

Article

Japanese Language Study Intensity Among Vietnamese University Students: Academic Engagement, Career Motivation, and Learning Behavior in a Higher-Education Context

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Abstract

Japanese language learning has become increasingly relevant for Vietnamese university students due to expanding academic, cultural, and career-related links between Vietnam and Japan. This study examined lifestyle, social, health-related, and motivational correlates of Japanese language study intensity among Vietnamese university students. A cross-sectional survey was conducted with 407 university students studying Japanese in Vietnam. Descriptive and bivariate analyses used the full sample, while the adjusted logistic regression was based on 334 participants with complete data for all model variables. High study intensity was defined as studying Japanese for 8 h or more per week. Descriptive statistics, bivariate analyses, and adjusted logistic regression were used to examine factors associated with high study intensity. Among participants, 185 students (45.5%) reported high Japanese study intensity. In bivariate analysis, high study intensity was significantly associated with higher latest GPA or academic score, career-related reasons for studying Japanese, grammar study frequency, and prioritizing reading. In the adjusted logistic regression model including 334 complete cases, higher latest GPA or academic score and career-related motivation were positively associated with high study intensity, whereas prioritizing reading was negatively associated with high study intensity. Most lifestyle and health-related variables were not significantly associated with study intensity. These findings suggest that intensive Japanese learning among Vietnamese university students may be driven more by academic engagement and perceived career value than by general lifestyle or health-related patterns.

Keywords: Japanese language learning; study intensity; Vietnamese university students; career motivation; academic engagement; self-regulated learning; higher education



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1. Introduction

Japanese language learning has become increasingly relevant in Vietnam, especially among university students, as it is situated within broader educational, economic, and mobility linkages between Vietnam and Japan. In higher education, Japanese is no longer simply an additional foreign-language subject; it is increasingly connected to students' imagined academic and professional futures. Previous research on Vietnamese university students has shown that Japanese learning is often shaped by perceptions of work, life, and mobility between Vietnam and Japan, reflecting both Japan's business interests in Vietnam and Vietnam's pro-Japan educational orientation (Hashimoto, 2022). At the

same time, Japanese proficiency may function as practical capital for students who seek study-abroad opportunities, employment in Japanese companies, internships, technical training, or professional mobility across Vietnam–Japan networks. Studies on Vietnamese learners preparing for study in Japan also suggest that Japanese language education is closely tied to academic transition, cultural adaptation, and preparation for future study in Japanese institutions (Kawasaki, 2013). More recent research on Vietnamese students in Japan further shows that educational mobility is not limited to language acquisition alone, but is embedded in institutional pathways, information access, and the broader education–migration system linking Vietnamese students to Japanese higher education and labor-market opportunities (Le, 2025). Therefore, for many Vietnamese university students, Japanese language learning can be understood as both a linguistic activity and a strategic investment in academic advancement, employability, intercultural engagement, and future participation in Japan-related social and professional spaces. This perspective is also consistent with second-language motivation research, which emphasizes that learners' effort and persistence are strongly influenced by future-oriented goals, instrumental value, and the perceived relevance of the target language to their personal and professional trajectories (Dörnyei, 1998). Japanese, however, should also be situated within the broader motivational conditions associated with learning languages other than global English. Unlike English, whose perceived international usefulness may be taken for granted in many educational settings, motivation to learn Japanese may depend more strongly on learners' specific cultural interests, imagined identities, educational plans, mobility aspirations, and career trajectories (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). Research on motivated learning behavior further suggests that learners' effort cannot be explained by a single motive; rather, different combinations of instrumental, integrative, identity-related, and attitudinal factors may produce distinct motivational profiles and different levels of sustained learning investment (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Study intensity can therefore be understood as one observable behavioral manifestation of motivation, reflecting the extent to which learners translate future goals and language-related aspirations into regular and sustained study activity.

Within this context, understanding students' Japanese language learning behavior is important for both educators and program designers, particularly because learning outcomes depend not only on enrollment or exposure but also on how learners allocate time, regulate effort, and sustain engagement over time. One key dimension of learning behavior is study intensity, which reflects the amount of time and effort students invest in language learning across formal classes, self-study, review, practice, and exam preparation. In instructed second-language learning, the frequency, duration, and intensity of learning are increasingly recognized as important dimensions of language development, as different distributions of study time may shape how learners retain, consolidate, and apply linguistic knowledge (Sudina & Plonsky, 2024). This issue is particularly relevant to Japanese because developing proficiency generally requires sustained engagement across several interdependent linguistic and literacy domains. Japanese learners must acquire vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading, and writing while also developing control of three interacting writing systems: hiragana, katakana, and kanji. Kanji learning is not simply an additional vocabulary task. Learners must recognize complex visual forms, connect characters with meanings, distinguish multiple context-dependent readings, and understand how characters combine into words. Reading therefore depends on the simultaneous development of lexical knowledge, grammatical processing, orthographic recognition, and discourse comprehension. Japanese also presents challenges involving word order, omitted subjects, particles, politeness levels, honorific forms, and context-sensitive expressions, which may require learners to develop linguistic and pragmatic patterns substantially different from those encountered in English or French. These combined demands can

make progress highly cumulative, as weaknesses in vocabulary, kanji, or grammar may restrict development in several other skills simultaneously (Mori & Mori, 2011; Rothville & Skalicky, 2025; Otsuka & Murai, 2020). In the present study, study intensity refers to the amount of time and frequency with which students engage in Japanese-language learning over a defined period, including both formal instruction and independent study. It reflects the concentration of learning activity rather than proficiency itself. A student may study intensively without yet possessing advanced proficiency, while another learner may have relatively high proficiency due to longer previous exposure but currently study fewer hours. Study intensity is therefore treated as a behavioral indicator of current learning investment, encompassing the time learners allocate to classes, self-study, review, practice, and examination preparation. Although the quality, distribution, and effectiveness of study time are also important, weekly study hours provide a practical measure of the extent to which students translate learning goals into observable effort. A distinction should also be made between motives and motivation. Motives refer to the specific reasons learners report for studying a language, such as interest in Japanese language and culture, communication with Japanese speakers, study abroad, certification, or future employment. Motivation is a broader and more dynamic process that initiates, directs, and sustains learning behavior over time. It includes not only learners' reasons and goals, but also the strength of their commitment, persistence, self-regulation, and willingness to invest effort. Learners may therefore report similar motives but differ substantially in their level of motivation and motivated learning behavior. For example, two students may both identify career advancement as a reason for studying Japanese, while differing in how consistently they organize study time, monitor their progress, and persist when learning becomes difficult (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). From this perspective, weekly Japanese study intensity represents one observable form of motivated learning behavior. It does not capture motivation in its entirety, but it indicates the extent to which learners' motives, goals, and perceived value of Japanese are translated into sustained time investment. The time required to learn any language depends on the learner's first language, previously learned languages, learning environment, instructional quality, and target level of proficiency. Accordingly, Japanese should not be described as universally more difficult than English or French for all learners. Nevertheless, for learners whose previous foreign-language experience is primarily English-based, Japanese may involve greater linguistic distance than typologically closer European languages. English and French share the Roman alphabet, substantial lexical overlap, and several historically related grammatical and academic conventions. Japanese differs more markedly in its writing system, morphosyntax, pragmatics, and sociolinguistic conventions. Illustratively, the U.S. Foreign Service Institute places French among languages relatively close to English, whereas Japanese is classified among languages requiring exceptionally long periods of intensive training for native English speakers (National Foreign Affairs Training Center, n.d.). This comparison cannot be transferred directly to Vietnamese students, but it illustrates how linguistic distance and literacy demands may increase the amount of structured exposure and practice required for some learner groups.

Previous research on foreign and second language learning has often emphasized motivation, learning strategies, anxiety, self-regulation, and learning outcomes. These factors are central to explaining why some learners persist, invest effort, and achieve stronger language performance. For example, motivation has been widely recognized as a major determinant of second-language learning effort and persistence, while language learning strategy research has shown that university students' strategy choices are shaped by learner-related variables such as motivation, proficiency, and prior learning experience (Dörnyei, 1998; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Similarly, foreign language anxiety has been treated

as a distinctive affective factor that may interfere with learners' confidence, classroom participation, and willingness to use the target language (Horwitz et al., 1986). Beyond affective and strategic factors, self-regulated learning is also important because successful learners must set goals, monitor progress, manage time, and adjust their learning behavior in response to academic demands (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

However, language learning does not occur in isolation from students' broader lives. The amount of time students can allocate to Japanese study may be influenced by daily routines, health status, academic workload, social background, family resources, living environment, and lifestyle habits. University students often have to balance formal coursework, self-study, commuting, sleep, social obligations, financial pressures, and part-time employment. Prior research on college students suggests that time spent studying and working can both shape academic performance, indicating that learning effort is embedded within broader patterns of time allocation (Nonis & Hudson, 2006). Sleep and wellbeing are also relevant, as sleep problems among university students have been associated with poorer functioning and academic difficulties (Lund et al., 2010). Likewise, stress may affect students' capacity to concentrate, sustain effort, and maintain consistent learning habits, making it important to consider health and psychological conditions alongside language-specific motivation and strategies. Research on languages other than English indicates that learners' sustained engagement often depends on how the target language is connected to personally meaningful futures, including travel, cultural participation, study abroad, employment, and transnational mobility (Dornyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Howard & Oakes, 2024). In Japanese-language contexts, learners have reported combinations of cultural interest, personal affinity, travel aspirations, academic goals, and career-related incentives, although the relative importance of these motives varies across national and institutional settings (de Burgh-Hirabe, 2019; Galloway & Curle, 2022; Jitpaiboon et al., 2024; Ward et al., 2024). Consequently, students with similar formal exposure to Japanese may differ substantially in the amount of time and effort they invest, depending on whether they perceive Japanese as a compulsory subject, a cultural interest, a communicative resource, or a form of capital for future education and employment.

International research demonstrates that motivation to learn Japanese is multidimensional and context-sensitive. In New Zealand, Japanese-language motivation reflected interactions among interest in Japanese language and culture, learner identity, classroom experiences, and future-oriented goals (de Burgh-Hirabe, 2019). Research in Thailand has similarly identified a combination of cultural, educational, interpersonal, and career-related motives among learners of Japanese, illustrating that Japanese study cannot be reduced to either purely integrative or purely instrumental motivation (Jitpaiboon et al., 2024). Among university learners in Australia, continued study at intermediate and advanced levels has been linked to sustained personal interest, affinity with Japanese culture, communicative goals, and future professional or educational possibilities (Ward et al., 2024). Studies of Japanese-major students in China have further shown that motivation for Japanese as an additional language may develop dynamically in relation to English, multilingual identity, institutional experience, and changing future self-conceptions (Wu & Liu, 2023). These studies indicate that Japanese-learning motivation is shaped by the interaction of local educational conditions and broader aspirations involving identity, mobility, communication, and career development.

Japanese is also frequently learned as an additional or third language within multilingual educational trajectories. Research on learners using English as an L2 and Japanese as an L3 suggests that motivation, international posture, and willingness to communicate may operate across languages rather than independently within a single target-language system (Simic, 2010; Simic et al., 2007; Kojima & Fukui, 2025). A Swedish study likewise

illustrates how prior knowledge of English may influence learners' experiences of Japanese as a third language, particularly in relation to learning strategies and cross-linguistic awareness (Malmborg, 2021). These findings are relevant to Vietnamese university students, many of whom study Japanese after substantial prior exposure to English. Their Japanese-learning behavior may therefore be shaped not only by attitudes toward Japan, but also by their broader multilingual experience, international orientation, and perceived ability to participate in transnational academic and professional environments.

Within this broader international literature, Vietnam represents an important but still underexamined higher-education context. Existing studies of Vietnamese learners have contributed insights into career and mobility aspirations, communication needs, perceived learning difficulties, and skill-specific challenges. Research on Vietnamese university students suggests that Japanese learning is often connected to imagined futures involving employment, internships, study abroad, and movement between Vietnam and Japan, broadly echoing the future-oriented and career-related motivations identified in other Japanese-learning settings (Hashimoto, 2022). Other studies have examined undergraduate students' perceived Japanese speaking skills, motives for studying Japanese, and needs for communication with native speakers, suggesting that motivation is closely linked to learners' perceived communicative competence and their desire for authentic interaction (Tran et al., 2023). More recent work in Hanoi has also focused on students' challenges and preferred learning support in a non-immersion context, showing that difficulties often become most visible when students need to apply linguistic knowledge in real-time speaking, listening, and reading situations, and that learners value structured support, feedback, and digital learning resources (Nguyen, 2026). At the linguistic-skill level, research on Vietnamese learners' kanji handwriting has further demonstrated the complexity of Japanese learning for Vietnamese students, especially in relation to lexical knowledge, visual complexity, kanji frequency, and difficulty level (Tamaoka et al., 2026).

Across international settings, previous research has substantially advanced understanding of why students learn Japanese, how motivation develops, and how cultural interest, international posture, communication goals, and career aspirations shape continued engagement (de Burgh-Hirabe, 2019; Galloway & Curle, 2022; Jitpaiboon et al., 2024; Kojima & Fukui, 2025; Ward et al., 2024; Wu & Liu, 2023). Related research has also examined willingness to communicate, multilingual and L3 motivation, motivational regulation, and learners' capacity to sustain effort over time (Simic, 2010; Simic et al., 2007; Yamashita, 2023). In Vietnam, studies have similarly examined career and mobility aspirations, speaking needs, learning difficulties, digital support, and kanji-related challenges. Nevertheless, comparatively little attention has been given to the amount of time Vietnamese university students actually allocate to Japanese study and to the factors that distinguish higher-intensity from lower-intensity learners.

This distinction is theoretically and practically important because motivation does not automatically result in motivated learning behavior. Learners may express positive attitudes toward Japanese or recognize its educational and professional value without consistently devoting time to study. Motivational research therefore distinguishes between learners' orientations and the behavioral effort through which those orientations are enacted (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Weekly study intensity offers a practical, although necessarily partial, indicator of such behavioral investment. Examining study intensity may therefore clarify whether students' actual learning commitment is associated primarily with career motivation and academic engagement or whether it is also shaped by broader social, lifestyle, and health-related conditions.

The present study addresses this gap by examining academic, motivational, social, lifestyle, health-related, and learning-behavior correlates of Japanese study intensity among

Vietnamese university students. Its contribution is twofold. First, it extends international research on Japanese-language motivation by examining whether future-oriented and career-related motives are associated with a concrete behavioral indicator of learning investment. Second, it broadens the analysis beyond language-specific motivation by considering whether students' capacity to study intensively is also associated with academic performance, everyday routines, health conditions, and social background. Vietnam provides a particularly relevant setting for this inquiry because Japanese learning is embedded in expanding educational, employment, and mobility relationships with Japan, while many students also learn Japanese within multilingual trajectories involving prior English-language study. Technology-use and website-expectation variables were intentionally excluded. This analytical boundary allows the present study to focus more clearly on lifestyle, social, health-related, academic, and motivational correlates of study intensity, while avoiding an overly broad model that combines general learner characteristics with digital-learning preferences.

Accordingly, the objective of this study was to examine lifestyle, social, health-related, academic, and motivational factors associated with high Japanese language study intensity among Vietnamese university students. High study intensity was defined as studying Japanese for 8 h or more per week, allowing the study to identify factors associated with a relatively intensive level of weekly learning investment. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What proportion of Vietnamese university students studying Japanese report high Japanese-language study intensity?
2. How does Japanese-language study intensity vary according to students' sociodemographic, academic, lifestyle, and health-related characteristics?
3. How is Japanese-language study intensity associated with students' Japanese-learning background, reported motives, skill priorities, and learning behaviors?
4. Which academic, motivational, and learning-related factors remain independently associated with high Japanese-language study intensity after adjustment for other variables in the model?

Drawing on research on motivated learning behavior, language other than English (LOTE/L3) motivation, Japanese-language learning, and self-regulated learning, the study conceptualized high study intensity as a behavioral form of engagement potentially associated with academic functioning, future-oriented motivation, learning practices, and broader conditions of student life (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Yamashita, 2023; Kojima & Fukui, 2025).

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study Design and Participants

This study used a cross-sectional survey design. The study included 407 eligible Vietnamese university students studying Japanese. All 407 participants were included in the descriptive and bivariate analyses. The adjusted logistic regression was conducted using complete-case data from 334 participants; 73 participants were excluded from that model because of missing data in one or more included variables. Data were collected from December 2025 to January 2026 using Google Forms. The survey link was distributed to Vietnamese university students studying Japanese through university lecturers, Japanese-language classes, and student groups. Participation was voluntary, and respondents completed the questionnaire using their own computers or mobile devices.

2.2. Survey Instrument

The questionnaire was developed based on previous studies (Tran et al., 2023) and with references reasons-for-learning items were developed with reference to the Japan Foundation's framework (Japan Foundation, 2026). Based on the study purpose and pre-test feedback, the categories were simplified and consolidated to improve clarity and relevance for Vietnamese university students. The questionnaire collected information on students' demographic characteristics, social background, lifestyle habits, health-related conditions, Japanese learning background, motivation for studying Japanese, and learning behaviors. The survey also included technology-use and website-expectation items, but these variables were excluded from the present analysis. The main groups of variables used in this study were:

- Demographic and social factors: age, sex, academic year, living arrangement, family income, parental education, parental occupation, and current housing situation;
- Health-related factors: self-reported health symptoms, health-related absence, perceived influence of health on academic performance, and stress level;
- Lifestyle factors: sleep duration, bedtime, meal regularity, screen time, exercise, part-time work, coffee, alcohol, and tobacco use;
- Japanese learning background: current Japanese proficiency level, certificate status, duration of Japanese study, and learning setting;
- Motivational and learning-behavior factors: reasons for studying Japanese, main learning purpose, skill priorities, vocabulary and grammar study frequency, review habits, and use of personal note systems.

Before the main survey, the questionnaire was pre-tested with a small group ($n = 10$) of Vietnamese university students studying Japanese. The pilot assessed the clarity of item wording, appropriateness of response options, completion time, and functionality of the online form.

2.3. Outcome Variable

The primary outcome was Japanese-language study intensity, operationalized as self-reported average weekly time devoted to Japanese learning, including formal classes and independent study. Conceptually, study intensity refers to the concentration of learning activity within a specified period. In this analysis, it was measured through weekly study hours and therefore represents the temporal dimension of learning investment rather than the quality, effectiveness, or psychological effort associated with study. Students were categorized into two groups: lower study intensity, defined as less than 8 h/Week, and high study intensity, defined as 8 h/Week or more. The 8 h/Week threshold was selected as an analytically meaningful cut-off because it separated students with lighter or moderate weekly study patterns from those reporting a more intensive level of learning investment. It also corresponded to the structure of the questionnaire, where 8–12 h/week was the first response category indicating substantially higher weekly commitment. In second-language learning research, study intensity is commonly understood in relation to the amount, frequency, duration, and distribution of exposure or practice, rather than by a universal fixed threshold (Sudina & Plonsky, 2024). Therefore, the 8 h/Week benchmark was used as a context-specific operational definition of relatively intensive Japanese study in this university-student sample. Accordingly, the outcome captures the quantity of students' current weekly investment in Japanese learning, but it does not directly measure study quality, concentration, learning efficiency, motivational strength, or long-term persistence. To examine the factors potentially associated with this temporal dimension of learning investment, the study included a range of demographic, social, lifestyle, health-related,

academic, motivational, and learning-behavior variables, as described in the following section.

2.4. Independent Variables

Independent variables included demographic, social, lifestyle, health-related, Japanese-learning, motivational, and learning-behavior factors. Age, sex, academic year, living arrangement, family income, parental education, parental occupation, and housing status were assessed using closed-ended items. Lifestyle variables included average sleep duration, bedtime, meal regularity, daily screen time, exercise frequency, part-time employment, coffee consumption, alcohol use, and tobacco use. Health-related variables included recent health-related absence, perceived effects of health on academic performance, and self-reported stress level. Japanese-learning variables included current proficiency level, Japanese-language certificate status, duration of study, study frequency, and learning setting. The career-related motive variable indicated whether a participant selected a career-oriented reason for studying Japanese in a multiple-response question. This variable represents the presence of a reported career-related motive rather than the strength of career motivation. Skill-priority variables indicated whether respondents selected vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading, or writing as an area they considered foundational or important. Vocabulary and grammar study frequency, review habits, and use of personal note systems were assessed using categorical response options.

2.5. Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the characteristics of the university-student sample. Categorical variables were presented as frequencies and percentages. Continuous variables were summarized using means and standard deviations or medians where appropriate. Bivariate analyses were conducted to compare students with lower and high Japanese study intensity. Japanese study frequency was not tested as an independent correlate because of its conceptual proximity to weekly study hours and the resulting risk of construct redundancy. For categorical variables with more than two response categories, a significant chi-square result indicated that the overall distribution differed between the study-intensity groups; it did not necessarily indicate a linear or dose-response relationship across ordered categories. Chi-square tests were used for categorical variables, while appropriate non-parametric or parametric tests were used for continuous variables depending on distribution. Adjusted logistic regression was then conducted to identify factors independently associated with high Japanese study intensity. The retained predictors were entered simultaneously into the model. Variables examined in the bivariate analyses but not included in the adjusted model were not interpreted as independently non-significant. The regression was conducted using complete cases only; participants with missing data for any included predictor or the outcome were excluded. No missing-data imputation was performed, resulting in a complete-case sample of $N = 334$. Results were reported as adjusted odds ratios, 95% confidence intervals, and p -values. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

3. Results

3.1. Participant Characteristics

The final sample included 407 Vietnamese university students studying Japanese. The analysis focused exclusively on university students, excluding other learner groups to maintain a consistent academic population. The demographic, social, health-related, lifestyle, and Japanese-learning characteristics of the university-student sample are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Sociodemographic, lifestyle, and health-related characteristics of participants ($N = 407$).

Variable	n (%) ¹	Mean (SD)
Age, years		20.27 (3.36)
Sex		
Female	332 (81.6)	
Male	75 (18.4)	
Academic year		
Year 1	146 (35.9)	
Year 2	97 (23.8)	
Year 3	107 (26.3)	
Year 4	57 (14.0)	
Current housing		
Student dormitory	46 (11.3)	
Rented housing	207 (50.9)	
Own/family housing	154 (37.8)	
Estimated family income		
<15 million VND/month	207 (50.9)	
15–30 million VND/month	152 (37.3)	
30–50 million VND/month	36 (8.8)	
>50 million VND/month	12 (2.9)	
Average sleep duration, hours/day		6.51 (1.27)
Screen time, hours/day		7.07 (4.05)
Part-time work		
No part-time work	203 (49.9)	
Occasional	85 (20.9)	
Few days/week	59 (14.5)	
Daily	60 (14.7)	
Exercise frequency		
Never	63 (15.5)	
Occasionally	257 (63.1)	
Weekly	55 (13.5)	
Daily	32 (7.9)	
Overall stress level		
None	59 (14.5)	
Low	117 (28.7)	
Moderate	152 (37.3)	
High	56 (13.8)	
Very high	23 (5.7)	
Latest GPA ²		7.21 (1.48)

¹ Percentages are calculated using non-missing values for each variable. ² GPA was reported on a 0–10 scale when available. It represented the participant's most recent overall university academic result rather than a Japanese-language course grade.

Students varied in sex, academic year, living arrangement, lifestyle habits, Japanese proficiency level, and duration of Japanese study. The sample included students at different stages of Japanese language learning, from beginner level to advanced levels. Students also reported diverse reasons for studying Japanese, including career orientation, interest

in Japanese language and culture, study abroad, certification, communication, and other academic or personal purposes.

3.2. Distribution of Japanese Language Study Intensity

Among the 407 university students, 185 participants (45.5%) were classified as having high Japanese study intensity, meaning that they studied Japanese for at least 8 h per week. The remaining students were classified as having lower study intensity. The distribution of Japanese study intensity and related learning-behavior indicators is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Japanese language learning background, study intensity, motivation, and learning behavior ($N = 407$).

Variable	n (%)
Weekly Japanese study time	
<2 h/week	36 (8.8)
2–4 h/week	92 (22.6)
5–7 h/week	94 (23.1)
8–12 h/week	51 (12.5)
13–15 h/week	37 (9.1)
>15 h/week	97 (23.8)
Study intensity group	
Lower intensity (<8 h/Week)	222 (54.5)
High intensity (≥ 8 h/Week)	185 (45.5)
Japanese study frequency	
Irregular	45 (11.1)
1–2 sessions/week	30 (7.4)
3–4 sessions/week	99 (24.3)
≥ 5 sessions/week	69 (17.0)
Almost every day	164 (40.3)
Current Japanese proficiency	
Beginner	106 (26.0)
N5	44 (10.8)
N4	75 (18.4)
N3	113 (27.8)
N2	63 (15.5)
N1	6 (1.5)
Japanese certificate	
No	309 (75.9)
Yes	98 (24.1)
Duration of Japanese study	
<3 months	50 (12.3)
3–6 months	83 (20.4)
6 months–1 year	26 (6.4)
1–2 years	70 (17.2)
2–3 years	103 (25.3)
3–5 years	45 (11.1)
>5 years	30 (7.4)
Reason for choosing Japanese (multiple answers)	
Interest in Japanese language/culture	228 (56.0)
Career-related orientation	238 (58.5)
Japanese relatives/friends	34 (8.4)
Manga/anime/J-pop interest	166 (40.8)
Recommended/required by others	118 (29.0)
Priority skill/foundation (multiple answers)	
Vocabulary	315 (77.4)
Grammar	209 (51.4)
Listening	266 (65.4)
Speaking	232 (57.0)
Reading	53 (13.0)
Writing	38 (9.3)
Vocabulary study frequency	
Irregular	171 (42.0)
1–2 times/week	102 (25.1)
3–4 times/week	34 (8.4)
Almost every day	100 (24.6)
Grammar study frequency	
Irregular	101 (24.8)
1–2 times/week	54 (13.3)
3–4 times/week	119 (29.2)
Almost every day	133 (32.7)

This finding shows that nearly half of the university students in the sample devoted a substantial amount of time to Japanese learning each week. The proportion of high-intensity learners suggests that Japanese study represents a major academic commitment for many students, rather than a minor supplementary activity.

3.3. Lifestyle, Social, and Health-Related Factors Associated with Study Intensity

Bivariate comparisons of sociodemographic, lifestyle, health-related, and academic characteristics are presented in the Appendix A (Table A1). Among these variables, the latest GPA or academic score was the only factor significantly associated with Japanese study intensity. Students in the high-intensity group had a higher mean academic score than those in the lower-intensity group (7.47 versus 6.98 on the 0–10 scale, $p < 0.001$). No statistically significant differences were found for age, sex, academic year, housing arrangement, average sleep duration, screen time, exercise frequency, part-time employment, meal regularity, coffee use, alcohol use, tobacco use, health-related absence, perceived health effects on study, or overall stress level. Estimated family income approached statistical significance ($p = 0.053$), but no consistent gradient was observed across income categories. These findings indicate that general lifestyle, social, and health-related characteristics did not clearly distinguish students with high and lower Japanese study intensity in this sample.

3.4. Motivational and Learning-Behavior Factors Associated with Study Intensity

Bivariate comparisons of Japanese-learning background, motives, skill priorities, and learning behaviors are shown in the Appendix A (Table A2). Several variables were significantly associated with study intensity. Students reporting a career-related reason for studying Japanese were more common in the high-intensity group than in the lower-intensity group ($p = 0.005$). Japanese study frequency was not included in the inferential comparison because it overlapped conceptually with the outcome measure of weekly study hours. Vocabulary study frequency ($p = 0.017$) and grammar study frequency ($p = 0.014$) also differed significantly between the two study-intensity groups. Prioritizing reading was significantly associated with study intensity ($p = 0.003$). Current Japanese proficiency, certificate status, duration of Japanese study, interest in Japanese language and culture, relationships with Japanese relatives or friends, interest in manga, anime, or J-pop, externally recommended or required study, and most other skill-priority and review-habit variables were not significantly associated with study intensity.

3.5. Adjusted Logistic Regression

In the adjusted logistic regression model, three factors were significantly associated with high Japanese study intensity. The independent predictors of high Japanese study intensity are shown in the adjusted logistic regression model in Table 3. Vocabulary and grammar study frequency were significant only in the bivariate analyses and were not retained as independent predictors in the final adjusted model. The complete-case sample for the regression was 334.

Higher latest GPA or academic score was positively associated with high study intensity. Each one-point increase in academic score was associated with higher odds of high Japanese study intensity (aOR = 1.20, 95% CI: 1.02–1.41). This suggests that students with stronger academic performance were more likely to study Japanese intensively. Career-related reason for learning Japanese was positively associated with high study intensity. Students who selected a career-related reason had approximately twice the odds of high study intensity compared with those who did not select this reason (aOR = 2.08, 95% CI: 1.30–3.31). This finding highlights the importance of instrumental motivation in Japanese language learning. Prioritizing reading as a foundation skill was negatively associated

with high study intensity. Students who prioritized reading had lower odds of high study intensity (aOR = 0.33, 95% CI: 0.15–0.70). This finding may reflect differences in learning orientation, skill focus, or study strategy among students. Other variables included in the adjusted model did not remain statistically significant.

Table 3. Adjusted logistic regression model for high Japanese study intensity (≥ 8 h/Week) among participants with complete model data ($N = 334$).

Predictor	Adjusted Odds Ratio (aOR)	95% CI	<i>p</i> -Value
Latest GPA/academic score	1.20	1.02–1.41	0.032
Career-related reason for studying Japanese	2.08	1.30–3.31	0.002
Prioritizing reading as a foundation skill	0.33	0.15–0.70	0.004

Note. Outcome: high Japanese study intensity (≥ 8 h/Week). Model complete-case $N = 334$. Predictors were entered simultaneously. The model was based on complete cases ($N = 334$); 73 participants were excluded because of missing data in one or more model variables. Variables presented in the exploratory bivariate analyses were not necessarily included in the adjusted model.

4. Discussion

This study identified three principal correlates of high Japanese study intensity among Vietnamese university students: stronger general academic performance, reporting a career-related motive, and not prioritizing reading as a foundation skill. By contrast, most sociodemographic, lifestyle, and health-related variables were not associated with study intensity. These findings suggest that intensive Japanese study in this sample was more closely connected to academic engagement and perceived future value than to broad patterns of daily lifestyle or wellbeing.

The association between higher GPA and high Japanese study intensity may indicate that intensive language study forms part of a broader pattern of academic engagement. Students with stronger academic performance may be more likely to possess effective study routines, time-management skills, and self-regulatory strategies, all of which can support sustained Japanese learning (Credé & Kuncel, 2008; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). However, the cross-sectional design does not establish directionality: stronger students may devote more time to Japanese, while intensive language study may also coexist with study habits that support wider academic performance.

Reporting a career-related motive was also significantly associated with high study intensity. Students who learned Japanese for career-related reasons had almost twice the odds of studying intensively, suggesting that instrumental motivation plays an important role in sustaining learning effort. This finding is highly plausible in the Vietnamese context, where Japanese language ability is closely connected to employment opportunities, internships, study-abroad pathways, and professional mobility between Vietnam and Japan. Hashimoto's study of Vietnamese university students similarly shows that Japanese learning is shaped not only by university curricula, but also by students' expectations of work and life across Vietnam–Japan contexts, including industry internships, study abroad, and employment in Japan or Japan-related companies (Hashimoto, 2022). This helps explain why career-oriented students in the present study may be more willing to invest substantial weekly time in Japanese learning: for them, Japanese is not merely an academic subject but a form of practical capital for future employability and mobility.

This interpretation is also consistent with broader second-language motivation research. Dörnyei's review highlights the importance of motivational orientation in second and foreign language learning, including instrumental reasons for studying a language,

such as future work, academic advancement, or practical benefits (Dörnyei, 1998). From this perspective, students with clearer career goals may be more likely to transform motivation into sustained learning behavior, including more frequent study, longer study hours, and greater persistence despite the cumulative difficulty of Japanese vocabulary, grammar, kanji, and communication skills. Therefore, the present finding suggests that career relevance may be a key lever for strengthening Japanese language engagement among Vietnamese university students. Programs that explicitly connect Japanese proficiency with internships, Japanese-company employment, study-abroad options, and long-term career pathways may be better positioned to encourage intensive and sustained study habits.

The lack of significant associations for most lifestyle and health-related variables may reflect both measurement and contextual factors. Broad indicators such as total sleep duration, screen time, or part-time work may not capture the aspects most relevant to language study, including sleep quality, schedule regularity, fatigue, commuting burden, focused study time, or the academic purpose of device use. It is also possible that strongly motivated students protect study time despite daily constraints. Future research should therefore use more precise measures of routine, concentration, and learning quality.

The negative association between reading priority and high study intensity is also notable. Students who prioritized reading were less likely to be high-intensity learners. This finding should be interpreted cautiously, as it does not mean that reading is unimportant in Japanese language learning. On the contrary, reading is a demanding skill in Japanese because it requires the integration of vocabulary, grammar, kanji recognition, sentence processing, and discourse comprehension. Research on L2 Japanese has consistently treated reading, vocabulary, kanji, writing, and grammar as major areas of learning and instruction, reflecting the cumulative and multidimensional nature of Japanese proficiency (Mori & Mori, 2011). More recent work on L2 Japanese reading also shows that developing independent reading ability requires substantial vocabulary coverage, and that there remains a gap between beginner-level graded materials and the vocabulary demands of authentic Japanese texts (Rothville & Skalicky, 2025).

Prioritizing reading was negatively associated with high study intensity. However, the present study did not measure why students selected reading or how much time they devoted to particular skills. It is therefore not possible to conclude that reading-oriented students were more focused on textbook study or JLPT tasks, or that high-intensity learners emphasized communication and integrated language use. These possibilities should be treated as hypotheses for future research rather than as findings of the current study. This interpretation is consistent with research on skill profiles in second-language learning, which shows that learners may develop unevenly across reading, listening, speaking, and writing (Koizumi et al., 2022).

In the Vietnamese context, this distinction is particularly plausible. Previous research on Vietnamese undergraduate students studying Japanese has shown that learners' motives and perceived speaking skills are closely linked to communication needs, suggesting that many students value Japanese not only as a reading or academic subject but also as a tool for interaction and future mobility (Tran et al., 2023). Therefore, students with higher weekly study intensity may be those whose goals require broader skill integration, such as communicating with Japanese speakers, preparing for employment, internships, or study abroad, and building practical competence across multiple domains. Reading-focused students, meanwhile, may rely more on formal lessons, assigned materials, or exam-related reading practice rather than long weekly self-study hours. Future studies should examine whether different skill priorities correspond to distinct learner profiles, such as exam-oriented readers, communication-oriented learners, career-oriented intensive learners, or balanced multi-skill learners.

Vocabulary study frequency was significantly associated with Japanese study intensity in the bivariate analysis, although the category distribution did not indicate a straightforward increase in high study intensity as vocabulary study became more frequent. This finding may reflect differences in how learners organize vocabulary study rather than the total amount of vocabulary learning they undertake. Some students may engage in longer but irregular vocabulary-learning sessions, whereas others may study vocabulary more frequently in shorter periods. In Japanese, vocabulary learning is closely interconnected with kanji recognition, character readings, word formation, collocation, and context-dependent meaning, making it a substantial component of the overall learning process (Otsuka & Murai, 2020; Mori & Mori, 2011). Nevertheless, vocabulary study frequency was not retained as an independent predictor in the adjusted model. It should therefore be viewed as one feature of students' broader learning routines rather than as an independent explanation of high weekly study intensity.

Grammar study frequency was significant in bivariate analysis, suggesting that frequent grammar study may accompany higher overall Japanese study intensity. This finding is reasonable because grammar learning is a cumulative process that often requires repeated exposure, review, practice, and application across different contexts. In Japanese language learning, grammar is not only a matter of memorizing sentence patterns; learners also need to understand how grammatical forms express meaning, politeness, modality, tense-aspect relations, clause linkage, and communicative nuance. Research on L2 Japanese has identified grammar, vocabulary, kanji, reading, writing, and interaction as major areas of learning and instruction, indicating that grammar development is embedded within broader communicative and literacy development (Mori & Mori, 2011). More generally, instructed second-language acquisition research supports the value of form-focused and explicit grammar instruction, especially when learners' attention is directed to linguistic forms and when practice helps them connect form, meaning, and use (Ellis, 2015; Li & Sun, 2024).

However, grammar study frequency did not appear as one of the final significant predictors in the adjusted logistic regression model. This suggests that its bivariate association with study intensity may overlap with broader academic engagement, career-related motivation, or general learning discipline. In other words, students who study grammar frequently may also be the same students who have higher GPAs, clearer career goals, stronger self-regulation, or more intensive overall study routines. Once these factors are considered together in the adjusted model, grammar study frequency may no longer explain additional independent variation in high study intensity. This interpretation is consistent with self-regulated learning research, which emphasizes that learning behaviors such as planning, monitoring, review, and strategy use often operate together rather than as isolated predictors (Panadero, 2017). Therefore, grammar study frequency should not be dismissed as unimportant. Rather, it may be better understood as one component of a broader intensive-learning profile, in which motivated and academically engaged students allocate more time to multiple aspects of Japanese learning, including grammar, vocabulary, kanji, listening, reading, and communication practice.

Overall, the findings indicate that Japanese language study intensity among Vietnamese university students is not simply a lifestyle issue. Instead, it appears to be more closely related to academic orientation and career motivation. This has important implications for Japanese language programs. If educators want to encourage more intensive and sustained Japanese study, they may need to help students connect Japanese learning with concrete academic and career pathways. The findings offer several practical implications for Japanese language education in Vietnamese universities. First, Japanese programs should explicitly connect language learning with career opportunities. Since career-related

motivation was strongly associated with high study intensity, universities can strengthen student engagement by showing how Japanese proficiency supports employment, internships, scholarships, exchange programs, and work opportunities in Japanese companies. Second, language instructors should pay attention to students' general academic engagement. Students with higher academic performance were more likely to study Japanese intensively, suggesting that study skills, time management, and academic discipline may support language-learning intensity. Japanese programs may benefit from integrating study planning, self-regulated learning, and goal-setting support. Third, early identification of lower-intensity students may be useful. Students who study Japanese for fewer hours per week may need additional guidance, especially if they lack clear career goals or structured study routines. Fourth, skill priorities should be considered when designing learning support. The negative association between reading priority and high study intensity suggests that different skill orientations may reflect different learner profiles. Reading-focused students may need different forms of support compared with students focused on career-oriented communication or exam preparation. Fifth, lifestyle and health-related factors should not be ignored, even though they were not significant predictors in this study. Sleep, stress, exercise, and wellbeing remain important for sustainable learning, but their relationship with study intensity may require more detailed measurement.

This study has several limitations. The cross-sectional design prevents causal inference. The study can identify associations but cannot determine whether academic performance or career-related motivation causes higher study intensity. Study intensity was self-reported, which may introduce recall or social desirability bias. The classification of high study intensity as 8 h or more per week is analytically useful but may not capture all dimensions of learning engagement. Future research should examine study intensity using ordinal or continuous measures and compare alternative outcome specifications. Study quality, concentration, learning strategy, and consistency may be as important as total study time. Several variables were measured using single questionnaire items rather than validated multi-item scales. Future studies should include more detailed measures of motivation, self-regulated learning, academic pressure, and language-learning anxiety. The adjusted model included a limited set of predictors and used complete-case analysis; consequently, residual confounding, selection effects arising from missing data, and omission of theoretically relevant variables cannot be excluded. Because the present study was exploratory, it did not test a formal theoretical model linking academic engagement, motivational orientation, self-regulated learning, and study intensity; future research should develop and validate such a model using longitudinal designs and more comprehensive construct measures.

5. Conclusions

This cross-sectional study examined lifestyle, social, health-related, and motivational correlates of Japanese language study intensity among Vietnamese university students. Nearly half of the students reported studying Japanese for at least 8 h per week. High study intensity was independently associated with higher GPA or academic score and career-related motivation, while prioritizing reading was negatively associated with high study intensity. The findings suggest that intensive Japanese study among Vietnamese university students is driven more by academic engagement and perceived career value than by general lifestyle or health-related factors. Japanese language programs may strengthen student engagement by linking language learning to concrete career pathways, supporting academic self-regulation, and tailoring learning support to different learner profiles. Future studies should use longitudinal designs and more detailed measures of motivation, learning quality, and technology-supported learning to better understand how students sustain Japanese language study intensity over time.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at <https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/educsci16071175/s1>, Table S1: Variables analyzed in the present study.

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Informed Consent Statement: Electronic informed consent was obtained from all participants before they accessed the questionnaire. The first page of the online survey explained the study purpose, voluntary nature of participation, confidentiality of responses, and the right to discontinue before submission. Participants proceeded to the questionnaire only after selecting the option indicating their agreement to participate.

Data Availability Statement: The original contributions presented in this study are included in the article/Supplementary Materials. Further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding author.

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Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

aOR	Adjusted odds ratio
CI	Confidence interval
GPA	Grade point average
h/week	Hours per week
JLPT	Japanese-Language Proficiency Test
LOTE	Language other than English
L2	Second language
L3	Third language
SD	Standard deviation
VND	Vietnamese dong

Appendix A

Table A1. Bivariate comparison of sociodemographic, lifestyle, health-related, and academic factors by Japanese study intensity.

Variable	Overall	Lower Intensity (<8 h/Week)	High Intensity (≥8 h/Week)	p-Value
Age, years (Mean (SD))	20.27 (3.36)	20.09 (3.06)	20.48 (3.67)	0.779
Average sleep duration, hours/day (Mean (SD))	6.51 (1.27)	6.56 (1.29)	6.46 (1.24)	0.300

Table A1. Cont.

Variable	Overall	Lower Intensity (<8 h/Week)	High Intensity (≥ 8 h/Week)	<i>p</i> -Value
Screen time, hours/day (Mean (SD))	7.07 (4.05)	7.18 (4.28)	6.93 (3.76)	0.792
Self-study time, hours/day (Mean (SD))	2.99 (1.86)	2.82 (1.65)	3.20 (2.07)	0.109
Latest GPA/academic score (Mean (SD))	7.21 (1.48)	6.98 (1.51)	7.47 (1.41)	<0.001
Sex				
Female	332 (81.6)	175 (78.8)	157 (84.9)	0.118
Male	75 (18.4)	47 (21.2)	28 (15.1)	
Academic year				
Year 1	146 (35.9)	77 (34.7)	69 (37.3)	0.855
Year 2	97 (23.8)	53 (23.9)	44 (23.8)	
Year 3	107 (26.3)	62 (27.9)	45 (24.3)	
Year 4	57 (14.0)	30 (13.5)	27 (14.6)	
Current housing				
Student dormitory	46 (11.3)	30 (13.5)	16 (8.6)	0.168
Rented housing	207 (50.9)	105 (47.3)	102 (55.1)	
Own/family housing	154 (37.8)	87 (39.2)	67 (36.2)	
Estimated family income				
<15 million VND/month	207 (50.9)	115 (51.8)	92 (49.7)	0.053
15–30 million VND/month	152 (37.3)	89 (40.1)	63 (34.1)	
30–50 million VND/month	36 (8.8)	15 (6.8)	21 (11.4)	
>50 million VND/month	12 (2.9)	3 (1.4)	9 (4.9)	
Breakfast regularity				
Does not eat	182 (44.7)	108 (48.6)	74 (40.0)	0.260
Occasionally	77 (18.9)	39 (17.6)	38 (20.5)	
Often	81 (19.9)	44 (19.8)	37 (20.0)	
Lunch regularity				
Does not eat	58 (14.3)	33 (14.9)	25 (13.5)	0.485
Occasionally	96 (23.6)	58 (26.1)	38 (20.5)	
Often	244 (60.0)	127 (57.2)	117 (63.2)	
Supper regularity				
Does not eat	37 (9.1)	19 (8.6)	18 (9.7)	0.272
Occasionally	86 (21.1)	55 (24.8)	31 (16.8)	
Often	282 (69.3)	147 (66.2)	135 (73.0)	
Part-time work				
No part-time work	203 (49.9)	119 (53.6)	84 (45.4)	0.119
Occasional	85 (20.9)	39 (17.6)	46 (24.9)	
Few days/week	59 (14.5)	28 (12.6)	31 (16.8)	
Daily	60 (14.7)	36 (16.2)	24 (13.0)	

Table A1. Cont.

Variable	Overall	Lower Intensity (<8 h/Week)	High Intensity (≥8 h/Week)	<i>p</i> -Value
Exercise frequency				
Never	63 (15.5)	31 (14.0)	32 (17.3)	0.439
Occasionally	257 (63.1)	142 (64.0)	115 (62.2)	
Weekly	55 (13.5)	34 (15.3)	21 (11.4)	
Daily	32 (7.9)	15 (6.8)	17 (9.2)	
Coffee use				
Never	200 (49.1)	114 (51.4)	86 (46.5)	0.657
Occasionally	176 (43.2)	91 (41.0)	85 (45.9)	
Weekly	22 (5.4)	13 (5.9)	9 (4.9)	
Daily	9 (2.2)	4 (1.8)	5 (2.7)	
Alcohol use				
Never	343 (84.3)	194 (87.4)	149 (80.5)	0.113
Occasionally	59 (14.5)	25 (11.3)	34 (18.4)	
Weekly	4 (1.0)	3 (1.4)	1 (0.5)	
Daily	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.5)	
Tobacco use				
Never	399 (98.0)	217 (97.7)	182 (98.4)	0.700
Occasionally	4 (1.0)	2 (0.9)	2 (1.1)	
Daily	4 (1.0)	3 (1.4)	1 (0.5)	
Health-related absence in past 6 months				
No health-related absence	243 (59.7)	143 (64.4)	100 (54.1)	0.145
1–3 days	122 (30.0)	61 (27.5)	61 (33.0)	
4–7 days	31 (7.6)	14 (6.3)	17 (9.2)	
>14 days	11 (2.7)	4 (1.8)	7 (3.8)	
Perceived health impact on study results				
None	100 (24.6)	56 (25.2)	44 (23.8)	0.093
Low	124 (30.5)	68 (30.6)	56 (30.3)	
Moderate	92 (22.6)	49 (22.1)	43 (23.2)	
High	53 (13.0)	22 (9.9)	31 (16.8)	
Very high	38 (9.3)	27 (12.2)	11 (5.9)	
Overall stress level				
None	59 (14.5)	36 (16.2)	23 (12.4)	0.820
Low	117 (28.7)	62 (27.9)	55 (29.7)	
Moderate	152 (37.3)	80 (36.0)	72 (38.9)	
High	56 (13.8)	32 (14.4)	24 (13.0)	
Very high	23 (5.7)	12 (5.4)	11 (5.9)	

Note. Continuous variables are shown as mean (SD); categorical variables as n (%). *p*-values were calculated using Mann–Whitney U tests for continuous variables and chi-square/Fisher exact tests for categorical variables, as appropriate.

Table A2. Bivariate comparison of motivational and Japanese-learning factors by study intensity.

Variable	Overall	Lower Intensity (<8 h/Week)	High Intensity (≥8 h/Week)	<i>p</i> -Value
Current Japanese proficiency				
Beginner	106 (26.0)	56 (25.2)	50 (27.0)	0.635
N5	44 (10.8)	26 (11.7)	18 (9.7)	
N4	75 (18.4)	47 (21.2)	28 (15.1)	
N3	113 (27.8)	57 (25.7)	56 (30.3)	
N2	63 (15.5)	33 (14.9)	30 (16.2)	
N1	6 (1.5)	3 (1.4)	3 (1.6)	
Japanese certificate				
No	309 (75.9)	174 (78.4)	135 (73.0)	0.204
Yes	98 (24.1)	48 (21.6)	50 (27.0)	
Duration of Japanese study				
<3 months	50 (12.3)	27 (12.2)	23 (12.4)	0.183
3–6 months	83 (20.4)	41 (18.5)	42 (22.7)	
6 months–1 year	26 (6.4)	21 (9.5)	5 (2.7)	
1–2 years	70 (17.2)	39 (17.6)	31 (16.8)	
2–3 years	103 (25.3)	55 (24.8)	48 (25.9)	
3–5 years	45 (11.1)	22 (9.9)	23 (12.4)	
>5 years	30 (7.4)	17 (7.7)	13 (7.0)	
Reason: Interest in Japanese language/culture				
No	179 (44.0)	95 (42.8)	84 (45.4)	0.597
Yes	228 (56.0)	127 (57.2)	101 (54.6)	
Reason: Career-related orientation				
No	169 (41.5)	106 (47.7)	63 (34.1)	0.005
Yes	238 (58.5)	116 (52.3)	122 (65.9)	
Reason: Japanese relatives/friends				
No	373 (91.6)	200 (90.1)	173 (93.5)	0.214
Yes	34 (8.4)	22 (9.9)	12 (6.5)	
Reason: Manga/anime/J-pop interest				
No	241 (59.2)	124 (55.9)	117 (63.2)	0.131
Yes	166 (40.8)	98 (44.1)	68 (36.8)	
Reason: Recommended/required by others				
No	289 (71.0)	156 (70.3)	133 (71.9)	0.720
Yes	118 (29.0)	66 (29.7)	52 (28.1)	
Priority: Vocabulary				
No	92 (22.6)	54 (24.3)	38 (20.5)	0.363
Yes	315 (77.4)	168 (75.7)	147 (79.5)	
Priority: Grammar				
No	198 (48.6)	105 (47.3)	93 (50.3)	0.550
Yes	209 (51.4)	117 (52.7)	92 (49.7)	

Table A2. Cont.

Variable	Overall	Lower Intensity (<8 h/Week)	High Intensity (≥8 h/Week)	<i>p</i> -Value
Priority: Listening				
No	141 (34.6)	86 (38.7)	55 (29.7)	0.057
Yes	266 (65.4)	136 (61.3)	130 (70.3)	
Priority: Speaking				
No	175 (43.0)	103 (46.4)	72 (38.9)	0.129
Yes	232 (57.0)	119 (53.6)	113 (61.1)	
Priority: Reading				
No	354 (87.0)	183 (82.4)	171 (92.4)	0.003
Yes	53 (13.0)	39 (17.6)	14 (7.6)	
Priority: Writing				
No	369 (90.7)	199 (89.6)	170 (91.9)	0.437
Yes	38 (9.3)	23 (10.4)	15 (8.1)	
Vocabulary study frequency				
Irregular	171 (42.0)	81 (36.5)	90 (48.6)	0.017
1–2 times/week	102 (25.1)	55 (24.8)	47 (25.4)	
3–4 times/week	34 (8.4)	25 (11.3)	9 (4.9)	
Almost every day	100 (24.6)	61 (27.5)	39 (21.1)	
Vocabulary review habit				
Almost never	16 (3.9)	11 (5.0)	5 (2.7)	0.651
Only before exams/tests	108 (26.5)	56 (25.2)	52 (28.1)	
Yes, not on fixed schedule	233 (57.2)	128 (57.7)	105 (56.8)	
Yes, fixed review schedule	50 (12.3)	27 (12.2)	23 (12.4)	
Grammar study frequency				
Irregular	101 (24.8)	63 (28.4)	38 (20.5)	0.014
1–2 times/week	54 (13.3)	37 (16.7)	17 (9.2)	
3–4 times/week	119 (29.2)	58 (26.1)	61 (33.0)	
Unspecified	133 (32.7)	64 (28.8)	69 (37.3)	
Personal grammar note system				
No	234 (57.5)	131 (59.0)	103 (55.7)	0.498
Yes	173 (42.5)	91 (41.0)	82 (44.3)	
Grammar review habit				
Almost never	22 (5.4)	13 (5.9)	9 (4.9)	0.550
Only before exams/tests/informal review	113 (27.8)	64 (28.8)	49 (26.5)	
Yes, not on fixed schedule	216 (53.1)	111 (50.0)	105 (56.8)	
Yes, fixed review schedule	56 (13.8)	34 (15.3)	22 (11.9)	

Note. Categorical variables are shown as n (%). *p*-values were calculated using chi-square/Fisher exact tests, as appropriate.

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