHINA, KOREA AND JAPAN.

Tingting Shen  
Master's Thesis  
Department of Communication/  
Intercultural Communication  
University of Jyväskylä  
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<p>Tiivistelmä – Abstract</p> <p>This study investigates the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation across three cultures: China, Korea, and Japan and studies how classroom emotion and emotional interest influence this relationship in three different countries. Students in China (<math>n=718</math>), Korea (<math>n=362</math>), and Japan (<math>n=350</math>) completed questionnaires assessing their perceived teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest. Results of these samples indicate that teacher confirmation is positively correlated with student motivation in Korea and Japan. There is also a significant difference in these three groups on teacher confirmation, emotional support and emotional work. The results showed there was a higher level of responding to questions, interactive teaching style and demonstrating interests in China; a higher level of emotional support and emotional work in Korea compared with China and Japan.</p>	
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## 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces us to the study of teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion, and emotional interest in the teaching context, and outlines the reasons behind the study, its purpose, and the study structure. First, cultural differences between the three countries China, Korea, and Japan (although they all represent Asian culture), and the influence of their different values and practices on teaching will be discussed. Culture is the primary focus of this study and as Edward T. Hall argued, "Nothing in our lives is free from cultural influences" (Hall, 1992).

Values are the core element in any culture and most cultures have the broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others. People in one society are easily affected by certain values, which can form the collective programming of people's minds (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005). Cultural factors have big influences in the learning process. For example, second language learning is heavily influenced by culture factors (Hinkel, 1999). Therefore, values in cultures have a great impact on teaching practices and nations with different cultures may vary in teaching-learning styles.

Cultural differences have also been shown in Hofstede's dimension (Hofstede, 2001) and this dimension has been widely used in cross-cultural studies to explain differences among cultural groups (Hofstede 1980; Kim et al., 1994). For instance, people in some cultures only look after themselves and their immediate family. This is different compared to people from other cultural backgrounds who have been integrated into a cohesive group since they were born. China, Korea, Japan, etc. -- all of these Asian countries are characterized with a "collectivist" nature. Within this cultural asset, it seems that East-Asian countries have been treated as a whole group, and a lot of studies have been done in their educational setting. Ballard and Clanchy (1984) regarded Asian culture as a whole group and found that Asian educational systems emphasized knowledge reproduction. Confucianism has played an important role in Asian countries and national cultures. Many researchers have used the specific term "CHC" to refer to certain countries with a Confucian heritage culture, which separates countries without the influence of Confucianism. For instance, Asian countries with a Confucian heritage culture (CHC) have been proven

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to share the same characteristics of a collectivist society, such as China, Korea, and Japan (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005).

Under the influence of the Confucian culture, many countries in Asia are described as a whole group with its own features. First, people from these nations are born with a particular role to play as part of the "we" group. A CHC family puts emphasis on the whole family interest, and it has a collective goal in the family. Also, Nisbett, Peng, Choi, and Norenzayan (2001) give an explanation about the role of silence in Asian culture. They claim that Asian people prefer to consider many things together at the same time instead of breaking the whole thing into elements.

Confucian culture in Asia not only influences each individual and society; it also has a big influence on educational setting. Salili (1996) argued that CHC learners perform best in groups and cooperative learning is strongly suggested for CHC learners. Hofstede (2003) also noticed that CHC learners showed a preference for group learning and they did better in a group. Chan (1999) claims that the CHC learners tend to rely on teachers and prefer a teacher-centered learning style (Kirkbride & Tang, 1992). Another characteristic of CHC learner is "losing face," which means that they do not speak out their personal ideas for fear of making others feel humiliated (Ting-Toomey, 1988).

From a teacher's perspective, the teacher's position in CHC countries is a model of correct behavior instead of only being a teacher. When teachers enter the classroom, all students are expected to stand up and show their respect towards the teachers. Some students' respect towards teachers exist after they graduate (Scollon, 1995). In the teaching setting, conflict and confrontation try to be avoided in collectivist classrooms (Leung, 1997). Teachers dream of a class with little noise and students try to make this dream come true. Therefore, students are allowed to speak only when invited to do so. Even in a group, members try to avoid conflicts and criticism of the authority or their peers (Carson & Nelson, 1996). Besides, CHC countries have a strong need for dependence (Hofstede, 2003). Thus, a teacher is supposed to take teaching actions rather than students. Teachers outline the intellectual paths and initiate all communication in the classroom, while students are supposed to learn

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passively (Hofstede,2003). Maley (1983) even suggests that, aside from textbooks, teachers are treated as the only source of knowledge in the classroom.

Asian cultures are also found to be scored relatively high in power distance (Hofstede, 2007), like Japan, China, and Korea. More importantly, this norm has an influence on both the parent-child relationships and teacher-student relationships (Hofstede, 1986). For instance, there is always a leader on a team in these Asian countries. In the teaching setting, a teacher is always the leader in the classroom. As for the dimension of uncertainty avoidance, Hofstede (2003) defined it as the extent to which people in certain culture feel "threatened" by uncertainty (p.113). Japan, Korea, and China all have quite a high score of uncertainty avoidance. Researchers have found that structured learning, detailed assignments, and a strict timetable make students feel comfortable in countries with high uncertainty avoidance. Munro-Smith (2003) also claimed that Asian learners want to be told what they need to know. It seems that scholars have reached a consensus and believe all Asian countries have similar cultural backgrounds which lead to the same characteristics in educational systems. However, little is known about the other side of the coin. Cultural differences in East Asian countries have been ignored. Their influence on the educational systems in these countries and unique interactions between students and teachers is still waiting to be explored.

Another reason to study Asian countries is the international trend of Asian education and Asian students' good performance in international assessments, such as the PISA test. Woessmann (2001) suggests that East Asian students regularly take top positions in international performance, and several Asian countries have achieved outstanding results in the PISA test. For example, Shanghai (in PISA 2009) was ranked in the first place in reading, scientific literacy, and mathematics. Then, in 2014, Korea achieved high placements in all PISA rounds (Waldow et al., 2014). Students in East Asia always take top places in international comparative studies of achievement, and students in Asia are good in open-ended questions that require transferring basic knowledge to less familiar tasks (Beaton et al., 1996, p.57). The capabilities of Asian students have also been verified; for instance, Stevenson (1992)

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summarized children in Asian schools are motivated, and teaching is interesting. Apparently, studies have shown that the high level of achievement of Asian students is not the result of rote learning. So how have these East Asian countries achieved such a high educational performance in international competition? In the same test, American students' performance is not as good as Asian students. Results from of the 2012 PISA test given to 510,000 students in 65 countries showed that students' math scores in US is lower than students from 29 countries (Cook, 2013). Shanghai and several other Asian participants ahead of the US and much of Western European countries (Zirulnick, 2010). Therefore, is the cultural difference likely to lead this distinguished result?

China, Korea, and Japan are three typical CHC countries in East Asia, and their educational systems definitely have an impact on teacher-student interaction and students' performance in the international contest. What kinds of factors affect their educational systems and pedagogical practices? Lots of studies have indicated that culture has an influence on the learning and teaching process in the US. However, the in-depth evidence on the impact of cultural and educational pedagogy on teacher-student interaction is very limited outside of the US. This study aims to provide such evidence by estimating the influence of national culture, the educational system, and other influential factors on the interaction between teachers and students in three Asian countries.

### **1.1 Justification for the Study**

Investigating teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan is justifiable. From an academic perspective, a massive amount of instructional communication research has been done in the US (McCroskey & McCroskey, 2006). Studies has shown that instructional behavior (e.g., confirmation) is effective in raising students' cognitive learning and motivation in the US (Ellis, 2000). However, whether these effective teaching behaviors can be transferred from the US to other cultures is unclear. Zhang and Huang (2008) claimed that teacher clarity, one aspect of teacher confirmation could effectively transcend from the US to other cultures. While, several effective teaching



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behaviors in instructional communication lead to different results in other cultural contexts (Zhang & Oetzel, 2006). Teacher confirmation is defined as an instructional behavior that helps students learn in the classroom (Ellis, 2000). Goodboy and Myers (2008) found a positive relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation. They discovered that students not only recognized confirming attempts by an instructor, but also acknowledged that these attempts significantly influenced their ability to learn and to stay motivated in the classroom. The relaxed emotional environment in the US classroom also raises students' motivation to learn in the class. However, studies are limited to the US classrooms and whether teacher confirmation is effective in other cultures remains unknown. McCroskey (2006) notes that whether an instructional communication is effective across different cultures or not is still doubtful. And what kind of teaching behaviors can be transferred remains unclear. Similarly, the effectiveness of teacher confirmation in other cultures as one aspect of teaching communication has not been demonstrated and whether the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation remains positive has not been studied outside the US. How cultural factors influence this relationship development in other countries has not yet to be demonstrated. As Noal (1973) claimed, a cross-cultural study is to explore various norms and values within each country and help individuals increase the understanding among different countries based on the observed knowledge. Therefore, the aim of this study is to investigate if the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation is stable across cultures. In a more detailed way, this research seeks to study if there is any difference on teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion, and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

This study has four main goals. First, to explore factors influencing teacher confirmation and its relationship with student motivation. Second, to research whether effective teacher behavior can be transferred from the US to other cultures, such as China, Korea, and Japan. Third, to investigate how emotional interest in the teaching environment impacts instructor-student interaction and their communication. Fourth,

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to find ways for more effective teacher confirming behaviors by providing a medium for better cultural understanding and national education system. In other words, this study aims to examine how national culture and pedagogical differences influence the teacher-student communication in the educational atmosphere.

### **1.3 Structure of the Thesis**

This thesis consists of 9 chapters. Chapter 1 gives background information about instructional communication and explains the purpose of the study. Chapter 2 presents an overview of literature perceived important for understanding confirmation and teacher confirmation. Chapter 3 reviews current and former literatures on motivation and student motivation. Chapter 4 focuses on the cultural factors and pedagogy in China, Korea, and Japan, which influence teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest among these three countries. Chapter 5 consists of the methodological aspect of the study and explains why the selected methods were used. Chapter 6 presents the main result of this study, which is followed by a discussion on the differences existing between these three countries. Chapter 8 discusses conclusions by answering all proposed research questions and stressing the limitations of this study. The final chapter, Chapter 9 offers a reflection as an explanation of personal motivation and outcomes during and after this study.

## **2 CONFIRMATION AND TEACHER CONFIRMATION**

### **2.1 Confirmation**

The term “confirmation” has appeared in philosophical, religious and communication literature for more than four decades. Many scholars have pointed out the fundamental importance of confirmation in human interaction (Buber, 1957; Cissna & Sieburg, 1981). Given the alleged fundamental importance of confirmation, one might reasonably assume confirmation has been the subject of thorough research in the past. However, this is not the case. Little empirical attention has been paid to the confirmation construct in general. However, recent studies by instructional communication scholars have focused on a variety of factors relating to teacher behaviors in educational practices, including teacher immediacy, perceived teacher caring, teaching style, teacher questioning behavior, teacher expectancies, and

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teachers' use of humor etc. One type of teacher behavior that has not been examined adequately is teacher confirmation, the process by which teachers talk and interact with students that make them feel they are valuable and significant individuals (Ellis, 2000). However, that is not to say, the research about confirmation and related constructs has not appeared in the literature at all. As discussed in the following literature, the presence or absence of confirmation or disconfirmation influences the outcome of communication experiences (Cissna, 1975; Cissna & Keating, 1979; Clarke, 1973) and the students' learning in the classroom.

Buber (1957) was regarded as the first researcher to write about confirmation in an interpersonal sense. He argued confirmation was probably the most important feature of human interaction and a necessarily communicative behavior. He even proposed that confirmation was an interactional phenomenon by which we discover and establish our identity as humans. Laing (1961) further developed the construct of confirmation and stressed confirmation was the process that includes actions on the part of others that lead one to feel "endorsed," "recognized," and "acknowledged" as a unique, valuable human beings. Other scholars have also noted that confirming communication is invaluable for interpersonal relationships. As Cissna and Sieburg (1981) argued, confirming behaviors allow others to feel endorsed and acknowledged for their behaviors. In a more detailed way, confirmation can be understood in following four aspects: (a) expresses recognition of an individual's existence, (b) acknowledges a relationship of affiliation with another individual, (c) expresses awareness of the significance or worth of another individual, and (d) endorses another individual's self-experience (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981, 2006; Sieburg, 1985). Dailey et al.(2010) later defined confirmation as one of the essential ways in which individuals helped others feel unique and appreciated. Broadly speaking, confirmation has been characterized as a process through which humans are recognized for their achievements through varying degrees and qualities of communicative messages. Furthermore, some scholars have even argued confirmation is the "greatest single factor ensuring mental development and stability of one person" (Watzlawick, Bavelas, & Jackson, 1967, p. 84). Apparently, much progress has been made toward

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the clarification of confirmation and the identification and systemization of specific communication behaviors that are likely to influence individuals in such a way that they feel confirmed or disconfirmed.

Sieburg (1973, 1975) initiated the effort when she extracted the basic dimensions of confirmation and disconfirmation from the conceptual framework provided by Laing (1961) and the descriptive work by Watzlawick et al. (1967). “Confirming behaviors are those that permit people to experience their own being and significance as well as their connectedness with others” (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981, p.269). According to the Sieburg (1975) and the Cissna and Sieburg (1981) typology, confirmation includes the interrelated clusters of (a) recognition, (b) acknowledgment, and (c) endorsement; disconfirmation includes (a) indifference, (b) imperviousness, and (c) disqualification of the speaker. Opposite to the confirmation, disconfirmation negates the other as a valid message source and communicates to the other that he or she is less than human, that he or she is merely a thing, an object in the environment, valueless and insignificant as a human being.

In addition to the typology just presented, how to code and measure confirmation and disconfirmation were developed by Sieburg (1969), she proposed a system for coding and measuring confirming and disconfirming responses observed during the interaction. Sieburg also developed the first instrument to measure perceived confirmation (1973).

Besides, observing confirming and disconfirming behaviors and how receivers perceive the behavior of confirmation and disconfirmation have been studied by Sieburg (1969). In general, studies of observed confirmation have provided information about the nature of the confirmation construct, whereas studies of perceived confirmation have revealed information about how confirmation operates in relationship to other variables. Studies of observed confirmation have indicated that (a) confirmation appears to be an important, pervasive communication variable that may be free from contextual restraints (Ellis, 1996; Ross, 1973; Waxwood, 1976); (b) confirmation may be identifiable only by the receiver (Cook, 1980; Ellis, 1996; Keating, 1977); (c) confirmation seems to be a reciprocal process (Leth, 1977;

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Sundell, 1972); and (d) confirmation appears to be manifested through both verbal and nonverbal behaviors (Bavelas, 1992; Bavelas & Chovil, 1986). Studies of perceived confirmation have been conducted primarily in two contexts: (a) the family, where confirmation has been associated with desirable relational outcomes including marital satisfaction (Clarke, 1973), degree of intimacy (Cissna, 1975), the amount of facilitative communication (Cissna & Keating, 1979), positive father-son relationships (Beatty & Dobos, 1992), and development of sons' and daughters' self-perceptions of global self-worth, intellectual ability, creative ability, and appearance (Ellis, 2002); and (b) the classroom, the single existing empirical study suggests perceived confirmation is associated with positive student-teacher relationships and it also has been associated with the cognitive learning (Ellis, 2000). Ellis (2002) claim that this aspect of communication has an influence across numerous contexts and interactions, for example, confirmation has shown to be an extremely valuable communicative behavior in the college classroom (Goodboy & Myers, 2008).

## **2.2 Teacher Confirmation**

Teacher confirmation is defined as teachers interacting with students and making them feel that they are valuable, significant individuals. In the instructional communication literature, Ellis (2000) defined teacher confirmation as the "transactional process by which teachers communicate to students that they are endorsed, recognized, and acknowledged as valuable, significant individuals" (p. 266).

Teacher confirmation aligns with key principles from both broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) and ERT (Emotional Response Theory). ERT was designed specifically to explain the complexity in the relationship between teacher communication behaviors and students' emotional and behavioral responses (Mottet, 2006). Previous research has also shown that teacher confirmation is highly correlated with nonverbal immediacy (Ellis, 2000), which is an integral part of ERT and a well-established predictor of students' emotional responses in the classroom according to the theory (Mottet et al., 2006). As Mottet et al. noted, immediacy and other

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relationally-oriented teaching behaviors are highly influential on students' experiences of pleasure, arousal, and dominance; this helps students engage in approach behaviors toward learning. It is likely, then, that due to the strong correlation between immediacy and confirmation, the two behaviors operate similarly in the classroom by evoking students' positive emotional responses.

According to the broaden-and-build theory, students' cognitive abilities are improved by experiencing positive emotions. However, this relationship appears to be strongly influenced by the degree of receiving confirmation. More specifically, confirmation received from others can enhance students' behavior and feelings towards the instructor and classroom (Ellis, 2000), which explains the strong positive relationship between teacher confirmation behaviors and students' learning outcomes (Ellis, 2000).

After inductively assessing students' perceptions of instructor confirmation behaviors, Ellis (2000) proposed teacher confirmation is best understood across four dimensions: (a) responding to students' questions and/or comments, (b) demonstrating interest in the student's learning process, (c) employing an interactive teaching style in the classroom, and (d) absence of general disconfirmation. More specifically, the first dimension refers to what extent the teacher takes the time to answer students' questions adequately, and whether teachers listen carefully to students' questions in class. The second dimension can be explained as the teachers' interests in the students' learning process, or whether teachers show enough interest towards the students' study process. Also, teachers will ask students about their feelings towards the class. An interactive teaching style can be seen from the teacher's smile and eye contact with students. Interactive teaching styles and teaching techniques are used by teachers to help students understand course material. When instructors incorporate an interactive teaching style in the classroom, they will adapt their teaching practices around students' needs in order to facilitate the most effective learning environment. The fourth dimension describes teachers not showing any disconfirming behaviors towards students, which is also regarded as a kind of confirmation. When instructors respond to students' questions in a timely and thorough manner, they show they are

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willing to help them succeed in the classroom while alleviating uncertainty about the course content (Ellis, 2004). Also, similar behaviors that demonstrate teachers' interest in the learning process confirm students by acknowledging their importance in the classroom and expressing genuine concern about their personal growth and development (Ellis, 2000). Overall, when instructors are confirming in the classroom, students report higher levels of cognitive learning, affective learning, and motivation (Ellis, 2000). As Goodboy and Myers (2008) discovered, students not only recognized confirming behaviors by an instructor, but also acknowledged that these attempts have impacts on their ability to learn and stay motivated in the class. Besides, teacher confirmation also has an effect on students' performance and other aspects. It has been related positively to students' relational, functional, and willingness to talk in class (Sidelinger & Booth-Butterfield, 2010), classroom satisfaction (Goodboy & Myers, 2008), student effort and interest (Campbell, Eichhorn, Basch, & Wolf, 2009), communication satisfaction (Goodboy, Martin, & Bolkan, 2009), and predicted outcome value for the course (Horan, Houser, Goodboy, & Frymier, 2011). For instance, Goldman et al. (2014) argued that teacher confirmation has an effect on college students' emotional outcomes in the classroom (i.e., emotional interest, emotional support, emotion work, emotional valence). When instructors used confirming in the classroom, college students were reported to have higher levels of emotional interest, greater emotional support, and a more positive emotional valence about the class. Also, when instructors demonstrated interest towards students' learning, college students reported engaging in less emotional work in the class.

Teacher confirmation and the students' learning process can also be influenced by other factors. Clark and Peterson (1986) found that teachers' classroom behavior was determined by the theoretical framework and was driven by belief. Studies show that teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning are also influenced by individual beliefs (Richardson, 1996), such as beliefs about knowledge acquisition, etc. What's more, Ellis (2004) asserted that the confirmation–affective/cognitive learning relationship is mediated by students' receiver apprehension. Receiver apprehension

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(RA) was defined by Wheelless (1975) as "the fear of misinterpreting, inadequately processing, and not being able to adjust psychologically to messages sent by others" (p. 263). Preiss, Wheelless, and Allen argued that RA refers to "anxiety associated with message reception in specific fear-evoking situations" (1990, p. 156). That is, the more confirmation students receive from their instructor, the less fear they experience in class.

Similarly, other researchers have suggested that the relationship between confirmation and student outcomes is mediated by students' perceived understanding (Schrodt et al., 2006) and perceived instructor credibility (Schrodt et al., 2009). Ellis's results (2000) indicated that perceived teacher confirmation is a strong, significant predictor of learning. She found that teacher confirmation increased affective learning directly and cognitive learning indirectly through affective learning. More specifically, it uniquely explains 30% of the variance in affective learning and 18% of the variance in cognitive learning. She also claimed that the effect of teacher confirmation on cognitive learning was mediated through affective learning. Teacher confirmation was also proved to increase student motivation and emotional interest through building a favorable classroom environment (Edwards, Edwards, Torrens, & Beck, 2011).

In total, all former studies show teacher confirmation has a positive effect on student's learning process; however, almost all studies have only focused on students and teachers in the US. Therefore, further research is needed to prove the stable relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation across cultures. More specifically, what factors influence students and how this relationship develops will be investigated in this study in Korea, Japan, and China.

### **3 MOTIVATION AND STUDENT MOTIVATION**

#### **3.1 Motivation**

Motivation was derived from a Latin verb "movere," which means "to move." William McDougall (1932) also argued that actions innately give rise to emotional excitement and cause goal-directed activities, which can be called "motives." Lots of motivational research and theories are based on investigating what moves an



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individual to engage in actions and make certain choices (Dörnyei, 2013). Theories of motivation in the early period focused more on unconscious drives, which was heavily influenced by the work of Freud (1966), while the emphasis on motivation was changed in the 20th century and conscious cognitive became more stressed in, for instance, self-efficacy, goals, and expectations. Also, motivation has different characteristics in various stages and different stages of the motivation process has been researched a lot. A consensus was reached that motivation functions in a cyclical relationship with learning. In addition, motivation has ascribed various emphases on social context and external environment (e.g., rewards and punishment), which was proved to have an influence on motivation.

Motives have been studied which probably could lead to human beings' unusual or abnormal behaviors. Freud (1931) argued that motives produced suffering and illness based on his dream studies. On the other hand, motives have also been treated as reasons for creativity and growth. Maslow (1954) proposed that human need is a basic "impulse towards growth" in human beings and it can be treated as one motive in a human's life.

Motivation is also correlated with practical action and a higher level of motivation will increase the possibility of action (Chen et al., 2005). Many types of research have been done about the motivation for people to study a second language (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972). Shaaban and Ghaith (2000) also described the motivation in language learning and stressed the importance of integrative motivation. More specifically, there are two kinds of motivations influencing language learning process: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation is treated as effective because language skills are perceived as important to participate in social life; whereas instrumental motivation is externally influenced and so opposite to integrative motivation. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) argued that gaining a good job or earning money can be regarded as a strong instrumental motivation when someone learns a language.

Another commonly used method for motivational research is the intrinsic and extrinsic division. Sheldon (1942) made the first attempt to measure human

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motivations. He concluded that human bodies could be rated based on three characteristics: endomorphy, mesomorphy, and ectomorphy. Also, he identified two motive types, extraverts and introverts, and made a distinction between them. Zuckerman (1974) measured the extent to which people seek excitement as extroverts do or seek avoidance as introverts do. A person is intrinsically motivated when he or she feels satisfaction or enjoyment when participating in an event. On the contrary, extrinsically motivated people participate in a task aiming to achieve a reward instead of only finishing the task. Extrinsic motivation is a kind of motivation induced by punishments from the failure of accomplishment of the task (Lin et al., 2001).

### **3.2 Student Motivation**

Student motivation is the internal intention that drives students to gain knowledge and skills in the classroom (Brophy, 1987). Student motivation is defined as a student's desire to attend in the learning process; also, the reason why they have a feeling of involvement or noninvolvement in the academic learning is concerned. Marshall (1987) defined "motivation to learn" as the value and meaningfulness of learning tasks for students. Ames (1990) later characterized the same term as a long-term involvement in the process of learning.

Motivation has an important role in the actual learning process, and it is also essential to the self-regulated learning (SRL). Pintrich (2004) claimed that motivation can also be self-regulated, which means using regulatory strategies to adjust motivation and avoid negative emotions. Research has stressed the importance of motivational and cognitive components of classroom learning, and three important motivational components have been linked to self-regulated learning, which are separately one's self-efficacy to do classroom tasks, task values, and anxiety (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Pintrich, Roeser & De Groot, 1994; Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992). There are so many motivational processes which are sensitive to the classroom, the features of the task or the context where students are engaged in. Schunk (1991) argued self-efficacy is usually task-specific, and it is also an important process in self-regulation (Schunk, 1994). Therefore, each of these components of motivation depends on the task and domain.

A difference exists between students' intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation in the learning process. Lepper (1988) argued that an intrinsically motivated student attends the activity for its own sake, or for the enjoyment it offers. An extrinsically motivated student attends the activity for its rewards or something external to the activity itself. Also, students are likely to use strategies that demand more effort if they are intrinsically motivated (Lepper, 1988). When they meet some complicated tasks, students who are intrinsically oriented use more logical strategies (Condry & Chambers, 1978). Lin et al. (2001) also found that students with higher intrinsic motivation got better grades than students with higher extrinsic motivation. Regarding the incompatible nature of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the self-determination theory proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985) stands on the opposite side. They argued that once extrinsic motivation is internalized, it can enhance intrinsic motivation. Therefore, the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation seems much more complex, and they are not necessarily opposite to each other. Deci et al. (1991) suggested that extrinsic motivation has a negative effect on intrinsic motivation, and it can decrease intrinsic motivation.

Besides, motivation types vary depending on each individual. Van et al. (1998) reported that getting a good grade was the overriding motivation in courses for all students who were interviewed. Other scholars (Dweck, 1986; McKeachie, 1961; Pintrich, 2000) claimed that college students have many goals in their learning process, such as strengthening confidence, gaining knowledge and competence for jobs, even avoiding parents' criticism etc.

Student motivation is also influenced by parents, teachers, and other factors. Brophy (1987) claimed motivation to learn is acquired from general experience and can be stimulated through direct instruction or socialization from others, such as parents and teachers. The home environment always has an influence on childrens' initial attitudes towards learning. Parents will make children feel that learning is meaningful and fun if they welcome childrens' questions and encourage them to explore. At the same time, if a child is raised in a home in which nurtures self-efficacy and competence, they will be more apt to accept the risks in the learning process.

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Undoubtedly, schools also play an important role in influencing students' motivation to learn, such as a teacher's effect on students. Raffini (1993) argued that teachers' beliefs towards teaching and learning exert an influence on students. Like Stipek (1988) claimed, "Students expect to learn if teachers expect them to learn" (p. 202). Also, student motivation is also related to teacher's self-disclosure. O'Sullivan et al. (2004) argued that a high level of self-disclosure increases students' motivation and their affective learning. Mazer et al. (2007) also found that high teacher self-disclosure leads students to higher levels of anticipated motivation and affective learning, which is also beneficial for building a more comfortable classroom climate. What's more, student motivation has a certain relationship with the teacher's instructing approaches. Studies have shown that differences in instructors' teaching methods, including the type of task in which they ask students to engage, can have an influence on students' motivational goals during their learning process or on their self-regulated learning (Ames, 1992; Maehr & Midgley, 1991). Besides, three personality characteristics as a teacher are identified by Schmidt (1995) as charisma, caring, and enthusiasm, which are treated as certain traits that motivate students effectively. Charisma is characterized as "ephemeral quality of personality that attracts and inspires" (p.77). Caring implies that teachers have certain ability to care students considerably.

Motivations in different subjects are various and depend on each subject area. Eccles and Wigfield found a difference between English and mathematics classrooms in elementary and secondary classrooms. Specifically, students' efficacy beliefs, anxiety, and task values are less positive in mathematics classrooms than in English classrooms (Eccles, 1983, 1984; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992, 1994). Eccles (1983, 1984) also claimed that student motivation is correlated with gender difference and proved that males have a higher self-efficacy belief on mathematics and females have a higher efficacy belief on English subjects. Also, Gilligan (1993) highlighted that researchers should not assume that motivational variables play uniformly across genders. Middleton and Midgley (1997) argued that girls are less likely to pursue performance-approach goals than boys. Boys are found more likely to maintain their

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academic motivation (Miller, 1986) and attribute success and good performance to self-effort or competence (Eccles, Alder & Meece, 1984).

However, culture is also regarded as one of the factors influencing motivation. Bond and Smith (1996) found that motivation likely leads to contradictory effects in different cultures and people from different cultural backgrounds are likely to have different motivation types. In other words, the dimension among different societies leads to different motivational orientation. In individual cultural settings individuals stress on self-realization and personal goals, however, people in collectivist cultures tend to focus on collective benefits (Triandis, 1995). For example, Chinese culture was proved to have a higher collectivism compared with other cultures (Triandis et al., 1998). Each individual success represents not only the success of an individual, but also the honor of the whole family. However, people from another nation probably have a different tendency and should be considered differently. As Wen (1997) found, foreign language learners in China can be motivated by both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, which leads to success.

How much motivation one individual has can also be measured. Christophel (1990) proposed that student motivation could be measured; the measure is composed of 16 bipolar items with 7 response options. The higher score means the motivation is greater. Sample items include the 7 following aspects: "inspired/uninspired, unchallenged/challenged, excited/not excited, motivated/unmotivated, interested/uninterested; involved/uninvolved, not stimulated/stimulated" (p.328).

Brophy (1987) summarized the strategies to motivate students in the learning process and identified five categories, including essential preconditions; motivating by maintaining success expectations; motivating by supplying extrinsic incentives; motivating by capitalizing on students' extrinsic motivation; and stimulating student motivation to learn. The question of whether the motivation functions similarly across different cultures has raised the awareness of psychological researchers in recent years, and they have started to study the importance of culture on the psychological process. Researchers in education have been interested in studying the difference between Asian students and American students, because students in China and Japan

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always rank high in international comparison of academic achievement. (Chen & Stevenson, 1995). As what was discussed earlier, teacher confirmation has been positively related to the students' motivation in the classroom in the US (Ellis, 2000, 2004). However, whether this positive relationship keeps stable across cultures is unclear and to what extent that this relationship is different in Korea, Japan, and China has been rarely studied.

#### **4 CLASSROOM EMOTION AND EMOTIONAL INTEREST**

Emotion was seen as a multi-component process in the psychological system, which includes motivational, affective, and expressive physiological processes. Rosenberg and Fredrickson (1998) gave a basic meaning about emotion and he defined it as an intense and short episode, which separates it from affective traits or generalized moods. Fellous and LeDoux (2005) claimed affective emotion is treated as a central part to emotions. Another term-achievement emotion is tied to achievement outcomes, which means that emotions pertain to achievement-related activities (Pekrun, 2006). More specifically, there are two types of achievement emotions, including activity emotions and outcome emotions (Pekun et al., 2002a). From an educational perspective, appraisals are thought to mediate the influence of situational factors and can be used to increase the positive emotional development (Pekrun, 2006). Lazaru (1991a, 1991b) proposed a "relational-motivational-cognitive theory," which defines that emotion is generated through person-environment interactions rather than only from environment or individual interactions. Boler even argued emotion is "contextualized" and originates from lived experience (Boler, 1999, p.2). Besides, different emotions have a different impact on students and instructors. For instance, positive emotions can strengthen intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and negative emotions, such as hopelessness, are detrimental. Isen (2000) argued that activating positive emotion can increase the use of learning strategies during the study, and deactivating emotions results in a superficial way of processing information. Similarly, positive emotions facilitate the self-regulated learning, since self-regulation presupposes cognitive flexibility by using meta-emotional strategies and helps students adapt learning to goals (Wolters, 2003).

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In educational practices, emotion plays an important role; there are two reasons for this. First, emotion has an impact on students' interest, achievement, and individual development, based on the control-value theory. More specifically, emotion has an effect on student interest and motivation to learn. Meyer and Turner (2006) found that positive student motivation is always intertwined with the display of emotion. Second, emotions can also affect the classroom and institutional climate (Ainley, Corrigan, & Richardson, 2005; Meyer & Turner, 2002). In the psychological area, emotions are also central to psychological health and individual well-being, which should be treated as an educational outcome.

In the classroom, classroom emotion is also correlated with the teaching and learning environment. In other words, emotion is regarded as central to the effective participation of students and teachers in the classroom, which helps to build a positive classroom environment. Ford (1992) claimed emotion can signal the current or future situation, and its meaning is context-bound. He also found that emotions change during the process of interaction and indicate the participants' motivations. For instance, in the classroom, emotion includes appraisal, action, real feelings, interaction, and even physiological responses between students and teachers (Ortony & Turner, 1990).

The classroom environment was even correlated with teacher self-disclosure and influenced by teachers' behaviors. Researchers have found that teacher self-disclosure helps students understand instructors clearly (Wambach & Brothen, 1997) and forms a classroom environment in which students are encouraged to participate (Goldstein & Benassi, 1994). As McBride and Wahl (2005) claimed, teacher self-disclosure is one strategy that instructors can use to create an immediate classroom environment. Teachers decide what information they want to reveal to their students in order to create a comfortable environment (Mazer et al., 2007), which fosters students' learning process. Gorham (1988) reported that teachers' verbal behaviors - for instance, addressing students' name, using eye contact, using of humor, or adding personal experience - all helped create a more immediate classroom environment. On the other hand, a good classroom environment is beneficial to students' learning and

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study processes. Zimmerman (1994) claimed that the classroom context and environment play important roles in encouraging and facilitating students' self-regulated learning. Classrooms in which students are not allowed many choices, such as controlling the use of time, choosing strategies to perform tasks, or performing certain tasks, limit the opportunities for the development of self-regulatory strategies and prevent students from good learning results.

Based on the former studies, it can be shown that classroom emotion and emotional interest are important factors which influence students' motivation and how students perceive teacher confirmation in the US. More specifically, classroom environment has a positive or negative impact on the relationship development of teacher confirmation and student motivation. However, little research has been done in Asian countries in order to compare the cross-cultural difference in educational practices. Thus, this study aims to investigate how classroom emotion and emotional interest influence the teacher confirmation and student motivation in Korea, China, and Japan.

## **5 CULTURE AND EDUCATION SYSTEM**

The effectiveness of teacher confirmation has been proved in former research and its effectiveness varies in different cultures (Goodboy et al., 2011; Zhang & Oetzel, 2006). Neuliep (1997) claimed that the cultural context where communication happens has a characteristic which best defines human interaction. Therefore, although the effectiveness of instructor behavior has been tested in the US, and there were similar results found in other cultures, such as China (Zhang & Huang, 2006), it is still necessary to continue studying teaching communication from a broader cultural perspective (McCroskey & McCroskey, 2006).

In this study, the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation in China, Korea, and Japan will be focused on. These three countries are all East Asian countries and they have different features in their educational practices and pedagogy, which could influence the relationship development between teacher confirmation and student motivation. In other words, how these unique characteristics impact students perception and reactions to instructor confirmation will be studied.



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## **5.1 Cultural and education system in China**

### **5.1.1 Cultural influence on Chinese education**

Confucianism is a multilayered philosophy that has been part of Chinese culture for more than 2000 years and has melted into the minds of the Chinese people, which can influence educational practices in China. Obviously, understanding Confucianism is really useful to get to know the pedagogy and teaching system in China (Alon et al., 2005). As Little and Reed (1989) argued, Confucius is undoubtedly an essential figure in North Asian civilization. The respect for education and the important role of education for one community as well as good government are emphasized in the Confucius culture. Chinese people have a really high respect towards education and regard it as an essential way to change an ordinary person into one of the elite (Guo, 2001). Cheng (2000) argued the important role of education has been internalized and influenced the whole society. Zhu once (1992) claimed that education is also thought to have a certain function and people can benefit from it, such as material rewards. Therefore, generations of Chinese people have respect towards education and try to succeed in education under the influence of Confucianism.

### **5.1.2 Teaching and learning style**

Gao (1998) developed a model with five conceptions to summarize the main characteristics of Chinese education, including: 'knowledge delivery,' 'exam preparation,' 'ability development,' 'attitude promotion,' and 'conduct guidance' (p.450). Apparently, teachers' roles and teaching practices are heavily influenced by these features. Teachers in China are concerned not only about the development of a good understanding of knowledge, but also about effective and high learning outcomes.

In the traditional Chinese culture, education is defined as a process in which people are enlightened, along with knowledge dissemination, and students can learn how to be useful people towards society before they get to know how to do things. It means that a good teacher or instructor not only has the responsibility to teach students important knowledge and ensure their effective learning but also educates students in how to be a "good man" in society. The concern for moral cultivation in

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Chinese education is stressed by Guo (2001), who claims that education usually aims to teach people how to relate with others and how to obtain the qualities of a "good person", like conformity and loyalty.

Modeling is important in the teaching process, and teachers themselves play a model of knowledge and moral behavior. A common Chinese expression can totally explain an instructor's role in teaching practices: "jiaoshu" and "yuren", which can be defined as "teach the book" and "cultivate students". Teachers in China have several roles based on social and moral obligations, such as "the people's teachers" or "gardeners". First of all, teachers play the role of parent or life mentor. They teach students about life, help them with their studying, and care about their personal difficulties (Rao, 1996). Also, teachers take the responsibility of ensuring students make progress. The failure of a student to some extent means the failure of the teacher, and teachers will be blamed for not motivating students to learn or for teaching the knowledge unclearly. Thus, teachers and students are closely connected, and teachers have an essential impact on students' behavior. Thirdly, Paine (1990) believes a teacher should be a real virtuoso of learning. Teachers should master much knowledge and know all the correct answers at all times. A good teacher is one who can explain every question proposed by students and ensure students' learning process. Last but not least, teachers hold the right to evaluate students' performance and their progress. Jones (1995) claims that evaluating students' work is teachers' job.

The teacher-student relationship in China has a special feature that is heavily influenced by the Confucian ethic. The respect towards education is related to an unquestioning obedience to teachers, parents, and superiors in the tradition of Chinese culture, which has influenced the relationship between teachers and students in the classroom for thousands of years (Alon et al., 2005). In China, a hierarchical and harmonious relationship between Chinese students and teachers can be maintained for a really long time, even during one's whole life.

"Yiriweishi zhongshenweifu" is an accurate saying for this "hierarchical relationship," which means that "being a teacher for only one day entitles one to lifelong respect from the student that befits his father" (Hu, 2002, p.98). The concept

of high power distance and filial piety affect the "hierarchical interaction" between teachers and students in China as well. Chinese teachers have the authority and they deserve respect from students. All instructors are treated as authority figures second to students' parents and their authority will be not challenged easily in the classroom (Siu, 1992). Alon et al (2005) argued that "Chinese instructors demand silence in class; no questions" (p.155), which shows the teacher's authority in the Chinese classroom. A highly respected Chinese instructor is likely to have a one-way teaching style and fewer students participating in the classroom. Chinese teaching is described as a "didactic and trainer-centered" teaching process (Kirkbride & Tang, 1992, p.58). The only favorite teaching style in China is highly structured lecturing given by a knowledgeable and respected instructor. Instructors who strictly followed a well-conceived and detailed syllabus are regarded as a master of classroom teaching. These masters are well-prepared to cover every detail in the class, even watching out which sentence should be spoken at which minute and which word should be written on which part of the board. Maley (1982) claimed that the typical Chinese teaching model is an 'empty-vessel,' which means that 'in order to give students a cup of water, the teacher needs to have a full bucket of water to dispense.' In China, imitation and repetition are the two main ways to learn knowledge. Teachers always dominate the teaching-learning process in the classroom. Teachers will decide the content of the class and guarantee the delivery of planned content. Both teachers and students feel that this way of teaching gives them a sense of security. Teachers tend to select points of knowledge, then interpret and analyze these points to students; assists them in building a connection between old and new knowledge. Brick (1991) believes that Chinese students are expected to master basic knowledge, and then they can use the knowledge in a creative way.

On the other hand, the teacher-student relationship is strongly influenced by the Confucian culture. Confucianism in the educational setting stresses "harmony relationship" and urges individuals to control emotions, keep inner harmony, and avoid conflicts (Kirkbride and Tang, 1992), which also has an impact on the relationship between teachers and students. In the classroom, the internal harmony of

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students is rather important, and they rarely lose control in public places. Their inner feelings will only be revealed to their family relatives or close friends (Chan, 1999). Chinese students think that their relationship with a good teacher should be a friendly, warm one outside the classroom. This perception of Chinese teachers as friendly and warm-hearted roles has been noted by many researchers and linked to the Confucian concept of 'ren' (Gao, 1998), which is understood as human-heartedness or even love.

Teaching in a group also has its own style in China. Activities in Chinese classrooms are dominated by teachers with limited questioning or discussion. For instance, Chinese teachers usually use a "sequential talk" for the purpose of involvement. A typical example is that two students are asked to stand in different parts of the classroom, then one asks the other one a question on the answer given by the other students. Or sometimes two students are asked to stand in front of the class to perform a dialogue, which was prepared in advance by the teacher. This approach of learning in the Chinese classroom is called "learn by listening to peers" (Hu, 2002, p.169).

Under the influence of the Confucius culture, the learning process in China also has its own features. According to the Learning Cubic Model (Boisot & Fiol, 1987), which depicts teaching styles with three dimensions (conceptual versus practical, individual versus collective, and under instruction versus via self-study), the typical Chinese teaching-learning pattern fits the conceptual-individual-under instruction style. It means that Chinese students are accustomed to and prefer the way of studying as separate individuals under the detailed instruction of their teachers, focusing mainly on theoretical topics. As typical Asian learners, Chinese students are reported as passive and reticent learners. Like Tsui (1996) argued, they are passive and really dependent on teachers.

Hu (2002) summarized study strategies used in the Chinese learning process, called "R's" and "M's." Learning is defined as a process of "reception, repetition, review and reproduction" (p.101). The learning strategies for the other four M's are "meticulousness, memorisation, mental activeness, and mastery" (p.101). From the students' perspective, Chinese students are expected to be respectful or be obedient to

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elders and authority figures in the classroom (Chan, 2004). The principle of filial piety also teaches students to keep silent and be passive in front of authority demands (Ho, 1996). Chinese students refer to themselves as "not worthy" before their teachers (Chan, 1999). Besides, there is a discipline in the classroom where students are taught never to question teachers or challenge their judgment. Bad performance probably results in punishment and brings shame to individuals. Chan (1999) claimed that Chinese students have a tendency to be quiet in the classroom and they prefer not to express their real feelings in public. They also prefer to avoid challenging authority, loss of face, or shame, therefore, this kind of classroom culture discourages active inquiry and students behave based on the social expectation (Chan, 1999).

Besides this, "Hanxu," as a part of Chinese culture, also influences verbal and non-verbal expression. Kleinman (1980) argued that the expression of emotion is regarded as embarrassing and shameful. Cortazzi and Jin (1996) even suggested that Chinese students are expected to accept all knowledge from their teachers, which shows their respect towards their teachers. Students will think learning in class is ineffective if they are asked to solve problems by themselves. Jin and Cortazzi (1998) later found that "talking of the known rather than talking to know" is the questioning style in the Chinese classroom (p.743). More specifically, Chinese students often tend to ask questions after they have learned independently from the teacher and they think questions should be based on knowledge.

What's more, the collectivistic societal orientation is a typical feature of Chinese education and it affects the educational practices in China. The collective culture prefers the high-context form of communication which emphasizes indirectness and non-verbal expression compared to low-context culture (Gao, Ting-Toomey, & Gudykunst, 1996). For example, Taiwanese students are more likely to smooth over the difference than US students (Chua & Gudykunst, 1987). Classrooms in China are characterized by high levels of support and a lack of teasing toward weaker students (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998), in which collectivism and group conscious are stressed.

Another influence of collectivism on Chinese culture is on the "face". Gao (1996) claimed that saving face is really paramount for Chinese people and that face

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management helps maintain harmonious relationships. Maintaining face (Kirkbride & Tang, 1992) is indeed emphasized, and it can be divided into two aspects, "lien" and "mien tsu". Lien is granted to people who deserve it by society, while "mien tsu" is probably lost by misconduct (Chan, 1999). More specifically, confrontation or questioning is seen as a threat to maintaining face. In the classroom, Chinese students rarely ask questions to challenge the teacher, which is perceived as "threatening" (Gao et al., 1996, p.289). Students' poor performance kind of loses face, or teachers' behaviors fail to meet students' expectations, which also loses teachers' face (Chan, 1999). Besides, the course syllabus is treated differently in China compared to in the US. An informal agreement is preferred in the Chinese educational system because it is less examined and the chance of losing face decreases (Leung, 1997). For instance, Chinese students think the "syllabus can be revised at any time depending on the progress of the project" (Alon et al., 2005, p.192).

All these typical cultural characteristics influence the interaction between teachers and students, which separates Chinese educational pedagogy from other countries' teaching practices.

To consider Confucianism from another perspective, respecting teachers and knowledge does not mean that students have to be passive in the classroom. For instance, there is a well-known saying in Confucius: "shi bu bi xian yu di zi; di zi bu bi bu ru shi." It means that teachers do not always have more knowledgeable than their pupil and vice versa. Also, "san ren xing, bi you wo shi" means that there will be one who can be my teacher among three persons. Apparently, students are not blindly accepting knowledge from teachers; it is a mutual learning process. Also, Biggs (1994) found that Chinese teachers are frequently "engaging all students in problem-solving and pushing for high-cognitive-level thought processes" in students. Therefore, authoritarianism is accompanied by mutual respect and responsibility in this relationship. Compared with their counterparts in Western countries, Chinese students were proved to have a higher level than Western students of pursuit of "one-to-one interaction" with teachers after the class. Thus, these special characteristics in the learning and teaching process easily influence the interaction between students

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and teachers in China.

### **5.1.3 Key characteristics of Chinese education**

Bond (1992) claimed Chinese learning is essential, and Chinese have five characteristics which can be summarized in their thinking and behaviour model (Redding, 1990): First, they tend to stress on particulars instead of universals; second, Chinese put emphasis on the perception of concrete ideas, then reconciliation and balance are considered: abstract thought is always ignored and not being developed; last, the learning process focuses on practicality and is Chinese main concern. Except for former features, mastering reading and writing skills from a really early age is also necessary for Chinese children (Bond, 1992), which is also one of the Chinese pedagogical features. Therefore, Chinese students start their written study so early that it leads to the tendency to think in visual rather than verbal terms (Warner, 1991).

As for student motivation in China, Fairbanks and Goldman (1998) argue that duty is stressed more importantly than rights in Chinese society. SOAM is proposed by Yu (1996), which means "social orientation achievement motivation." SOAM is a certain motivation derived from family and society instead of self-motivated. SOAM is treated as the direction of education, and education is seen as a way towards individual development and a ladder to higher social status (Gow, Balla, Kember, & Hau, 1996). Examining historical trends in Chinese education reveals how heavily requirements have weighed on motivation. The Confucian meritocracy of Ming-Ching period China (1368–1911 AD) implemented social mobility through success on the civil service examinations (Elman & Woodside, 1994). Cheng (1994) claimed that good education will finally result in upward social mobility; it is regarded as a key motivation during the learning process. Watkins and Biggs (1996) even found that Chinese students prefer to adopt deep strategies, and they are activated by mixed motivations, like "peer support, personal ambition, familiar faces and even material rewards" (p.273). At the same time, internal motivation from students is stressed in the Chinese classroom. Biggs (1996) argued that Chinese students regard studying as their own duty, and teachers in China do not need to spend much effort getting students to finish tasks in the classroom or to work hard after the class (Phuong-Mai

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et al., 2005).

In the Chinese context, instructional processes and requirements for students are more uniform, and strict behavioral control starts at a very early age for children (Ho, 1981). Biggs (1994) found that Chinese children are predisposed to formal teaching situations before actual schooling commences. Therefore, they are more aware of "their own cognitive processes and accept rules governing group participation readily" (p.55). Children's bad behavior is not allowed; they are expected to satisfy the same standards.

To Chinese people, effort and hard work are regarded as necessary for personal success (Hau & Salili, 1990), and they are highly valued in Chinese culture. Yang (1986) claimed that accomplishments through hard working in China are more highly valued than accomplishments through ability. Chan (1999) argued: "A learned man is very careful and timid in every word he says; but in action, he works swiftly and is not lazy (Confucius)" (p.294). Hu (2002) even claimed that innate ability will not be stressed and that everyone can be educated. Self-ability is not regarded as the main reason leading to success or failure. Lee (1996) believes that patience and insistence matter. Diligence is seen as much more important than one's ability; thus, students are advised to make continuous efforts in the learning process. Also, Chinese teachers think that one's ability can be modified through effort and hard working (Hau & Salili, 1991). Therefore, teachers and parents judge students based on their academic performance and have high demands of them regardless of their real abilities. Students' academic achievements can be attributed to their efforts rather than their abilities (Hau & Salili, 1996; Ho, Salili, Biggs, & Hau, 1999; Salili, 1995). Teachers in Hong Kong also believe that knowledge can be gained through effort during the learning process, and ability is not fixed (Chan, 2004).

Rote memorization is an important method for Chinese students to study, and the concept of plagiarism has a different meaning in China. Chinese teaching-learning style is heavily influenced by Chinese philosophical thought. Students expect, and are expected to, simply to listen, take notes of, and copy down what their instructors say and write. Students as learners are supposed to listen and watch



carefully, and their main task is to remember and repeat. Some Chinese students are even used to a pouring and filling method, which is called "Peking duck." For example, college students repeat texts and try to memorize through repeating practice, which helps them understand and internalize the content. Rote learning is also correlated with exam preparation in China. Chinese teachers center on exam preparation, and schools aim to help students realize what is socially expected of them and finish filial obligations. The emphasis is on exam results which rely on memorization and rote learning. For instance, students in Taiwan are required to master around 4000 characters by ninth grade (Chen et al., 2005). Teachers think that creativity and understanding are slow processes which require lots of effort and attention, while memorizing knowledge is the first step to learning. However, Biggs (1994) claimed that Chinese learning style is "sophisticated decomposition strategies" rather than "rote learning." Chinese students prefer to use deep-learning strategies, and repetition is just used to help them recall and remember accurate information (Chan, 1999). Chan (1999) claimed that all materials used in the classroom, such as handouts, are all designed to assist students to memorize and help their study. Also, textbooks play an important role in the teaching-learning process. In other words, reading books is also correlated with learning. There is an old saying "kaijuanyouyi," which means that opening books can always be useful and people can benefit from that. Textbooks are the centrality and main source of learning in the classroom. Regarding the definition of plagiarism, Chinese students always use others' words to express their feelings and opinions. "Cutting and pasting passages from older sources are perceived as a way to preserve the record more than its creators" (Fairbanks & Goldman, 1998, p.101). Martinsons and Brivins (1996) even found that students who are able to regurgitate knowledge will be rewarded by teachers.

#### **5.1.4 Individual success and family influence**

Individual success in the exams reflected positively not only on individuals, but also on families and clans. Families used their social resources to help children prepare for the exams, who were expected to show interest and enthusiasm in mastering classics and ancient texts (the topics of the exams), all the while being

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reminded that they "should work hard in school in order one day to glorify the clan" (Leung, 1994, p. 390). Thus, the Confucian relationship was upheld in such a way that studying for the exams was part and parcel of family success.

Therefore, all parties, including parents, teachers, and students, play essential roles in the process of students' achievement. The Chinese cultural context is considered as a factor influencing the teaching practice (Artiles, 1996). Teachers in China are supposedly responsible for students' good behavior under the influence of Asian Confucian tradition (Ho, 1996; Wu, 1996; Yuan, 1984).

The family factor is treated as an important effort by Chinese teachers in this collectivistic society. Parents' responsibility is linked to students' engagement in class; in other words, parents hold the responsibility for children's engagement and their performance in academic study. In a comparative study, Ho (2004) showed that Chinese teachers placed more emphasis on family-related factors, while Australian teachers stressed students' self-ability. Chinese teachers even think that family should be responsible for students' behavior in the classroom, such as not paying attention to the class. However, parental pressure and pressure to perform well often last until higher education and have a negative influence on students. For instance, Yee (1989) found that students in Hong Kong suffer a high rate of psychological disorders. This pressure is found to originate from the family, and there is a close relationship between family members. Education for children occurs in the home, and other members of the family will participate in children's learning processes. Yau (1994) suggested that Chinese are likely to consider others' views when they make a certain decision. Educating at home can also reinforce students' persistence in the face of boredom.

## **5.2 Culture and education system in Japan**

### **5.2.1 Cultural influence on Japanese education**

DeCoker and Bjork (2013) mention that culture itself really needs to be read as an ideological frame, which can be used as a tool to interpret Japan and Japanese education. In other words, culture is a reference point in the corpus of both ethnographic and non-ethnographic works. Japanese education is always related

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to the Japanese culture and its structural features of Japanese society. The core feature of Japanese education has no author and no core texts; it is implicit and reflects a deep cultural logic. Sano (1989) argued that the strengths of preschool in Japan are alternating periods of chaos and order in the classroom. These qualities are passed from one generation to the next generation, and new teachers learn what to do from an experienced teacher. All these fundamental differences become a typical characteristic of Japanese education, which is culturally embedded. For instance, Shimahara and Sakai (1995) compared American and Japanese teacher training and found that cultural values had a greater influence on teacher learning and activity in the classroom compared to their structural similarities between two countries.

The official school system in Japan is composed of public schools and private schools. Juku is a kind of after-school school, and a large number of upper-elementary students attend Juku in order to improve their performance in high school, or even in college entrance examinations (Taniuchi & White). Juku is a typical example of the educational culture in Japan, and it influences the teaching environment in the education system. Juku schools usually try different methods to motivate students and to help them realize the importance of education and regard it as one of their life pursuits. Improving students' motivation seems much more important than focusing on exam preparation in Juku culture. Also, there was explicit concern about the impact of structural factors on Japanese education. LeTendre (2013) argues that different educational policies and institutions in American and Japan lead to the different education system; it is not only due to culture. Cave (2007) proposes that core cultural values still remain recognizable in Japanese schools despite the policy changes and education reform in Japan. In other words, Japanese educational practices are more self-consciously concerned with "culture," which accommodates structural forces.

In Japan, *mimamoru* is a component of a larger pedagogical method, *machi no hoiku*, which means "caring for children by waiting." *Mimamoru*, as a pedagogical strategy in Japan, aims to help children develop social-emotional ability without intervening, and it definitely influences the teaching-learning process in Japanese

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preschools (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013). Preschool teachers in Japan are hesitant to intervene in children's disputes compared with their counterparts in China and the United States (Walsh, 1991). Interviews with Japanese teachers show that they just want to "give students an opportunity to practice and experience complex social interaction" (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013, p.40). Peak (1991) also concluded that Japanese preschool teachers create a climate of cooperation by minimizing the teacher's control and that Japanese teachers believe that young students can control themselves and organize themselves effectively in one group if they are given proper routines (LeTendre, 2000). This cultural logic of *mimamoru* not only plays an essential role in Japanese preschool classrooms but also has another application that does not concern the students directly. Preschool directors take a similar approach to supporting new teachers in the school. Directors give new teachers enough time and space to develop their own ways of teaching through waiting and watching. Obviously, *Mimamoru* is a core cultural component of Japanese early childhood education and it is an implicit cultural practice which serves "a source of consistency and continuity" among preschool programs (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013, p.42).

### **5.2.2 Characteristics of Japanese education**

In the Japanese education process, the formation of personhood is a major aim and it is prominent in the culture of teaching and learning in Japan (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013). Kondo (1991) correlated the formation of personhood with morals. Belonging and community are also stressed in Japanese education. DeCoker and Bjork mentioned that "being one member of the community in Japan requires a significant coming to terms with one's own self, in which themes of struggle, sacrifice, and development of a sense of obligation towards others play key roles" (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013, p.24). Such learning processes always end with an integration of individual-self and community. Oda and Mori (2006) also argued that collective play is more valuable than individual activities. The majority of Japanese educators believe this cultural understanding of preschool will definitely influence how teachers are going to teach students (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013). Besides, keeping the goodness of children is a deeply rooted view in contemporary Japanese schools. In early years of

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schooling, teachers try to preserve the individual's original nature as much as possible (Yamamura, 1986).

In Japanese early elementary school, Japanese parents fall at the low end of the continuum of restrictiveness (Hara and Wagatsuma, 1974; Vogel, 1963). On the one hand, mothers in Japan try to avoid enforcing certain rules to their children and not to make strong demands on them. Doi (1973) suggested that the main point of Japanese early childrearing is "Amae," which means "indulgence." On the other hand, extensive rules have been designed to control the behavior of Japanese second-school students, called "Kosoku." Students who do break these rules are interpreted to be showing signs of psychological problems, confliction with peers, and family problems (Fukuzawa, 1994). Taniuchi observed the Japanese schools and claimed the uniform standard of behaviors was demanded in Japanese classrooms. For example, children practice to store belongings and to wash hands until they achieve a uniform performance. What's more, an "intensive program of social control" was implemented to help pupils build acceptable behaviors (Fukuzawa, 1994). A combination of strict rules within close relationships was used in Japanese classrooms and it was effective for teachers to manage the classroom. There are separate "positive reinforcement" and "forceful methods" to help teachers control the class, such as, seikatsucho, "daily life notebooks," which are used to monitor students' out-of-school behavior, or taibatsu, "physical punishment", or shinai, "bamboo rod," to discipline students. If the type of positive ways were proved ineffective, they would use forceful and powerful means to educate students. Like Rohlen's phrase, "intimacy coupled with severity" totally depicts the students' guidance style in Japan in the 1980s (Rohlen, 1976).

Japanese education offers a really high level of training in both academic subjects and the non-academic study. Early education in Japan mainly focuses on principles and thinking skills, while memorization is stressed in later primary education. Japanese education has following typical features, including intense competition, ranking and tests of memorized knowledge (Taniuchi & White). For instance, there was a phenomenon called "examination hell" in the Japanese society.

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Japanese students are under the pressure of examination and study by repeating and mastering set forms (Rohlen, 1967). Practicing and repeating the established form are perceived as self-cultivation rather than pedagogical methods in the study process (Singleton & Singleton, 1984). Rohlen (1983) even claimed that Japanese education is an arduous study, and knowledge is only memorized. A traditional Japanese learning puts emphasis on persistent and repetitive practices that helps students master certain skills. Another value of Japanese education is tied to the benefits and importance of hard work. Japanese parents and teachers believe that hard working will help students learn and benefit their lives. White (1987) claims that children will benefit from the hardship *Kuro* (suffering or hardship) which helps them remove the self-centeredness.

Japanese academic activities do not encourage the expression of emotion, but there is a degree of self-expression in some non-academic activities (Rohlen, 1983). Horio (1979) criticized controlling text-book and restricting freedom in teaching process lead to an unanimated and uncreative atmosphere in the classroom. Students are also trained to be “a good listener and to learn to keep thoughts to themselves” (Rohlen, 1983, p.269). Also, White and Taniuchi argued that self-expression is not valued as highly as it in the US. However, on the other side of Japanese education, the equality is also stressed in Japanese education system. All schools insist on the “formal equality” and are against the ability-based classes in the history. Japanese teachers always followed an egalitarian pedagogical method in the teaching process (Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999).

### **5.2.3 Student motivation in Japan**

Student motivation in Japan is influenced by social factors and the around environment, compared with other countries. Regarding high schools in Japan, different schools have varied reputations based on students' number enrolled in elite universities. Until the mid-1970s, parents even correlated the high school with students' later success in their life. At the same time, companies in Japanese society are competing to hire high-skilled employees through linking elite universities and high schools. This provides a “built-in motivation” system in schools and students

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know that they will get a good job after hard study (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013, p.9).

Lacking of motivation has a big effect on teaching and learning process. Based on the result of Bjork and Tsuneyoshi's study (2005), young people in Japan lack of incentives which has an impact on the dynamic relationship between teachers and students. An increasing number of students reject the school culture and teacher guidance, therefore, the country begins to undergoing revisions to its core curricula, the pedagogy and the national policy that changes the teaching situation in Japanese kindergartens. In the document of Education Reform for 21st Century (2001), it emphasizes the importance of the emotional and social development of children and calls for teachers to alter lessons to "more enjoyable, worry-less and easy to understand", instead of keeping the "top-down" academic curricular (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013, p.38). In 2002, *yutori kyoiku* was proposed which aimed to enhance students' interest and motivation in the learning process through the hands-on process (Bjork, 2009). A "Relaxed education" in Japan was introduced to help students develop a new type of academic abilities including "student initiative, independence, critical thinking, creativity, and the ability to investigate topics of interest to the students" (Bjork, 2009, p.91), all of which are considered as essential qualifications in the 21st-century economic competition. Reform in Japan seeks to promote an individualized and flexible curriculum. The policy is supposed to release students' pressure in their academic studies and give substantial autonomy to local agencies, such as schools and teachers (Park & Butler, 2010). More specifically, the fundamental goal of this reform is to change the traditional curriculum and nurture students' self-motivation, self-direction, individual study and independent thinking (Tsuneyoshi, 2004). Now teachers are expected to use a student-friendly approach to mentor students (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013).

Reward method is avoided in Japanese early elementary education. Japanese parents and teachers try to help students increase their inner motivation and develop an internal control on schoolwork. Stimulating and fostering students' intrinsic interest is one of the pedagogical techniques in Japanese preschool and early elementary school. Former researches have shown that Japanese preschool and early

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elementary school aimed to foster students' intrinsic motivation and their curiosity (Taylor & Rogers, 2001). Later elementary school has changed to focus on external reasons for learning, such as the entrance examination. Persistence and motivation to success are also regarded as essential factors which lead to Japanese business success, whereas, the external force (like entrance examination) also undermines students' intrinsic motivation in the learning process.

Japanese student motivation in learning foreign language has been regarded as really important in foreign language study which has attracted considerable research interests. Takata (2003) argued that FLES (Foreign Language in Elementary School) students in Japan are not necessarily in a more advantageous position than their non-FLES counterparts regarding anxiety, motivation and aptitude. In other word, there is not a big difference in motivation, anxiety and aptitude between FLES and non-FLES students. Students' motivation is not correlated with how early they start to learn foreign language. For example, English learning is correlated with the college entrance examination in Japan. The most important reason to learn English is to pass the college entrance examination. Brown and Yamashita assert, "the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) student in Japan may be partly or wholly motivated by the desire to pass an English entrance examination" (1995, p.24). Also, two sets of contrasting motivational concepts in L2 (second language) was studied: (a) instrumental and integrative motivation and (b) mastery and performance goal orientation. More specifically, integrative motivation originally referred to a desire to assimilate into the target language (TL) community (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) and it has been interpreted as a positive disposition towards TL cultures and speakers (Gardner, 2001).

### **5.3 Culture and education system in Korea**

#### **5.3.1 Cultural influence on Korean education**

Eastern Asian society has been influenced by Confucianism since ancient times and tradition is treated as an indispensable component in Confucian culture. Rhee (1995) argues Confucianism stresses the importance of traditional values instead of new ideas. The doctrine of Confucianistic educates people's mind according to the



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expectation of the society (Shin & Koh, 2005). The effect of Confucianism in Korea was addressed by Oh-Hwang (1993) and he pointed out that Confucianism had a big influence on every aspect of Korean society, such as politics, family and school. The principle of the education process is derived from this respect to Confucianism and it influences all relationships in Korean society. Some scholars have accounted the Asian success to the Confucian culture, which has provided Korea with a high level of social capital in the forms of family structure, norms of frugality, hard work and high valuation of education (Sorensen, 1994). Thus, Korea was deeply influenced by the adoption of Confucianism and its positive social values which is perceived as a powerful motivating force for higher education and economical development in Korea (Berger & Hsiao, 1988). Also, the tradition of Confucian elitism is important to shape a competition-oriented society in Korea (Lee, 2006) and individual merits are always selected through examinations. An academic-oriented doctrine and yangbans' educational values are also based on the Confucian elitism.

### **5.3.2 Characteristics of Korean education**

In Korea, the emphasis on educational planning starts on the 1970s and citizenship education is proposed—inculcating loyalty, patriotism, self-reliance and anticommunism. Then, the sustained attention for scientific education began in 1973 with the establishment of vocational schools, which aimed to scientificize the whole Korean people (Sorensen, 1994).

In Korean educational system, schools sort students based on students' grades and exam-orientated is another characteristic. Leung (2001) argued that examination-oriented is an extrinsic motivation for learning. Teachers also think exam preparation should be reflected in the class since examinations are used to test students' achievement levels. This exam-oriented study in Korea was proved to have a positive effect on mathematic learning in Korea (Woo, 1995). In other words, "teaching to test" is quite common.

Rote learning and college entrance examination are main concerns of Korean education. Parents spend a lot of money helping children prepare for college entrance examination so that they can go to a prestigious university (Shin & Koh, 2005). Based

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on the study of OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) in 1998, the Korean education system employs a formal teaching method which stresses the memorization of information instead of creative thinking. The central educational philosophy focused on the transmission of knowledge rather than the increase of thinking ability. Moreover, a common agreement among parents, teachers and adolescents are reached on the importance of study achievement. Students' grade are valued more highly than the cognitive development and parents believe grade is more realistic to evaluate children's improvement (Stevenson & Lee, 1991).

The relational bond is quite strong in Korean schools. Students are taught to cooperate and strive for excellent performance, while, Park's study (2002) shows that Korean students tend to have negative preferences for group learning and there is an individualistic and competitive spirit in Korean classrooms. The educational atmosphere in Korea is rather competitive and academic study is regarded as the first-step preparation to get a better job (Hyun et al., 2000; Kim et al., 1993; Rohlen, 1983; Stevenson and Baker, 1992). During the learning process, the cooperative learning is stressed and students have a lower self-concept than their Western counterparts (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2000; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2003). Education in Korean is viewed as a kind of self-cultivation. Students treat education as one way to achieve social success and pursue it for its own sake. Effort and discipline are also regarded much more important than innate ability during the learning process. Korean students believe that they can attain and reach their goals by effort. If they fail somehow, they will attribute their failure to the effortless or the lack of ability.

Silence is given more value than speech in Korea. This philosophy emphasizes silent inner-workings of the individual mind that help them see the outside world and cultivate the humanity (Lee, 1998). Moreover, the inner-working of the mind is also understood as the silent learning of knowledge in Analects (The Analects 7, p.2). Korean think that it is much better to think over and express their thoughts and ideas fully and politely rather than incomplete thoughts (Lee, 2000). Kim (2002) also discussed the important relationship between thinking and silence. She argued that

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introspection and silence are thought beneficial for a higher level of thinking. In Lee's and Sriraman's study (2013), teacher's pedagogy in math class is also correlated with the learner's psychology. Korean students are afraid of making mistakes when they are asked to answer questions. They prefer to keep silence rather than speak out their own thoughts (Lee 1998; Woo & Kang, 2007).

In Korea, the size of the classroom in middle-school is two times so big compared with developed countries and there are averagely 40 to 50 students in one class. Many educators argue that excessive students load make it difficult for teachers to provide enough guidance and completely instruction to students on an individual basis. A number of schools still suffer from the inferior study circumstances because of the overload students in each classroom (Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2004).

### **5.3.3 Family influence on education**

Education plays an important role in Korean family and the success of education benefit not only each individual, but also family and lineage in Korea. It can also explain why education in Korea is always correlated with the pressure from parents. Koreans treat "education fever" (kyoyungnyol) as a traditional feature (Sorensen, 1994). In 1990, Korean parents were so enthusiastic and had a zeal for childrens' education, which has led them to pay much on students' cost and kept increasing the devoted percentage of money on education. For each individual, one's educational qualification in Korea determines his or her economic level, which can also explain "Korean's zeal" for education. Much social pathology on children is attributed to parental pressure over school and education is always treated as the only road to success. In other words, social status in Korea is correlated with the received amount of education, therefore, the whole family concerns about childrens' education in Korea.

Familism is a typical characteristic of Korean society which is based on the proper relationship among family members under the influence of Confucian thought. Kulp (1929) mentions familism and he defines familism as a social organization where all values are based on the favorable for the function of the whole family. For

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example, the interest of family is always above those of individuals. Korean people concern a lot about the family fame, family members and the prosperity of the whole family (Shin & Koh, 2005). In Korea, family relationships take precedence over other relationships and individual cannot be independent of the family in terms of the bond relationship between parents and children (Shin & Koh, 2005). These cultural values still exist in contemporary Korean society and it definitely influences how teachers manage their classroom and educate students. Also, Korean family is corporate, which means that Korean family has a designated head and a defined boundaries (Sorensen, 1994). For example, if a family head died, normally the eldest son succeeds to the headship and passes it from generation to generation, which leads the whole family to a single corporate group, therefore, parents are willing to devote all their time to childrens' education, especially the eldest son.

Filial piety is also treated as the basis for all behaviors. Korean ethics suggest that Korean children need to follow filial piety and they are expected to take care of their parents (Sorensen, 1994). Obviously, children and parents have a really strong relational bond and parents have an impact on their childrens' achievement of their whole life. In other words, children gain lots of support from their parents and parents' sacrifice is rather important to childrens' success. Park and Kim (2006) argued that parental devotion and sacrifice are essential features of the traditional socialization practices and modern Korea.

Besides, the clear role division in the society also influences the educational responsibility in Korea. Korean parents' main responsibility in the education are perceived to monitor childrens' homework and to maintain higher expectation towards their childrens' study (Strom, Daniel, & Leung, 1988). Researches have demonstrated that Korean parental engagement in the education contribute to childrens' academic achievement and parents' monitoring roles are influenced by cultural factors (Wollam, 1992). Mother's role and responsibility are home-based and to make sure her children succeed in education. Korean mother usually has an autonomous power which is called "skirt wind" (ch'imapparam) and in Korean dictionary, it is defined as "the force of a woman on the rampage" (solch'inun yoin ui sosul) (Sorensen, 1994).

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The main job of a mother is to encourage her children to study hard and to be successful in life. She becomes a mediator between the home and the outside environment by educating children right norms and values. Therefore, childrens' education are heavily influenced by Korean family, especially by mother. Reagan (1996) pointed out that Confucian moral thoughts consist of five hierarchical human relationships, including father and son; husband and wife, leader and subordinate, older brother and younger brother, relationship between friends. All these factors are quite important to understand Asian society and to comprehend the characteristics of the whole Korean society. In Korean culture, father has played a crucial role as the controller of the whole family. Korea is also a patriarchal society (Shin & Koh, 2005). Thus, education in Korea is influenced under this kind of tradition and educational practices can reflect the hierarchical and considerably rigid social class of Korean society.

#### **5.3.4 Teaching and learning style**

A typical characteristic of Korean education is the parent-teacher coalition, which represents that they have same goals and assumptions (Sorensen, 1994). Korean teachers are highly respected in schools and parents normally delegate authority to teachers. For studentss, teacher's word is law. Shin and Koh (2005) argued that the teacher plays a crucial role in the teaching practices and he or she is regarded as a rule at schools. Parents, teachers and students all believe that the role of teacher is to impart the truth, thus, rare students would question a teacher's authority. Teachers have a significant influence on students and they are expected to use authority to push students on. Teachers' recommendation will also be perceived as a determined factor on students' future (Sorensen, 1994). There was also one adage saying that a teacher, a father or a king has the same role as the ruler of the society. As this adage shows, teachers are respected as authority figures in Korea and they are considered as a molder of character for students and a dispenser of knowledge (Siu, 1992; Strom, Griswold, & Slaughter, 1981).

The relationship between teachers and students keeps changing in different stages. The student-teacher relationship in elementary school is "warm

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authoritarianism”, which means teachers convince students and care about them as human beings. Later in middle and high school, more punitive and less warm-care are much more obvious (Sorensen, 1994). Also, the class is relatively teacher-centered and childrens are taught to focus on teacher. There is a saying in Korea: ‘One does not dare to step on a teacher’s shadow’. Shim (2008) explains that under the Confucian philosophy, the role of teacher is to guide students to find ways to achieve their goals and help students express their opinions accurately when students are not able to. Therefore, the learners’ effort is more important than the role of teachers. In other words, students have to express their own ideas even if teachers show them the way. In keeping with Confucius teaching, Koreans think that students are expected to show their enjoyment of learning when they emulate teachers’ behavior (Lee, 2000). This kind of thinking also makes Korean teachers regard deep-thinking guided by teachers in silent class is the best practice (Lee & Sriraman, 2013).

### **5.3.5 Student motivation in Korea**

In Eastern Asian, students motivation are mostly derived from increase social status, keep family honor, get admiration from parents, have a good job or self-achievement (Schneider & Lee, 1990; Siu, 1992). And what distinguished Korean students from other nations’ students are the student’s assiduous attention to their studies and their high motivation reinforced by social pressures and parents. Student motivation is competition-oriented and it becomes more instrumental for later social outcomes (Sue & Okazaki, 1990). This competition for rewards can promote students to learn (Tauer and Harackiewicz, 1999; Tyler et al., 2006) and Korean students have shown a really high performance in international comparison studies, compared with their counterparts in Western countries. In other words, social motivation for Korean students is always outweighed the personal motivation and 62% students believe that their motivations are to please their parents. From another perspective, all these external pressures have positive influences on students’ performance which to some extent motivate students to learn. For instance, parents’ expectation and outside pressure promote students to have a high achievement. And children always have an indebtedness feeling towards their parents because of their sacrifice and endless

support, which also stimulates the "filial piety".

What's more, Korean student motivation was also correlated with the physical exercise and MIN-HAENG CHO (2004) investigated the relationship between the perceived motivation and level of physical activity among Korean youth. They argued that physical activity participation can be attributed to the influence of the family, social and cultural factors. For instance, the types of physical activities that girls choose in Korea are influenced by family values which probably leads to the habit of choosing the passive physical activity (Cho, Kim, & Kim, 2000; Kim & Ku, 2000). Also, Confucianism is emphasized as the moral and code for Korean society, which influences people's attitude towards sports. Cho (2004) claimed that sport was described as not favored for women under the influence of Confucianism and this kind of traditional belief leads to women's passive attitude approach to physical activity.

## **6 REFLECTION**

I choose to write this thesis for three reasons. First of all, my Professor, Stephen Croucher, offered me a chance to write this thesis with him and I am really grateful for this. Second, I had a personal interest in conducting this study. I am really interested in teaching and I would like to be a teacher in the future, therefore, how teachers influence students in the classroom raised my interest, especially about whether confirming behaviors from teachers make students feel really endorsed in the classroom. Studies have shown that teaching style has a great influence on students' study process (Khandaghi, & Farasat, 2011) and teachers who use more learner-centered practices produced greater motivation in their students than those who used fewer of such practices (Daniels & Perry, 2003), however, I would like to research more about whether this relationship keeps stable across cultures. At the same time, the cross-cultural study of teacher-student interaction is also related to my major study and I believe this research will to some extent help my future teaching as well as other instructors around the world. Another motivation for me is that I am Chinese and this study is related to my country. Especially based on my early education experience, I had never thought there would exist a close relationship

between teacher confirmation and student motivation until I started doing this research. Therefore, I hope my study would be useful to the future reform of teaching practices in China and other countries. More importantly, students can benefit from it.

After choosing the topic, I started to construct my thesis. I began to read some research articles on teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest and found that most research was done in U.S. Culture is always treated as an influential factor on the interaction between students and teachers in the educational system. Claudia (2008) claimed that conflicts are likely to occur if students and teachers are from different cultures and problems will arise in their day-to-day discourse. Therefore, understanding the cultural differences becomes necessary and results in U.S definitely can not be generalized to Asian countries because of different cultural aspects and other influential factors. Although teaching process in China, Korea, and Japan have similarities (Liu & Littlewood, 1997) and these three countries were all influenced by the Confucianism (Little & Reed, 1989), as I researched further, I found that students from these three countries have different attitudes towards teachers and give different scores towards teacher's instruction. Thus, I thought my study would add its value to international education and communication research. Also, the relationship between these four terms and how they influence each other confused me at the beginning, I would like to thank my professor, Stephen Croucher, who helped me clarify these four terms and find a direction to study. As I read more, I decided to study each term one by one which turned out to be an effective approach.

The research method for this study is quantitative research. The qualitative research intends to interpret and does not assume concepts can be measured in an empirical way. However, four terms in my study need to be measured and there are four scientific scales which can be used. According to Cvancara (2012), quantitative research aims to describe and explain which requires an explanation of ways to measure the concepts of interest. Therefore, this method is appropriate to be used in my study.



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The process of data collection is not easy for me. It was really hard to find appropriate participants and motivate people to answer the questionnaire, although it only takes 10 to 15 minutes. I asked help from my friends and all people that I know in China to help me find participants. Thus, the data collection took quite a long time and it lasted more than one month. At last, I got 303 participants to answer my questionnaires in China. Other data were collected by my professor Stephen Croucher from China, Korea, and Japan. Some participants did not answer all questions and some did not fill in their personal information, like major, age etc. I asked their reasons and got replies from my participants. Some did not fill in personal information in order to protect themselves from dangers. For example, they are afraid their information will be somehow leaked to a certain organization and be used illegally.

All participants' answers were put into SPSS program file and there are eight variables in my study, including teacher confirmation (responding to questions, demonstrating interest and interactive teaching style), student motivation, classroom emotion (emotional valence, emotional work, and emotional support) and emotional interest. The nation is treated as a predictor variable to split the file in SPSS. I did a Pearson correlation test because the Pearson product-moment correlation does not take into consideration whether a variable has been classified as a dependent or an independent variable. It treats all variables equally. Bolboaca and Jäntschi (2006) argued that Pearson correlation coefficient measures the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables, describing the direction and degree to which one variable is linearly related to another. For example, I want to find out whether and how teacher confirmation is correlated with student motivation, the coefficient of determination can give me information about the proportion of variation in the dependent variable which might be considered as being associated with the variation in the independent variable. The main focus of the current study is to analyze the relationship between teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan. Analysis of Pearson correlation helps me understand how each variable correlates with each

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other and answers the three hypotheses that I proposed. In order to answer the research question that I proposed, I choose ANOVA. ANOVA is a statistical method developed by Ronald Fisher in 1918, which is used to do the analysis of variance between and within the groups whenever the groups are more than two (Rutherford, 2001). In another word, it is to compare the means of more than two samples based on one factor. In this study, teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest will be compared based on one independent variable--nation.

During the process of conducting this study, I acquired valuable research skills. It was an unprecedented experience for me, where I did the data collection and analyzed it in an individual manner. I learned one of the most popular research methods and got a practical experience of conducting a general survey through questionnaires. Through this research experience, I have also greatly benefited through improving my time-management skills and learned how to make a specific plan for my research study. More specifically, my research process requires lots of preparation and a clear plan for each stage of the study, therefore, each stage of study has to be conducted in an organized manner. Initially, I faced challenges regarding of the timetable and I underestimated the time required for my literature review. Then I dealt with this issue by re-adjusting my schedule. What's more, I feel that my self-confidence has increased as a result of conducting this research. I spent a long time for data collection and owed thanks for the encouragement to my friends, my families, and my advisor. I need to ask for unfamiliar people and strangers to help me do the questionnaire which also enhanced my communication skills.

Before I did my research, I worried about my result and whether I could get a significant result. Now I am satisfied with my final result. The main research question was answered as I expected. Some results support the previous research findings and I think my study has practical implications for future study. In total, I learned a lot during the process of writing this thesis. I got to know its practical implications and how to conduct my research after reviewing former theories. I also learned how to use SPSS to analyze the data under the instruction of my supervisor and report data in

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academic writing. I believe all these will be beneficial to me for my Ph.D. application and my future study.

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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

### **Cross-cultural analysis of teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in China, Korea and Japan.**

Stephen M. Croucher, Tingting Shen

## ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation across three cultures: China, Korea, and Japan and studies how classroom emotion and emotional interest influence this relationship in three different nations. Students in China ( $n=718$ ), Korea ( $n=362$ ), and Japan ( $n=350$ ) completed questionnaires assessing their perceived teacher confirmation, student motivation,

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classroom emotion and emotional interest. Results of these samples indicate that teacher confirmation is positively correlated with student motivation in Korea and Japan. There is also a significant difference in these three groups on teacher confirmation, emotional work and emotional support. The results showed there was a higher level of responding to questions, interactive teaching style, demonstrating interests in China; a higher level of emotional support and emotional work in Korea compared with China and Japan.

**Keywords:** Teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion, emotional interest, China, Korea, Japan

### **Introduction**

To date, a massive amount of instructional communication research has been done in the United States, which represents the Anglo culture (McCroskey & McCroskey, 2006). Studies show instructional behavior (e.g., confirmation) is effective in raising students' cognitive learning and motivation in the US (Ellis, 2000). However, whether these effective teaching behaviors can be transferred from the US to other cultures is unclear. Zhang and Huang (2008) claimed that teacher clarity, one aspect of teacher confirmation could effectively transfer from the US to other cultures. On the contrary, several effective teaching behaviors studied in instructional communication lead to different results based on cultural contexts (Zhang & Oetzel, 2006). Teacher confirmation is an instructional behavior that helps students learning in the classroom (Ellis, 2000). Goodboy and Myers (2008) found a positive relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation. They discovered students not only recognized confirming attempts by an instructor, but also acknowledged these attempts significantly influenced their ability to learn and stay motivated in the classroom. The relaxed classroom emotional environment in the US also raises students' motivation to learn in US classes. However, studies are limited to US classrooms and if teacher confirmation is effective in other cultures remain unknown. McCroskey (2006) noted that whether the instructional communication is effective across different cultures is still doubtful and which kind of teaching behaviors can be transferred remains unclear. Similarly, the effectiveness of teacher

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confirmation in other cultures as one aspect of teaching communication has not been demonstrated and whether the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation remains positive has not been studied outside the United States. Therefore, the aim of this study is to investigate if the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation is stable across cultures and compare the relationships between teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in Chinese, Korean, and Japanese classrooms.

### **Teacher Confirmation**

The term “confirmation” has appeared in philosophical, religious and communication literature for more than four decades, beginning with the writings of Martin Buber (1957). Buber (1957) was regarded as the first to write about confirmation in an interpersonal sense. He argued confirmation was probably the most important feature of human interaction and a necessarily communicative behavior, and proposed confirmation was an interactional phenomenon by which we discover and establish our identity as humans. Laing (1961) further developed the construct of confirmation and stressed confirmation was the process that includes actions on the part of others that lead one to feel “endorsed,” “recognized,” and “acknowledged” as a unique, valuable human beings.

Sieburg (1973, 1975) extracted the basic dimensions of confirmation and disconfirmation from the conceptual framework provided by Laing (1961) and the descriptive work by Watzlawick et al. (1967). According to the Sieburg (1975) and the Cissna and Sieburg (1981) typology, confirmation includes the interrelated clusters of (a) recognition, (b) acknowledgement, and (c) endorsement; disconfirmation includes (a) indifference, (b) imperviousness, and (c) disqualification of the speaker, his or her message, or both. Thus, disconfirmation negates the other as a valid message source and communicates to the other that he or she is less than human, that he or she is merely a thing, an object in the environment, valueless and insignificant as a human being. The study of confirmation was extended to instructional contexts and it has been shown to be an extremely valuable communicative behavior in the college classroom (Goodboy & Myers, 2008). The

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importance of confirmation has been stressed in the educational context and confirmation promotes students' self-efficacy, internal feelings of self-worth, and learning outcomes in the classroom (Ellis, 2004).

Teacher confirmation is the process by which teachers communicate to students and make them realize they are valuable, significant individuals. Ellis (2000) proposed teacher confirmation is best understood across four dimensions: (a) responding to student questions and/or comments, (b) demonstrating interest in the students' learning process, (c) employing an interactive teaching style in the classroom and (d) absence of general disconfirmation. When instructors are confirming in the classroom, students show higher levels of cognitive learning, affective learning, and motivation (Ellis, 2000). Goodboy and Myers (2008) not only discovered that students recognized confirming behaviors by an instructor, but also acknowledged that these behaviors significantly influenced their ability to learn and stay motivated in the class. In addition to the ability to enhance student learning outcomes, teacher confirmation has been related positively to students' preparedness for class and willingness to talk in class (Sidelinger & Booth-Butterfield, 2010), classroom satisfaction (Goodboy & Myers, 2008), student effort and interest (Campbell, Eichhorn, Basch, & Wolf, 2009), communication satisfaction (Goodboy, Martin, & Bolkan, 2009), and predicted outcome value for the course (Horan, Houser, Goodboy, & Frymier, 2011). Teacher confirmation was also shown to increase student motivation and emotional interest through building a favorable classroom environment (Edwards, Edwards, Torrens, & Beck, 2011).

### **Student Motivation**

Motivation was derived from the Latin verb "movere" which means "to move". Lots of motivational research and theories are based on investigating what moves an individual to engage in actions and make certain choices (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Student motivation as an educational context has been studied extensively. Student motivation is the internal intention that drives students to gain knowledge and skills in the classroom (Brophy, 1987). Student motivation is defined as a students' desire to attend in the learning process, also the reason why they have a feeling of involvement

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or noninvolvement in the academic learning is concerned. Sheldon (1942) identified two motive types and made a distinction between extraverts and introverts. Zuckerman (1974) also measured the extent to which people seek excitement as extroverts do or seek avoidance as introverts do. A person is intrinsically motivated, which means that he or she feels satisfaction or enjoyment when participating. On the contrary, extrinsically motivated people participate in a task aiming to achieve a reward instead of only finishing the task. Extrinsic motivation is kind of motivation induced by punishments from the failure of task or rewards from the success in task (Lin et al., 2001).

Student motivation is also influenced by parents, teachers and some other factors. Brophy (1987) claimed motivation to learn is acquired from general experience and can be stimulated through direct instruction or socialization from others, such as parents and teachers. Raffini (1993) argued that teachers' beliefs towards teaching and learning exert an influence on students. Like Stipek (1988) explained, "students expect to learn if teachers expect them to learn" (p.179). Student motivation is also related to teacher's self-disclosure and a high level of self-disclosure leads to high student motivation and their affective learning (O'Sullivan et al., 2004). Differences in instructors' teaching methods, including the type of task in which they ask students to engage, can also have an influence on students' motivational goals that they adopt for learning or their self-regulated learning (Ames, 1992; Maehr & Midgley, 1991).

### **Classroom Emotions**

The Classroom Emotions Scale (CES) was created to assess students' perceptions of emotional experiences in classes. Lupton (1994) argued communication and emotion are intertwined when communicators try to express their feelings towards others or around environment. Negative emotions in the learning process result in students' withdrawal and failure in school (Skinner, Furrer, Marchland, & Kindermann, 2008). Nixon (2009) claimed negative experience on emotional work leads to negative emotional valence, for instance, emotional depression (Wharton, 1993). Moreover, the development of emotional valence is influenced by behaviors exhibited by other students and teachers in class (Honeycutt, Nasser, Banner, Mapp,

& DuPont, 2008). In educational settings, teachers and students both engage in emotional work when they communicate with each other. Effective communication between teachers and students can lead to an environment where students tend to display their authentic emotions and reduce their emotional work in the class. Likewise, higher levels of perceived emotional work are associated with lower levels of perceived support from both peers and mentors (Schmisseur, 2003); therefore, less perceived teacher support leads to higher perceived emotional work. More specifically, students prefer to carefully manage their emotions and control the expression of emotion (Miller, 2007) when they perceive less confirmation behaviors from teachers.

### **Culture and Education Systems in China, Korea, and Japan**

The effectiveness of teacher confirmation has been shown in research and its effectiveness varies in different cultures (Goodboy et al., 2011; Zhang & Oetzel, 2006). Also, Neuliep (1997) claimed the cultural context where communication happens has the characteristics that best define human interaction. Therefore, although the effectiveness of instructor behavior has been tested in the US and there were similar results found in other cultures, such as China (Zhang & Huang, 2008), it is still necessary to continue study teaching communication from a broader cultural perspective (McCroskey & McCroskey, 2006). In this study, the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation in China, Korea, and Japan is studied. These three countries are all East Asian countries and they have different educational practices and pedagogy, which influence the relationship development between teacher confirmation and student motivation.

Understanding Confucianism is useful to understand the pedagogy and teaching system in China (Alon & McIntyre, 2005). According to the Learning Cubic Model (Boisot & Fiol, 1987), which depicts teaching styles with three dimensions (conceptual versus practical, individual versus collective, and under instruction versus via self-study), the typical Chinese teaching-learning pattern fits the conceptual-individual-under instruction style. It shows that Chinese students are accustomed to and prefer the way of studying as separate individuals under the

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detailed instruction of their teachers focusing mainly on theoretical topics. They expect and are expected simply to listen to, to take notes of, and to copy down what their instructors say and write. The concepts of high power distance and filial piety affect the interaction between teachers and students. Chinese teachers have the authority and they deserve respect from students. Instructors are treated as authority figures second to students' parents and their authority will be not challenged easily (Siu, 1992). The principle of filial piety teaches students to keep silent and be passiveness in front of authority demands (Ho, 1996). "Chinese instructors demand silence in class; no questions" (Alon & McIntyre, 2005, p.200).

The collectivistic societal orientation is also a typical feature of Chinese education and it affects the educational practices in China. Collective cultures typically prefer a high-context form of communication that emphasizes indirectness and non-verbal expression compared with low-context culture (Gao et al., 1996). Saving face is really important for Chinese people and face management helps maintain harmonious relationships. Therefore, Chinese students rarely ask questions to challenge teacher which is perceived as "threatening" (Gao et al., 1996, p.289).

In Korea, the tradition of Confucian elitism is also important in shaping a competition-oriented society (Lee, 2006). However, the Korean educational pedagogy and school system still differs from the Chinese system. Education in Korea is treated as the success of the whole family and children work hard on their studies (Sorensen, 1994). The class is relatively teacher-centered and children are taught to focus on the teacher. There is a saying in Korea: 'One does not dare to step on a teacher's shadow'. The teacher plays a crucial role in the teaching practices and he or she is regarded as a rule at schools (Shin & Koh, 2005). Exam-orientated is another characteristics and schools sort students depending on exams. Leung (2001) argued that the examination-orientation is an extrinsic motivation for learning. Teachers also think exam preparation should be reflected in the class since examinations are used to test students' achievement levels. The educational atmosphere in Korea is rather competitive and academic study is regarded as the first step in preparation for getting a better job (Hyun et al., 2000; Kim et al., 1993; Rohlen, 1983; Stevenson & Baker,

1992). Park's study (2002) showed that Korean students tend to have negative preferences for group learning and the result shows the individualistic and competitive spirit in Korean classrooms.

Compared with the Chinese and Korean education systems, Japanese teaching has its own unique characteristics. The core feature of Japanese education has no author and no core texts, which is implicit and reflects a deep cultural logic. Juku culture in Japan influences the teaching environment. Encouraging students' motivation seems much more important than focusing on exam preparation in Juku culture. Belonging and community are stressed in Japanese education (DeCoker et al., 2013). In Japan, Mimamoru is a component of a larger pedagogical method "machi no hoiku", which means one should care for children by waiting. Mimamoru aims to help children develop social-emotional ability without intervening and it definitely influences the teaching-learning process in Japanese preschools (DeCoker & Bjork, 2013). Also, a combination of strict rules within close relationships is used in Japanese classrooms, in which "positive reinforcement" and "forceful methods" are used to help teachers control the class.

H1: Teacher confirmation is positively related to the student motivation in Korea, Japan, and China.

H2: Teacher confirmation is positively related to the classroom emotion and emotional interest in Korea, Japan, and China.

H3: Student motivation is positively related to the classroom emotion and emotional interest in Korea, Japan, and China.

RQ: To what extent do Korea, Japan, and China differ on teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest?

## Method

### Participants and Procedures

A total of 1430 students participated in this study: China ( $n = 718$ ), Korea ( $n = 362$ ), Japan ( $n = 350$ ). The Chinese participants ranged in age from 18 to 57 ( $M = 25.18$ ;  $SD = 6.13$ ), Korean from 18 to 57 ( $M = 24.88$ ;  $SD = 7.57$ ) and Japanese from 18 to 57 ( $M = 26.92$ ,  $SD = 8.13$ ). In China, men ( $n = 378$ , 52.6%) were more prevalent



than women ( $n = 326$ , 45.4%). In Korea, there were also more men ( $n = 208$ , 57.5%) than women ( $n = 154$ , 42.5%). While in Japan, there were less men ( $n = 174$ , 49.7%) than women ( $n = 176$ , 50.3%) in number.

Regarding educational background, participants were rather diverse. In China, 19.9% completed high school ( $n = 143$ ), 16.7% finished 2 years of college ( $n = 120$ ), 54% got a bachelor degree or equivalent ( $n = 388$ ), 3.1% completed some graduate education ( $n = 22$ ) and 5.4% had the equivalent of an MA ( $n = 39$ ). In Korea, 6.1% completed high school ( $n = 22$ ), 60.8% finished 2 years of college ( $n = 220$ ), 20.4% got a bachelor degree or equivalent ( $n = 74$ ), 10.5% completed some graduate education ( $n = 38$ ) and 2.2% had the equivalent of an MA ( $n = 8$ ). In Japan, 24.1% completed high school ( $n = 157$ ), 46.1% finished 2 years of college ( $n = 300$ ), 18.1% got a bachelor degree or equivalent ( $n = 118$ ), 10.0% completed some graduate education ( $n = 65$ ) and 1.7% had the equivalent of an MA ( $n = 11$ ).

As for the participants' major, in China, 5.4% reported the sciences ( $n = 53$ ), 1.7% education ( $n = 12$ ), 1.8% communication ( $n = 13$ ), 1.0% history ( $n = 7$ ), 2.2% music ( $n = 16$ ), 8.5% languages ( $n = 61$ ), 7.7% IT ( $n = 55$ ), 4.6% mathematics ( $n = 33$ ), 24.4% sociology ( $n = 175$ ), 1.0% psychology ( $n = 7$ ), 7.7% business ( $n = 55$ ), 0.4% sports ( $n = 3$ ), 5.2% were undeclared ( $n = 37$ ). In Korea, 11.0% reported the sciences ( $n = 40$ ), 7.5% education ( $n = 27$ ), 2.5% communication ( $n = 9$ ), 1.1% history ( $n = 4$ ), 5.5% music ( $n = 20$ ), 12.2% languages ( $n = 44$ ), 5.2% IT ( $n = 19$ ), 1.7% mathematics ( $n = 6$ ), 1.7% sociology ( $n = 6$ ), 1.7% psychology ( $n = 6$ ), 4.1% business ( $n = 15$ ) and 0.3% sports ( $n = 1$ ). In Japan, 6.6% reported the sciences ( $n = 23$ ), 2.9% education ( $n = 10$ ), 4.6% communication ( $n = 16$ ), 2.3% history ( $n = 8$ ), 4.9% music ( $n = 17$ ), 7.7% languages ( $n = 27$ ), 8.6% IT ( $n = 30$ ), 5.1% mathematics ( $n = 18$ ), 3.7% sociology ( $n = 13$ ), 3.1% psychology ( $n = 11$ ), 5.7% business ( $n = 20$ ) and 3.1% sports ( $n = 11$ ).

Participants completed an anonymous survey in mainland China, Korea, and Japan. The survey was translated into Chinese, Korean, and Japanese through a process of back translation before data collection and there were no problems found during the translation or back translation process. The kappa reliabilities were .84 for

the Chinese version, .79 for the Korean, and .85 for the Japanese version of the surveys. Data were collected in 2015 through self-administered online surveys. The survey took about 15 to 20 minutes to complete and participants were notified that they were permitted to end their participation at any time.

### Instrumentation

Participants completed online surveys that included the following scales: teacher confirmation scale, student motivation scale, classroom emotion scale, emotional interest scale, and demographic items. See Table 1 for means, standard deviations, and alphas for all study variables.

**Table 1**

*Means, Standard Deviation, Reliability Coefficients and Correlations*

Variables	Chinese student										
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$\alpha$	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) Responding to Questions	2.16	1.05	.87	–							
(2) Demonstrating Interests	2.12	1.04	.87	.89**	–						
(3) Interactive Teaching Style	2.12	1.05	.87	.90**	.93**	–					
(4) Student Motivation	3.34	.85	.94	-.06	-.08	-.09	–				
(5) Emotional Interest	2.39	1.16	.87	.87**	.85**	.84**	-.10	–			
(6) Emotional Valence	2.47	1.39	.88	.82**	.80**	.75**	-.17**	.86**	–		
(7) Emotional Support	2.30	1.04	.87	.82**	.84**	.83**	-.14*	.87**	.83**	–	
(8) Emotional Work	2.32	1.25	.91	.40**	.40**	.38**	-.18**	.47**	.37**	.49**	–
Variables	Korean student										
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$\alpha$	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) Responding to Questions	1.64	1.06	.69	–							
(2) Demonstrating Interests	1.77	1.12	.69	.98**	–						
(3) Interactive Teaching Style	1.65	1.05	.69	.98**	.97**	–					
(4) Student Motivation	3.13	1.43	.67	.86**	.85**	.86**	–				
(5) Emotional Interest	2.26	.78	.71	.85**	.85**	.86**	.98**	–			
(6) Emotional Valence	2.34	1.45	.74	.58**	.58**	.97**	.69**	.69**	–		
(7) Emotional Support	2.37	.85	.75	.58**	.57**	.57**	.69**	.69**	.97**	–	

(8) Emotional Work											
	3.89	1.35	.95	-.60**	-.60**	-.59**	-.72**	-.96**	-.97**	--	
Japanese student											
Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$\alpha$	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) Responding to Questions	1.82	1.10	.80	-							
(2) Demonstrating Interests	1.97	1.25	.79	.83**	-						
(3) Interactive Teaching Style	1.87	1.16	.80	.85**	.97**	-					
(4) Student Motivation	3.13	1.17	.88	.19*	.25**	.25**	-				
(5) Emotional Interest	2.20	1.25	.78	.86**	.87**	.87**	.10**	-			
(6) Emotional Valence	2.28	1.51	.79	.83**	.80**	.78**	.20*	.84**	--		
(7) Emotional Support	1.94	.94	.80	.70**	.72**	.71**	.14	.81**	.84**	--	
(8) Emotional Work	2.49	1.55	.92	-.11	-.09	-.12	-.39**	.11	-.04	.20**	--

Note: \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .001$ .

**Teacher confirmation scale.** The Teacher Confirmation Scale is a 16-item measure (Ellis, 2000) designed to assess student's perception of their teachers' confirming behavior in the classroom based on the following three dimensions: responding to students' questions (e.g. "My instructor takes time to answer students' questions fully"), showing their interests towards students and teaching style. The scale is based on a Likert scale ranging from 0 *strongly disagree* to 4 *strongly agree*.

**Student motivation scale.** The Student Motivation Scale is composed of 16 bipolar items with seven response options, from 1 to 7 (Christophel, 1990). Participants are asked to report their own level of motivation towards the class that they last attended. The higher the score is, the greater the motivation is. Sample items include following aspects: inspired—uninspired, challenged—unchallenged, motivated—unmotivated, interested—uninterested, involved—uninvolved, stimulated—not stimulated, want to study—don't want to study, fascinated—not fascinated, not dreading it—dreading it, important—unimportant, invigorated—uninvigorated, enthused—unenthused, excited—unexcited, aroused—not aroused, useful—useless, helpful—harmful.

**Classroom emotions scale.** Classroom emotions have three dimensions and it was assessed using Titsworth et al.'s (2010) Classroom Emotions Scale. The dimensions include: emotional valence, emotional work, and emotional support. A 5-point Likert

scale is used with responses ranging from 1 *strongly disagree* to 5 *strongly agree*.

**Emotional interest scale.** Emotional Interest is composed of nine items and it was designed to measure students' emotional interest in a specific course (Mazer, 2012). The scale uses a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 *strongly disagrees* to 5 *strongly agree*.

## Result

To confirm *H1* and *H2*, Pearson correlation was conducted. *H1* predicted teacher confirmation (responding to questions, demonstrating interest, and interactive teaching style) would be positively correlated with student motivation in China, Korea, and Japan. In Korea, responding to questions was positively correlated with student motivation ( $r = .86, p < .001$ ). Demonstrating interest ( $r = .85, p < .001$ ) and interactive teaching style ( $r = .86, p < .001$ ) were also positively correlated with student motivation. In Japan, responding to questions was positively correlated with student motivation ( $r = .19, p < .005$ ). Demonstrating interest ( $r = .25, p < .001$ ) and interactive teaching style ( $r = .25, p < .001$ ) were also positively correlated with student motivation. In China, student motivation is not significantly correlated with responding to questions ( $r = -.61, p = .29$ ), demonstrating interest ( $r = -.08, p = .19$ ) and interactive teaching style ( $r = -.09, p = .11$ ). Therefore, *H1* was partially supported. Teacher confirmation is positively correlated with student motivation in Korea and Japan. In China, there is no significant correlation between teacher confirmation and student motivation.

*H2* predicted a positive correlation among teacher confirmation (responding to questions, demonstrating interest, and interactive teaching style), classroom emotion (emotional valence, emotional work and emotional support) and emotional interest in Korea, Japan, and China. *H2* was partially supported and teacher confirmation (responding to questions, demonstrating interest and interactive teaching style) was positively correlated with classroom emotion (emotional valence, emotional support, emotional work) and emotional interest in China. However, teacher confirmation in Korea is negatively correlated with emotional work. In Japan, teacher confirmation is not significantly correlated with emotional work. When analyzing nations

separately, there are some differences in these three countries.

In China, responding to questions is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .82, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .82, p < .001$ ), emotional work ( $r = .40, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .87, p < .001$ ). Demonstrating interest is also positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .80, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .84, p < .001$ ), emotional work ( $r = .40, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .85, p < .001$ ). Interactive teaching style is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .75, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .83, p < .001$ ), emotional work ( $r = .38, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .84, p < .001$ ).

In Korea, three factors in teacher confirmation are positively correlated with emotional interest, emotional valence, emotional support. However, teacher confirmation in Korea is negatively correlated with emotional work. Responding to questions is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .58, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .58, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .85, p < .001$ ). Responding to questions is negatively correlated with emotional work ( $r = -.60, p < .001$ ) in Korea. Demonstrating interest is positively related with emotional valence ( $r = .58, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .57, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .85, p < .001$ ). While, demonstrating interest is negatively correlated with emotional work ( $r = -.60, p < .001$ ). Interactive teaching style is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .58, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .57, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .86, p < .001$ ). However, Interactive teaching style is also negatively correlated with emotional work ( $r = -.59, p < .001$ ).

In Japan, teacher confirmation (responding to questions, demonstrating interest and interactive teaching style) is positively correlated with emotional valence, emotional support and emotional interest, while, teacher confirmation is not significantly correlated with emotional work. Responding to questions is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .83, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .70, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .86, p < .001$ ). Responding to questions is not significantly correlated with emotional work in Japan ( $r = -.11, p = .15$ ). Demonstrating interest is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .80, p$

< .001), emotional support ( $r = .72, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .87, p < .001$ ). However, demonstrating interest is not correlated with emotional work ( $r = -.09, p = .22$ ). Interactive teaching style is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .78, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .71, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .87, p < .001$ ). The interactive teaching style in Japan is not significantly correlated with emotional work ( $r = -.12, p = .10$ ).

*H3* predicted that student motivation is positively correlated with classroom emotion (emotional valence, emotional work and emotional support) and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan. *H3* was partly supported and only student motivation is positively correlated with emotional valence in Korea and Japan. There are some differences needed to be mentioned when analyzing three nations separately. In China, student motivation is negatively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = -.17, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = -.14, p < 0.05$ ), emotional work ( $r = -.18, p < 0.01$ ). There is no correlation between student motivation and emotional interest ( $r = -.10, p = .07$ ) in China. In Korea, student motivation is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .69, p < .001$ ), emotional support ( $r = .69, p < .001$ ) and emotional interest ( $r = .98, p < .001$ ). While, student motivation is negatively correlated with emotional work in Korea ( $r = -.72, p < 0.01$ ). In Japan, student motivation is positively correlated with emotional valence ( $r = .20, p < .001$ ). However, student motivation is negatively correlated with emotional work in Japan ( $r = -.39, p < 0.01$ ). There is no significant correlation between student motivation and emotional interest ( $r = .10, p = .21$ ) or emotional support ( $r = .14, p = .07$ ) in Japan.

The *RQ* asked the extent to which there is a significant difference in the level of teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion (perceived emotional support, emotional valence, emotional work), and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan. Eight one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were performed to compare the difference across the three countries; the ANOVA summaries are in Tables 2 through 9 below. Table 1 includes the means and standard deviations. Participants were divided into three groups based on their nationality. The independent variable was the nationality (China, Korea, and Japan). The dependent

variables were: teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion (perceived emotional support, emotional valence, emotional work), and emotional interest. There was a statistically significant difference on teacher confirmation, emotional support, emotional work in these three national groups. However, there was not a significantly difference on student motivation, emotional interest and emotional valence in China, Korea, and Japan.

More specifically, a difference did exist on responding to questions between the three countries: Welch's  $F(2, 689) = 15.134, p < .0001 (\eta^2 = .042)$ . Chinese students perceived the highest teacher confirmation by responding questions, which was followed by Japanese and Korean students. There was a difference on demonstrating interest among the three countries: Welch's  $F(2, 689) = 5.942, p = .003 (\eta^2 = .017)$ . Students in China perceived much more support from teachers by demonstrating interest than students in Japan and Korea. Teaching style in China, Korea, and Japan also differed: Welch's  $F(2, 689) = 11.482, p < .0001 (\eta^2 = .032)$ . Regarding the teaching style in these three countries, China had the highest interactive teaching style, with Korea scoring the lowest. The nations did differ on emotional support: Welch's  $F(2, 667) = 10.997, p < .0001 (\eta^2 = .032)$ . Korean students acquired much more emotional support than students in Japan and China. Nation also has an influence on emotional work: Welch's  $F(2, 668) = 86.876, p < .0001 (\eta^2 = .206)$ . Korea had the highest emotional work among the three countries and China had the lowest score on emotional work. While, there was not a significantly difference on student motivation among the three nations: Welch's  $F(2, 681) = 2.946, p = .053 (\eta^2 = .009)$ . The nations also did not differ on emotional interest: Welch's  $F(2, 668) = 1.879, p = .154 (\eta^2 = .006)$ . There was not a significant difference on emotional valence: Welch's  $F(2, 668) = 1.139, p = .321 (\eta^2 = .003)$ .

### **Discussion**

The aim of this research is to study teacher confirmation as an important role in teaching practices and research the utility of teacher confirmation across cultures in China, Korea, and Japan. First, the relationship between teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in the Chinese, Korean, and

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Japanese classroom were analyzed. Then, I compared teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest across these three countries.

*H1* was partially supported. Teacher confirmation in Korea and Japan was positively correlated with student motivation, which confirms the study results from other researchers, such as Goldman and Goodboy (2014). However, there is no significant correlation found between teacher confirmation and student motivation in China, which runs counter to previous research.

Based on the dimension of teacher confirmation (Ellis, 2000), teacher confirmation consists of three aspects, including responding to questions, interactive teaching style and demonstrating interest. Ellis (2000) defined teacher confirmation as a transactional process where teachers need to communicate with students and make them feel recognized. Brophy (1987) also claimed motivation to study can be stimulated from teachers' instruction. Therefore, the communication process in the classroom could affect student motivation. However, the process of teaching in China is well defined and teacher's main responsibility is to take students systematically through the subject and providing explanations and guidance. Chinese teachers are expected to manipulate their teaching content and adjust the pace when students do not understand something. A qualified teacher usually slows down and provide a closer guidance to students, or even guiding them step by step. (Pratt, Kelly & Wong, 1999). Obviously, the interaction between students and teachers in China does exist during the teaching-learning process, however, the confirming behaviors from teachers seems not so apparent. Chinese teachers are not required to use confirming words or actions to motivate students to learn, then they would rather let students feel it by themselves. Thus, teachers in China pay more attention to the teaching content instead of the teaching atmosphere and some students even think that the traditional teaching model is the best for them.

Chinese teachers in the classroom tend to more concerned with following the classroom rules and pre-planned routines than with the real feelings of the students (Jingbo & Elicker, 2005), which is likely to have an influence on the emotion of the whole classroom. For Chinese students, they almost do not have the choice about



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what they do in schoolwork and there is a strong tendency towards uniformity in Chinese schools (Winner, 1989), therefore, this reality might lead to a lower classroom emotion.

Watkins and Biggs (1996) claimed that Chinese students are activated by multiple motivations. Education is treated as the way for individual development and a paramount ladder to higher status (Gow, Balla, Kember, & Hau, 1996). In other words, social mobility as one of the factors has an impact on student motivation in learning process (Chen, 1994) and students' motivation to study is more derived from their own duty and their strong responsibility. Thus, lacking of confirming behaviors and self-motivated students could affect teacher confirmation and diminish the correlation between teacher confirmation and students motivation in the Chinese classroom.

*H2* got mixed results. Emotional work is negatively correlated with teacher confirmation in Korea. In Japan, there is no correlation found between teacher confirmation and emotional work. Emotional work is the emotional energy that students need to exert in the classroom. Effective communication between teachers and students can lead to an environment where students tend to display their authentic emotions and reduce their emotional work in the class. Likewise, higher levels of perceived emotional work are associated with lower levels of perceived support from both peers and mentors (Schmisseur, 2003). In other words, lower perceived confirmations from teachers could result in a higher level of emotional work. Students prefer to carefully manage their emotions and control the expression of emotion when they perceive fewer confirmation behaviors from teachers (Miller et al., 2007).

In Korea, academic credentials are valued highly and parents always want to secure a good education for their children. Children's academic success and failure are intimately correlated with parents' self-esteem (Chung, 2009). One child could bring respect and honor to the family if he or she has an educational success (Seráfica, 1990). Also, national college entrance examination in Korea is extremely competitive which has made students' academic success much more important. All these require

lots of time, money and sacrifice from family (Kim, 1996). With this high value placed on education and the whole family's effort for education, students usually treat their lesson really seriously and put all their effort in the study process (Chung, 2009), even including emotional management in the classroom. Lee and Moon (2008) also found that Korean students start to regulate their emotion when they are child and the regulation of childrens' positive emotion influences their peer's competence. Therefore, it is understandable that Korean students tend to manage their emotions and have a high emotional work in the classroom which help them to concentrate on study fully and achieve a success. For Korean students in the classroom, they are expected to show their enjoyment of learning when they emulate teacher's behavior (Lee, 2000), thus, deep thinking in silent class is regarded as the best practice in Korean teacher's mind (Lee, 2013). All in all, a high level of emotional work coexist with a low level of teacher confirmation in Korean classroom seems reasonable.

In Japan, there is no significant correlation between teacher confirmation and emotional work. Teacher confirmation can be shown out in many ways and to some extent, it shows the influence of teachers' positive action on students learning outcomes. On the one hand, Japanese teachers try to minimize the teacher control and create a climate of cooperation in the classroom (Peak, 1991). They believe that young students can control themselves and organize themselves effectively in one group if they were given proper routines (LeTendre, 2000). Japanese teachers aim to reduce their influences on students and cultivate students' self-learning ability. Also, "reward method" is avoided in Japanese education, which probably results in less confirming behaviors from teachers. Therefore, teachers' role in learning process is lessened. On the other hand, emotional energy that Japanese students exert in the classroom is not much and the expression of emotions is not strongly advocated in Japanese academic activities (Rohlen, 1983). In total, these two factors could affect the emotional arousal and diminish the correlation between teacher confirmation and students' emotional work in Japan.

*H3* was not supported fully. Student motivation in Korea and Japan are negatively correlated with emotional work. Student motivation in Japan is not

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significantly correlated with emotional interest and emotional support. In China, student motivation is negatively correlated with classroom emotion and there is no correlation between student motivation and emotional interest.

In China, student motivation is negatively correlated with classroom emotion (emotional valence, emotional work, emotional support). The result runs counter to earlier studies. It also shows out that there is no correlation between student motivation and emotional interest in China. In the Chinese educational area, there is an internationally high degree of inequality of opportunity and income inequality which mirrors to the high extent of inequality. Equalitarianism seems rather important in China, in particular considering the size of the country and the vast regional differences in natural resources and other conditions. Research has shown that Chinese higher education has failed to equalize opportunities in the differentiated system (Ding 2006; Yang 2006; Liu 2007) and there is a difference regarding the educational situation between different regions within China. For example, some students do not have access to schools and the problem of lacking teachers in rural places is even getting more serious. The shortage of teaching resources and inequality in China probably could have an impact on the forming of classroom emotion. The harsh educational condition makes it rather hard for teachers to concern about the students' psychological need and their emotional response, such as classroom emotion and emotional interest. Also, the low qualified of Chinese teachers in some rural places could not ensure the outcomes of the teaching process and the classroom atmosphere is ignored somehow. All these factors probably may lead to a lower classroom emotion and emotional interest in China.

Besides, Zhou and Deci (2009) claimed that Chinese learners from rural areas have a high level of autonomous motivation which is associated with a high level of perceived interest and competence. Students' autonomous motivation is also found positively correlated with adjustment-related self-perceptions and school outcomes. Chinese students are likely to have a strong sense of motivation and competence when they are pressured to meet external expectations (Markus & Kitayama, 2003). Therefore, a lower classroom emotion could possibly lead to higher student

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motivation in Chinese teaching practices and this reality is also likely to reduce the correlation between student motivation and emotional interest.

In Japan, there is no correlation between student motivation, emotional interest, and emotional support. A "Relaxed education" reform in Japan was introduced in teaching settings and it aims to help students develop qualifications in the 21st century. This reform changed the traditional curriculum and in which students' self-motivation was nurtured and stressed. Teachers try to develop students' inner motivation and foster students' intrinsic interest towards study. Thus, the motivation to keep on studying is not easily be influenced by external factors and students develop their independent ability on learning. Also, the expression of emotions is not strongly advocated in Japanese academic activities (Rohlen, 1983). Students in the classroom are not used to show out their real feelings and their emotional situation. Therefore, inner motivation and "hidden emotion" could diminish the correlation between student motivation and emotional interest.

The *RQ* intends to study to which extent teacher confirmation, emotional interest, classroom emotion (perceived emotional support, emotional valence, emotional work), and student motivation differ in China, Korea, and Japan. The result shows that Chinese students perceived a relatively higher confirmation from teachers than Japanese and Korean students. Also, emotional support and emotional work in Korea are much higher compared with other two countries.

Different from the silent atmosphere during the Chinese class, Biggs (1994) found that Chinese teachers frequently engage all students in solving problems after class and push for thought processes among students. Chinese students were also proved to have a higher level to pursue "one-to-one interaction" with teachers after the class. Apparently, teachers are active to respond to students' questions and there is a close studying-learning relationship between teachers and students. Moreover, Chinese education system has been reformed and a new curriculum was proposed. For example, New Curriculum of Basic Education (NCBE) was proposed and its main purpose is "education should be oriented towards modernization, the world and the future" (MOE, 2008). The teaching pedagogy is changed, more specifically, the

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interaction between teachers and students are stressed in NCBE. Teachers are expected to offer chances to inspire students and motivate them to participate in the learning process. Communicating with students and demonstrating their interest towards students' study process is being advocated. Zhang (2008) claimed that a reform of teacher education has been proposed in teaching methods, instructional relationship, teacher's attitude etc. Therefore, curriculum reform and an intimate teacher-student relationship after the class could lead to a higher teacher confirmation in China compared with Japan and Korea.

Besides, emotional work and emotional support in Korea are the highest among three countries. High school students in Korea perceive their classroom environment with a strong task-orientation and a warm relationship between teachers and students. More specifically, Korean students receive much teacher support and gain attention from teachers. Baek and Choi (2002) later found that the strong emotional support from teachers indeed leads to students' higher achievement in the classroom. Regarding the emotional work, self-efficacy in Korean students increase their emotional work and effort put in the classroom. Thus, all these factors could have influences on Korean education settings and lead to a higher level of emotional work and emotional support than China and Japan.

### **Implications**

In total, this study contributes to our understanding of the relationships between teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan. Students' perception of teacher confirmation, emotional support, and emotional work are significantly different in China, Korea, and Japan. Students in China perceived a much higher confirmation from teachers compared with Korean and Japanese students. Korean students have a higher emotional support and emotional work in three countries.

The findings of this study can be useful to instructors and students in China, Korea and Japan. Teachers in Japan and Korea could benefit from the result, for instance, they can increase their confirming behavior towards students and motivate students to improve their performance by mediating the classroom environment.

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Also, this study is the first one to investigate the effect of national culture and pedagogy difference on the interaction between teachers and students in China, Korea and Japan. The relationship between teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in China, Korea and Japan has not been studied before and the findings can increase the interest from other scholars to study the culture and education system in Asia and find more difference among Asian countries.

### **Limitations**

There are some limitations in this study. First of all, the current samples are still limited to represent these three Asian countries, therefore future study could be more representative if they collect more samples from populations. Then, the self-report was used as the only method to collect the data, which merely provides information from participants' perspective. However, there are still many other methods (eg; interviews), which can provide a new perspective to analyze this study. Regarding the age of all participants, it ranges from 18s to over 50s. Some of the respondents might have finished their school education for many years and their feedback in questionnaire probably is not so updated, which is likely to affect the accuracy of data and confuse the reader to some extent.

Therefore, future studies on the current topic are strongly recommended. A further study should focus not only on the relationship among following four terms: teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest, but also on other aspects to see a broader picture of Asian education system. Also, it is possible to study the influence of globalization and immigration on the education system in Asian countries (Altbach et al., 2009). Educational communication between Western and Eastern countries have already started to influence the practical training and teaching in the classroom (Kaiser, 2006). Some international schools have boomed in recent years and its pedagogy to some extent absorbs the essence of both Western and Eastern education. Therefore, the relationship between teacher confirmation and student motivation really needs to be studied in these new-coming schools and various influential factors are suggested to explore further.

## Conclusion

This study explores the relationship between teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan. The findings of this study stress the importance of cultural difference in the classroom context. A significant effect of teacher confirmation on student motivation was found in Korean and Japanese educational setting. A higher level of teacher confirmation in Korea and Japan could lead to a higher motivation among students. Also, a positive relationship was found between teacher confirmation and classroom emotion and emotional interest in China. In Korea, teacher confirmation could decrease students' emotional work and student motivation is also negatively correlated with emotional work. In Japan, no correlation found between teacher confirmation and emotional work, neither between student motivation and emotional interest. The current research has provided a useful resource to instructors and students in China, Korea, and Japan. Based on the result of this study, teachers in Japan and Korea can also learn how to motivate students in the classroom and improve students' performance by mediating classroom environment. Overall, the current study contributes to our understanding of teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in China, Korea, and Japan. And this study highlights the extent to which the effect of teacher confirmation differ across three cultures and provide further justification for the reason why more studies should continue to be examined in other cultures.

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**Table 2***Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Student Motivation*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	7.487	3.74	2.946	.053
Within groups	681	865.434	1.27		
Total	683	872.921			

Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

**Table 3***Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Emotional Interest*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	4.438	2.22	1.879	.154
Within groups	668	788.849	1.18		
Total	670	793.287			

Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

**Table 4***Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Emotional Support*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	20.454	10.23	10.997	.000
Within groups	667	620.290	.93		
Total	669	640.743			

Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

\*p <.0001.

**Table 5***Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Emotional Work*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	320.618	160.31	86.876	.000
Within groups	668	1232.637	1.85		
Total	670	1553.255			

Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

\*p <.0001.

**Table 6***Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Emotional Valence*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	4.705	2.35	1.139	.321



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Within groups	668	1379.994	2.07
Total	670	1384.699	

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Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

**Table 7**

*Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Responding to questions*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	34.462	17.23	15.134	.000
Within groups	689	784.468	1.14		
Total	691	818.931			

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Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

\*p <.0001.

**Table 8**

*Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Demonstrates Interests*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	14.960	7.48	5.942	.003
Within groups	689	867.315	1.26		
Total	691	882.275			

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Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

**Table 9**

*Analysis of Variance Summary Table for National Cultural and Teaching Style*

Source	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	26.807	13.40	11.482	.000
Within groups	689	804.331	1.17		
Total	691	831.139			

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Note. SS=sum of square; MS=mean square.

\*p <.0001.

APPENDIX: TEACHER CONFIRMATION, STUDENT MOTIVATION,  
CLASSROOM EMOTION AND EMOTIONAL INTEREST SURVEY

The following questionnaire is designed to gather information to explore teacher confirmation, student motivation, classroom emotion and emotional interest in three Asian countries, including China, Korea and Japan.

The questionnaire should only take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Your responses are completely anonymous; only grouped results will be reported and nobody will know your answers in the questionnaire. No personal information identifying you with the study will be retained.

If you have any questions or are interested in the outcomes of this study, please contact me at [titishen@student.jyu.fi](mailto:titishen@student.jyu.fi). Or if you have more questions, you could contact my thesis supervisor: Professor Stephen M. Croucher ([stephen.m.croucher@jyu.fi](mailto:stephen.m.croucher@jyu.fi)).

Thank you for participating in this study and I really appreciate your cooperation!

Please circle the number toward either word that best represents your feelings about the most recent class you attended.

1. Motivated      1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Unmotivated
2. Interested     1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Uninterested
3. Involved       1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Uninvolved
4. Not Stimulated   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Stimulated
5. Don't want to study   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Want to study
6. Inspired        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Uninspired
7. Unchallenged   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Challenged
8. Uninvigorated   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Invigorated
9. Unenthused     1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Enthused
10. Excited        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Excited
11. Aroused       1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Not aroused
12. Not fascinated   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Fascinated
13. Dreading it     1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Looking forward to it

- 
14. Important          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Unimportant
15. Useful          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Useless
16. Helpful          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Harmful

Please evaluate the teacher of the most recent class you attended based on the following scale. For each question please indicate your response based on the following scale:

0

4

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

1. The teacher takes time to answer students' questions fully. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The teacher listens attentively when students ask questions or make comments in class. \_\_\_\_
3. The teacher indicates that he/she appreciates students' questions or comments.
4. The teacher is available for questions before and after class.
5. The teacher is willing to deviate slightly from the lecture when students ask questions.
6. The teacher communicates that he/she is interested in whether students are learning.
7. The teacher communicates that he/she believes students can do well in the class.
8. The teacher asks students how they think the class is going and/or how assignments are coming along.
9. The teacher makes an effort to get to know students.
10. The teacher smiles at the class.
11. The teacher establishes eye contact during class lectures.
12. The teacher uses an interactive teaching style.
13. The teacher uses a variety of teaching techniques to help students understand course material.
14. The teacher checks on students' understanding before going on to the next point.
15. The teacher incorporates exercises into lectures when appropriate.
16. The teacher gives oral or written feedback on students' work.

---

Please evaluate the teacher of the most recent class you attended based on the following scale. For each question please indicates your response based on the following scale:

1

5

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

1. I get the emotional help and support I need from my instructor.  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Interacting with this instructor requires a lot of emotional energy.  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. My instructor is willing to help me make decisions about academic issues.  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. When talking to my instructor I have to conceal or fake my emotions.  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. My instructor is willing to discuss my feelings and emotions about school.  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. I can count on m instructor when things go wrong in my personal life.  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. I wish that I could better express my true feelings with my instructor.  
\_\_\_\_\_
8. I can talk with my instructor about my personal problems.  
\_\_\_\_\_
9. Being in this class required a lot of emotional energy.  
\_\_\_\_\_
10. My instructor is not responsive to my concerns and feelings.  
\_\_\_\_\_
11. I can count on my instructor when things go wrong with school issues.  
\_\_\_\_\_
12. I cannot talk about personal problems with my instructor.  
\_\_\_\_\_
13. I would generally describe the emotions I feel toward my instructor as positive.

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14. I would generally describe the emotions toward this class as positive.

---

Please evaluate the most recent class you attended based on the following scale. For each question please indicate your response based on the following scale:

1

5

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

1. I am interested in this class because the class makes me feel excited.

---

2. I am interested in this class because being in the class is enjoyable.

---

3. I am interested in this class because the topics covered in the class fascinate me.

---

4. I am interested in this class because I feel enthused about being in the class.

---

5. I am interested in this class because the materials fascinate me.

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6. I am interested in this class because the class causes me to feel energized.

---

7. I am interested in this class because the class experience makes me feel good.

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8. I am interested in this class because the class experience feels very positive.

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9. I am interested in this class because I like the things we cover in class.

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