

Uncovering First Year Students' Language Learning Experiences, Attitudes, and Motivations in a Context of Change at the Tertiary Level of Education

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Demographic and supply-side changes are occurring in the tertiary educational sector in Japan. These changes have begun to diminish the importance of the highly competitive and influential university entrance examination system, as many students, particularly at the non-elite level, are able to gain university entrance without having to sit for an entrance examination. Given this evolving context, this study uncovers how incoming freshmen at a small non-elite university studied English in secondary school and examines the attitudes and motivations that they hold about language learning. The findings reveal that participants' English language educational experiences at the secondary level remain little changed from the past; parents and teachers continue to emphasize the importance of studying English in order to prepare for entrance examinations. Most participants have a generally negative assessment of their secondary English language experiences. Student beliefs about both the general nature of language learning and learning and communication strategies continue to parallel many of the traditional practices of their secondary language experiences once they reach the tertiary level. The author concludes that university instructors of English must come to know their students' language experiences and consequent attitudes and motivations in order to bridge possible cultural and pedagogical gaps. In this way, instructors may find ways to help their students find a purpose for increasing their language proficiency while they are studying at university.

人口分布の変動と供給サイドの変化の波が高等教育界にも押し寄せている。厳しい競争で大きな影響力を持っていた大学入試システムの重要性は薄れ、多くの学生、特にノン・エリート層の学生が大学入試を経ずに大学に入学できるようになってきた。このような状況の変化を見据え、本研究では小規模の非エリート大学に入学してくる新生が高校時代にどのように英語を学習してきたか、そして語学学習に対する態度や動機がどのようなも

のであるかを調べた。その結果、学生の高校時代の英語学習経験は以前とほとんど変わりなく、親や教師は相変わらず入試対策としての英語学習を重要視していることがわかった。多くの学生は、高校時代の英語学習経験を否定的に捉えている。学生の語学学習とコミュニケーション方法の学習に対する本質的な考え方は、一旦高等教育レベルに達してしまうと旧態依然のものとならないものになってしまう。大学の英語担当講師は、そのような文化的、教育的なギャップを埋めるために、そういった学生の経験やその結果もたらされる態度と動機をよく知っておく必要がある。そうしてはじめて、学生が大学にいる間に語学力を伸ばす目的を見つけられるような手助けができるのではないだろうか。

A recent decline in the number of students graduating from secondary schools in Japan has led to a demographic crisis, presaging the largest disruption of the post-secondary educational system in fifty years (Kitamura, 1991; McVeigh, 2002). In the past decade, the number of university places has increased while the number of university-bound students has decreased. In years past, the historic under-supply of places at the tertiary level of education led to the development of the highly competitive university entrance examination system. Increasingly, as the number of seats available to students proliferates, particularly at the non-elite level, many students are able to gain university entrance without having to sit for an entrance examination.

Without question, the highly competitive university entrance examination system has had a strong influence in shaping secondary English education in Japan (Amano, 1990; Collins, 1989; Lee, 1991; Mochizuki, 1992; Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996). Commentators and scholars alike are familiar with the catechism: in the past, it was necessary for most secondary students to study English grammar and translation for six years in preparation for rigorous university entrance examinations. Passing an entrance exam was crucial for obtaining admittance to the best universities and of necessity, the process of English-language education centered on entrance exam preparation, rather than promoting fluency. Of course, once students had gained admittance to university, their purpose for studying English would have been fulfilled. If students could not develop a new purpose for studying English at the university level, improvement in language proficiency would be limited (Berwick & Ross, 1989).

Given the present demographic and systemic changes occurring in this educational setting, it is necessary to discern whether the standard narrative, which has so affected English language education in Japan, still holds true today. The purpose of this study is threefold: to examine the attitudes and motivations that incoming freshmen at a small, non-elite university have about language learning; to uncover how these students studied English in secondary school; and to explore how their

attitudes may have been shaped by their language-learning experiences while in secondary school and by the expectations of both their parents and teachers. This study will also look at the implications of how those beliefs about language learning might impact student success while they are studying English at the university level.

Background

The University Entrance Examination System and its Influence on Secondary English Education

Research literature on the Japanese education system is replete with the history and influence of the university entrance examination system since its establishment during the Meiji Restoration (Frost, 1991, Lee, 1991). The washback effect, defined by Anderson and Wall (1993) as, "the power of examinations over what takes place in the classroom", (p.115), is said to be so powerful as to cause, "the curriculum offered at general high schools...[to be] designed in such a way that the main emphasis is on preparation for university entrance examinations" (Amano, 1990, p. xix). Criticisms of this exam preparation known as *juken jigoku* (examination hell) have illustrated the system's deleterious impact on the lives of students inside and outside of the classroom. Certainly, the supplementary educational industry of *juku* and *yobiko* [cram/exam prep schools] could not exist without the system and, it is argued, this industry has played an active role in continuing to increase the highly competitive nature of the country's education system (Collins, 1989; Mochizuki, 1992). It has been asserted by other commentators that educational problems like school-refusal syndrome and bullying are tied to these same pressures (Brown, 1995; Mochizuki, 1992).

The particular role that these examinations have played in the teaching and learning of English in Japan has been a widely researched area of language education. Studies have examined how the system has influenced course planning, teaching resources and teaching methods. (Brown, 1995; Furukawa, 1996; Lee, 1991). The enormous importance placed on entrance examinations by educational officials, teachers, students and parents has meant that English has been taught and learned, like many other subjects, only as a means to gaining admittance to the best university possible. As Hendrichson (1989) contends, "English became a means of sorting students rather than a path to communication" (p. 121). Contrary to the belief that English should be taught in order to help students increase their communicative competence in the

language, Brown asserts, “the EFL student in Japan...may be partly or wholly motivated by the desire to pass an English entrance examination” (1995, p. 24).

Whether this situation is entirely exam-driven or a product of a deeper historical connection to foreign language study, the preferred teaching method has continued to be grammar translation or *yakudoku*. Criticism of *yakudoku* and its harmful effects on language learning, where the learning of authentic language is of less value than the memorization of discrete language rules, began almost a century ago and has gone mostly unheeded (Hendrichson, 1989).

Furukawa (1996) provides an illustration of a typical *yakudoku* middle school English lesson, which shows the characteristic pattern of teacher and text-centered model of grammar translation. Students study *about* English; the language is not used in the classroom. Following Krashen’s model, Japanese students of English are said to become monitor over-users, where an “over-concern with conscious rules prevents them from speaking with any fluency at all” (Hendrichson, p. 169). After six years of studying English at the secondary level, students taught in such a manner, “would not be likely to acquire communicative ability, particularly with regard to the listening and speaking skills” (Brown, 1995, p. 26).

There are other scholars who provide more general criticism of the familiar discourse on the Japanese educational system. Some like Rohlen and LeTendre (1996) caution observers to consider whether “...the often reified Western theories that have dominated our perceptions and research seriously hinder our ability to perceive ...[the] uncodified world of teaching and learning that abound[s] in each society” (p. 1). If we are not aware of our beliefs we run the risk of “...simplify[ing] Japan at the risk of adequate understanding” (p. 3). Susser (1998) goes further, using Edward Said’s discourse of Orientalism to criticize what he calls the othering of the EFL learner through its research literature. We are warned to avoid the othering, stereotyping, representing, and essentializing of Orientalism (p. 51) so that, “...these fictions, [which] have been woven into a pervasive discourse that shaped our descriptions and then our perceptions of Japanese learners and classrooms” (p. 64) might be seen in the light of our own preconceptions.

Tertiary Sector in an Era of Change

Criticism of the university entrance examination system has held sway in the research literature and in the public imagination over the last fifty years as the post-secondary system has operated as a seller’s market

(Kitamura, 1991); there were always many more applicants than places available in universities. That era ended as the university-building boom of the early and mid-1990's and the shrinking number of high school graduates combined to create a buyer's market in university education. The number of high school graduates has declined from a recent high of 1.8 million in 1992 to 1.3 million in 2001. By 2009 that number is estimated to fall even lower, to one million (Furusawa, 2001). This research project is situated within that changing context. How the tertiary system at large and the university entrance examination system, specifically, will change is open to a great deal of conjecture. Kitamura (1991) asserted that, "in the coming age of declining enrolment, a substantial number of marginal institutions will be forced to make a strong effort to attract not only traditional full-time students but also non-traditional clients...The days of simply emphasizing the traditional screening functions [entrance examinations] are over for Japanese higher education" (p. 318). Unlike universities in North America and Europe, Japanese universities have relied almost exclusively on drawing their student population from the 18 to 22 year-old demographic (Kitamura, 1991). "The survival of institutions in a period with a sharply declining college-age population is perhaps one of the single most serious problems..." (p. 310) as it will "...certainly influence the financial condition of many tuition-dependent universities" (p. 309).

Furusawa (2001), calling the present day, "the era of all-applicant-admission" (p. 12) revealed that applicants to an unnamed university declined by half in just three years. All applicants were accepted in the 2000-2001 school year (p. 9). At the very least, as Mulvey (1999) asserts, universities are faced with a new reality, "to compete more energetically in order to maintain enrollment at levels sufficient to ensure their economic viability, including, perhaps, a continued relaxation of admission standards" (p. 135). McVeigh (2001) describes this change occurring in Japan's university system as one, "... heading toward a post-meritocratic state... [where demographic conditions seem to be promising] a place in university for every student who can take a test" (p. 31). However, even with this change in demographics, McVeigh argues that exam hell is still not only suffered by those who want to enter the highly competitive elite circle of universities, but that, "even...the most indolent students aiming for the lowest ranked university have told me how nervous they are sitting for entrance exams" (p. 31).

Attitude and Motivation in Language Education

Baker (1992) describes research in learner attitude and motivation as a, “central explanatory variable” in individual second language acquisition and proficiency (p. 9). The author defines attitude as, “a construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behavior (p. 10), . . . which is a convenient and efficient way of explaining consistent patterns in behavior” (p. 11).

In his survey of L2 motivation literature, Dörnyei (2001) describes Gardner’s contributions to motivation in the second-language field as some of the most influential. Gardner (1985) and his colleagues were among the first to begin explaining the relationship between motivation and attitude, and second language acquisition and proficiency, arguing that, “attitudes towards aspects of the language could play a role in determining how successful an individual could be in acquiring it” (1985, p. 7). Gardner is best known for identifying two motivational orientations, . . . integrative (a desire to learn the L2 for the purpose of affiliation with and acculturation of the target culture) and instrumental (a desire to learn the L2 for personal pragmatic and utilitarian reasons) motivation. While acknowledging other factors of language acquisition, Gardner has emphasized that, “integratively motivated students tend to be more active... and tend to be more proficient in a second language” (1988, p. 113).

Gardner’s motivational dichotomy is not without its share of critics. LoCastro (2001), researching the motivational orientation of Japanese university students, highlights this necessary tightrope walk of identity construction and maintenance. She asserts that advocating the abandonment of one’s first language and culture for English, “smacks of neocolonialism and hegemonic pretensions” (p. 83). She challenges Gardner’s integrative/instrumental paradigm, arguing that the integrative orientation, “as defined, cannot be a useful analytic framework” (p. 72), particularly in the Japanese context and for those students who have not lived for any lengthy period in an English-speaking country. Gardner’s framework must be “expanded to give greater role to individual differences, particularly related to a learner’s identity as a non-native speaker of the target language” (p. 83). Norton’s work in this area centers on the construct of learner investment in language acquisition, where, “to invest in a language is to invest in an identity” (Churchill, 2002, p. 3). Norton (2000) argues that the integrative/instrumental dichotomy “do[es] not capture the complex relationship between power, identity and language learning...[while the concept of investment]...signals the socially and

historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language, and their often ambivalent desire to learn and practice it" (p. 10).

Another commonly used approach to motivational research is the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy. A person who is intrinsically motivated is said to participate in an activity because of the satisfaction or enjoyment, which that participation provides. Conversely, extrinsically motivated people participate in a task in order to achieve a reward outside of simply completing the task itself. Extrinsic motivation has been commonly seen as something that often undermines intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). Deci and Ryan's self determination theory (1985) views this dichotomous construct on a multidimensional basis, placing intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on a continuum. They maintain that extrinsic motivation, once internalized, can bolster intrinsic motivation.

The work of scholars like Dörnyei (1998, 2001) in second language motivational research has been illustrative of a reorientation in this area of study since the 1990's. A more directly educational focus has sought to extend the work of pioneers like Gardner in a two-fold manner: to look into the learner's classroom context in search of motivational influences, and to allow teachers to make better use of L2 motivational research by making it more applicable to their classrooms. Dörnyei asserts that, "group-related issues are at the heart of the affective dimension of classroom learning..." (2001, p. 81).

The research literature on student attitude and motivation toward English language study in the Japanese context has taken a variety of approaches, from examining differing student attitudes and expectations about foreign and Japanese instructors (Shimizu, 1995) to focusing on the effect of students' attitudes and motivation toward their English studies while preparing for entrance examinations during their years at secondary school (Benson, 1992). After years of studying English in order to pass examinations, it has been demonstrated that, once students' primary motivation for studying is achieved, without reorientation of motivation, there is little purpose for continuing to study and improve proficiency in the language (Benson, 1992; Berwick & Ross, 1989; Long & Russell, 1999). In their longitudinal study of first-year student attitudes and motivation toward English, Berwick and Ross confirmed that upon entering university student motivation was low because, "motivation to learn English hits its peak in the last year of high school..." (p. 206). So students, "...arrive exam-worn survivors with no apparent academic purpose at university" (p. 206). Long and Russell (1999) set about examining the attitudes first-year students developed

from their experiences while studying English in secondary school for the purpose of uncovering “what content and teaching practices to emphasize or avoid” (p. 17). These authors assert that students, after years of learning grammar, want to improve their English conversation ability “to have more confidence and better speaking skills” (p. 27).

Kimura, Nakata, and Okumura (2001) examine the motivations of EFL students in a variety of learning contexts in Japan. Providing the reader with an overview of the variety of research approaches to motivation, they argue that, “it is difficult . . . to divide language learning motivation into two distinct types such as integrative/instrumental dimensions or intrinsic/extrinsic motivations. Inevitably, there will be some areas where these four types overlap” (p. 49). Their results show a complex mixture of both intrinsic and integrative orientations operating within the Japanese learners surveyed.

Horwitz (1988) developed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) so that instructors and researchers might understand that students bring their own ideas about language learning to the classroom and that these attitudes can, in turn, influence learner effectiveness in increasing their language proficiency. Horwitz used her inventory first with American students, who had made the transition from secondary to undergraduate studies in foreign language studies. The author’s inventory includes sections eliciting survey participants’ beliefs about the difficulty of language learning, foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations about language learning. Certainly within a Japanese context and with careful translation, the use of such an instrument would be helpful for uncovering students’ attitudes and beliefs after six years of English language study at the secondary level, those “preconceived notions about language learning, [which] would likely influence a learner’s effectiveness in the classroom” (Horwitz, 1988, p. 283).

Research Questions

Given the increased number of places available in the tertiary educational sector, with the consequent easing of competition for entrance (in particular, to non-elite universities), the following research questions will be explored:

1. Do students’ educational experiences in secondary school continue to be influenced by entrance examination

preparation?

2. What role do teacher and parental expectations play in influencing student motivational orientations toward learning English in secondary school?
3. After six years of language study, what beliefs about language learning do students hold and what impact might such beliefs have on students' interest in increasing their English language proficiency while studying at the tertiary level?

Method

Participants

This survey was completed by 135 first-year students at a small private university near Nagoya. These students had completed their secondary education in Japan. 93 (68.9%) of the respondents were male, 42 (31.1%) were female. The mean age was 18.25.

Sixty-one students (45.2%) were from rural areas. Twenty-one students (15.6%) were from urban areas, and 53 (39.3%) were from suburban areas of Japan. The vast majority of the students came from within the prefecture where the university is located or from neighboring prefectures; 90 students (67.2%) came from the Tokai region while 32 students (23.9%) came from the Kansai region of Japan. 112 students (82.4%) came from regular program schools, 9 (6.7%) came from commercial schools, 8 (5.9%) came from industrial high schools, 3 (2.2%) came from agricultural high schools, 2 (1.5%) came from fisheries high schools and 1 student came from a school for the handicapped.

Only 15 students (11.1%) gained entry to the university through a regular university entrance examination (*ippan-nyuushi*). The largest number of students, 92 (68.1%) entered the university by recommendation from their schools under the recommended examination (*suisenny-uushi*). Students who entered under the newly established Admissions Office (AO) examination system, where students can apply without recommendation from their secondary school and gain entrance based less on academic achievement than on how they perform during their interview, made up 28 or 20.7% of the total.

Materials

A questionnaire was developed which used a six-point Likert scale format based on selected sections from Horwitz' (1988) Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Item concerning foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning and learning and communication strategies were selected. Three additional questions (#60, #62, #74) were added to the section on the nature of language learning. Additional sections of this instrument pertained to integrative and instrumental orientations as well as parental involvement in student language learning drawn from Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (1985). Gardner's (1985) semantic differential scale was also used to elicit attitudes towards their English lessons in their last year of study in secondary school. Neither the Likert-scale nor the semantic-differential scale was originally created to be used specifically in a Japanese EFL context, and therefore, both were translated with care. The survey was first translated by the author, checked by several Japanese with teaching experience and finally checked and back-translated by a Japanese professor who specializes in language education issues. Although Gardner's work has been under considerable scrutiny by critics both it and the BALLI continue to be used for their superior psychometric qualities (Dörnyei, 2001). Cronbach's alpha statistics were computed for all questions and a reliability of 0.877 was obtained.

It must be stated here that the participants' self-reports used in this study are students' beliefs about their own behavior, and beliefs about what their parents and teachers believed in the course of participants' six-year secondary language study. This study cannot make the claim that participant responses describe actual behavior—only participant beliefs about that behavior.

Procedures and Statistical Analyses

This survey was completed in Japanese during the first week of classes in April 2002 (see Appendix 1 for an English version of the survey). Participants were given an unlimited amount of time to complete the instrument. Personal demographic data were gathered as students completed the survey. The data gathered revealed students' gender, age, location of home, length and type of English language study at the secondary level, student ratings of their own motivations while studying at the secondary level, students' perceptions of their teachers' motivations for teaching them and students' perceptions of parental motivations for their studying the language. The survey also asked how students gained

university admittance and included students' self-rating of their English language ability.

All Likert scales were scored from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). The semantic scale used to measure student attitudes toward their English classes from the previous year were scored from 1 (very strongly agree that the adjective on the left represents the participant's impression) to 6 (very strongly agree that the adjective on the right represents the participant's impression). The author tabulated and entered all scores into SPSS 11 for Windows. Descriptive statistics for all questions were generated and reported.

Pearson correlations and paired *t* tests were run between questions 33, 34, 35, 36 and questions 35, 36, 39, 41. Dörnyei (2001, p. 224) reported correlations between 0.30 and under 0.50 which in language education are considered meaningful. The alpha level for all statistical decisions was set at 0.01.

Results

English Study Before University Entrance

The survey revealed that previous English study fell into a characteristic pattern. One hundred and nineteen respondents (88.1%) had begun their English language studies during their first year of junior high school. Of the 16 students who had begun studying English earlier, the largest number, 15 students, had started between the ages of 8 and 10. Seventy-nine students (58.1%) had supplemented their studies at cram school (*juku*). Of these, 25 (31.6%) had attended once a week, 38 (48.1%) twice a week and 16 (20.3%) more than twice a week. One hundred and thirty students (97%) did not use English with their parents at home, while five students had occasionally practiced English conversation with their parents. One hundred and five students (77.2%) had never left Japan nor used English while abroad. Twenty-five (18.4%) reported that they had spent less than one month abroad. Three had spent between one and five years abroad. Most of the students received a majority of their learning within the traditional institutions involved in English language education, beginning their training at junior high school, with a large number of them also attending classes at cram schools.

Juku and English Language Study

Seventy-nine students (58.1%) had attended cram schools during their

secondary education. Of those who attended, forty-six students (59.7% of *juku* students) said they had done so in order to prepare for their entrance exams, 50 (64.9%) to improve their English ability and 23 (29.8%) for both reasons. Eight students (10.3%) had gone to cram school for neither reason. These findings suggest that, for some students, the two English study orientations may not be mutually exclusive nor exhaustive: there may be other salient reasons for students to study at cram school.

*English Study Before University Entrance: Study
at the Secondary Level*

Students described the general teaching strategies, used while they studied at the secondary level. Table 1 shows the prevalence of the use of strategies that define the grammar-translation tradition of teaching. The most common teaching style that students reported was the use of translation between Japanese and English, *yakudoku* ($M = 2.14$; mode = 1.00), and the study of grammar ($M = 2.68$; mode = 3.00). The practice of English conversation and learning with a native English speaker (i.e. with an ALT) were less frequently used. The mean number of English lessons per week was 3.75.

Table 1: Method of Teaching English at the Secondary Level.

Teaching Method Used	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
25. Use of translation between Japanese and English.	2.14	2.00	1.00	1.34
23. Study of grammar.	2.68	3.00	3.00	1.12
24. Use of listening practice.	3.48	4.00	4.00	1.30
26. Practice of English conversation.	3.66	4.00	5.00	1.40
27. Learned English with a native speaker.	3.97	4.00	5.00	1.23

$n = 134$. Note: 1 = always, 2 = often, 3 = sometimes, 4 = rarely, 5 = never.

Students' Self-Evaluation of English Ability

As Table 2 shows, after six years of studying English, students' self-rating of their English ability in the four skill areas of language learning is rather low, showing almost no difference among the students' language skill areas at the highest level. The area of greatest range was found at the lowest levels of ability, under the rating of a little and not at all. 30.4% of respondents reported that they could not read English at all and 61.5%

of respondents reported that they could not speak English at all. Except at the highest self-ratings of level of ability, speaking was shown to have the lowest self-evaluation. Overall however, it must be noted that even in the area of reading, where students appear to have the most relative self-confidence, 86% of respondents claimed to be able to read a little or not at all. Such low levels of confidence are even further diminished in the area of speaking, where those students who responded that they cannot speak at all or only a little made up 96.3% of respondents. Confidence levels were shown to be very low in all areas of language study.

Table 2: Self-Evaluation of English Ability

Language area	No ability	A little	Fairly well	Very well
31. Reading	41 (30.4%)	75 (55.6%)	18 (13.3%)	1 (0.7%)
30. Writing	62 (46.7%)	64 (47.4%)	8 (5.9%)	1 (0.7%)
32. Listening	63 (46.7%)	58 (43.0%)	11 (8.1%)	3 (2.2%)
29. Speaking	83 (61.5%)	47 (34.8%)	3 (2.2%)	1 (0.7%)

$n = 135$

Students' Perceptions of Teacher/Student Purpose for Teaching/ Studying English in Secondary School

Participants were asked to distinguish their purposes for studying and their teachers' purposes for teaching them: Was it for the purpose of preparing for entrance examinations or was it for the purpose of increasing fluency? Responses indicated that their teacher's purpose for teaching them tended to be more often oriented toward preparing for entrance examinations than students' own orientation in this area, for which student and teacher motivation differed widely by a mean difference of 0.8431 (see Table 3). Unlike teachers, student motivation for studying is shown to be stronger in the area of increasing fluency in the language than in preparing for entrance examinations. Participants' purposes came to a mean of 3.45 (mode = 3.00) while teachers' purposes produced a mean of 3.56 (mode = 3.00), a difference of only 0.119.

Table 3: Students' Perception of Teacher/Student's Purpose for Teaching/Studying English in Secondary School.

Survey Questions	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
33. Teacher's purpose for teaching was preparation for entrance examinations.	3.41	3.00	3.00	1.45
34. Teacher's purpose for teaching was to increase English fluency.	3.56	3.50	3.00	1.32
35. Student's purpose for learning was preparation for entrance examinations.	4.25	5.00	5.00	1.46
36. Student's purpose for learning was to increase English fluency.	3.45	3.00	3.00	1.50

$n = 134$ Note: 1=strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree.

Pearson correlations and paired t tests were calculated for these teaching and studying orientations. The clearest (yet weak) correlation between these orientations was found in the area where both the students' and teachers' purpose was tied to teaching and learning for the purpose of passing the entrance examination ($r = 0.434$; $t = -6.316$). Almost no correlation was found between teachers' purpose of preparing students for *juken* (entrance examinations) and students' purpose of increasing fluency ($r = 0.093$).

Table 4: (Correlation Matrix Question 33- 36, Question 39 and Question 41)

	S33	S34	S35	S36
T33	1.000	0.137	0.434*	0.043
T34	0.137	1.000	0.093	0.318*
T35	0.434*	0.093	1.000	0.273
T36	0.043	0.318*	0.273	1.000
P35	0.434*	0.093	1.000	0.273
P36	0.043	0.318*	0.273	1.000
P39	0.153	0.208	0.233	0.340*
P41	0.027	0.206	0.122	0.401*

* $p < 0.01$

Parental Influence and Orientation Regarding English Language Study

Parental encouragement of participants' progress in English was shown to be indirect. Very few students reported receiving any help from their parents with homework. However, many more parents appeared to feel that their children should have worked harder at learning the language. It appears that the number of parents who were concerned about their children learning English as a tool for gaining entrance to university ($M = 3.74$; mode = 3.00) was greater than the number who were concerned about encouraging their children to become fluent in the language ($M = 4.42$; mode = 6.00).

Table 5 Paired Comparisons for Teaching/Studying Orientations

Paired Questions	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
33./35. Teacher's purpose for teaching was for entrance examination preparation./Student's purpose for learning was for examination preparation	-6.316	133	0.000
34./35. Teacher's purpose for teaching was to increase English fluency./ Student's purpose for learning was for examination preparation.	-4.242	133	0.000
33./36. Teacher's purpose for teaching was for entrance examination preparation./Student's purpose for learning was for fluency.	-0.211	133	0.833
34./36. Teacher's purpose for teaching was to increase English fluency./Student's purpose for learning was to increase English fluency.	0.835	133	0.405

**Alpha is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

In an effort to uncover correlations between parent and student orientations about studying for *juken* and fluency, Pearson correlations and paired *t* tests were run. A weak correlation was found between parents who were said to have encouraged their children to become fluent in English, and students who said that their purpose for learning was to increase their English fluency ($r = 0.401$; $t = -6.789$). The next significant albeit weaker correlation was between parents who were said to have emphasized the importance of studying English for entrance examinations and students whose purpose for learning was to increase English fluency. This rather weak relationship may illustrate again that the dichotomous 'study' orientations used in the study may not be seen as entirely mutually exclusive to participants or parents. There was no sta-

tistically significant correlation found between parents who emphasized the importance of English for the purpose of entrance examinations and with students' purpose for learning being entrance examination preparation (shown in table 6).

Table 6: Parental Support and Influence

Survey Questions	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
37. Parents helped with homework.	5.65	6.00	6.00	0.74
38. Parents believed that student should study English more.	3.42	3.00	3.00	1.77
39. Parents emphasized how important English was for entrance examinations.	3.74	3.00	3.00	1.61
40. Parents emphasized how important English was because of international use of the language.	3.32	3.00	2.00	1.68
41. Parents encouraged student to become fluent in English.	4.42	5.00	6.00	1.48

Note: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree. n=134.

Impression of English Lessons in the Last Year of Secondary School

In order to explore students' general impressions about their English lessons during their last year of secondary school, this study used an adapted Japanese version of Gardner's semantic differential scale (p. 184, 1985). The results in Table 7 illustrate the generally negative impressions that students had of their English classes in the last year of high school. The clearest indications of this were represented by their impressions of the classroom atmosphere as simple/complicated ($M = 4.40$; mode = 5.00), pleasant/unpleasant ($M = 3.97$; mode = 6.00), satisfying/unsatisfying ($M = 3.96$; mode=3.00), clear/confusing ($M = 3.86$; mode = 5.00), and monotonous/absorbing (mean = 3.02; mode = 3.00). However, students seem to believe that this experience is necessary (mean = 3.07; mode = 3.00) and that they may be rewarded in the future (mean = 3.79; mode = 4.00).

Table 7: Paired Comparisons for Parental/Child Orientations

Paired Questions	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
39./35. Parents emphasized how important English was for entrance examinations./Student purpose for learning was for preparation for entrance examinations.	3.126	133	0.002
41./35. Parents encouraged student to become fluent in English./Student's purpose for learning was for preparation for entrance examinations.	-1.022	133	0.309
41./36. Parents encouraged student to become fluent in English./ Student's purpose for learning was to increase English fluency.	-6.789	133	0.000
39./36. Parents emphasized how important English was for entrance examinations./ Student's purpose for learning was to increase English fluency.	-1.879	133	0.062

Alpha is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

Motivational Orientation

The following section attempts to reveal participants' general motivational orientations after six years of language study. With the exception of question 63 (Horwitz, 1988), all the questions were taken from Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (1985), Integrative/Instrumental Orientation sections. Participants' motivational orientation shown in Tables 8 and 9 illustrate a mixed pattern of responses in the same way as Kimura et al. (2001) report. Modal figures of students' integrative orientation appeared to show a slightly stronger orientation toward that area (modal responses = 3.00) than toward instrumental: mean figures show slightly less agreement. More participants show a greater interest in studying the language for the purpose of understanding the culture than because they were interested in living in an English-speaking country. Instrumental orientation figures showed more varied modal responses of 3.00 and 5.00 shared equally. Students seemed to be little interested in learning English for the purpose of gaining respect from their peers. Many students seemed not to be learning English for the purpose of future employment. At the same time, they seemed to believe more that their English skills would be useful in helping them find a job. As stated above, while the integrative/instrumental orientation sections of this survey were taken from Gardner's (1985) work on the same topic, these responses show how closely some of the characteristics used to investigate these motivational orientations actually express some of the characteristics of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This was particularly noticeable with questions 62 and 67.

Table 8: Student Impression of English Class in the Final Year of Secondary Education

Characteristic of Classroom	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
42. Meaningful/ not meaningful	3.0963	3	3	1.5056
43. Enjoyable/not enjoyable	3.7852	4	4	1.5759
44. Monotonous/ absorbing	3.0222	3	3	1.5056
45. Effortless/ hard	3.3134	3	3	1.4899
46. Interesting/ boring	3.7333	4	3	1.6217
47. Good/ bad	3.6889	4	3	1.6275
48. Simple/ complicated	4.4074	5	5	1.4573
49. Worthless/valuable	3.5481	4	4	1.4899
50. Necessary/unnecessary	3.0667	3	3	1.6263
51. Appealing/unappealing	3.5778	4	4	1.6321
52. Useless/useful	3.4889	3	3	2.9897
53. Elementary/complex	3.2593	3	3	1.3492
54. Educational/non educational	3.1185	3	2	1.4663
55. Unrewarding/rewarding	3.7852	4	4	1.4882
56. Satisfying/unsatisfying	3.9627	4	3	1.4685
57. Unimportant/important	3.5259	4	4	1.5685
58. Pleasant/unpleasant	3.9704	4	6	1.7101
59. Exciting/dull	3.8148	4	3	1.6508
60. Clear/confusing	3.8667	4	5	1.5788

Six point scale: 1 = strong belief that the adjective on the left represents classroom atmosphere. 6 = strong belief that the adjective on the right represents classroom atmosphere. n = 135.

Table 9: Integrative Orientation

Survey Questions	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
61. I would like to study English because I want to live in an English speaking country.	3.80	4.00	3.00	1.61
62. I would like to study English because I don't want to be nervous when I speak with native English speakers.	3.91	4.00	3.00	1.48
63. I would like to know English so that I can get closer to the literature and culture.	3.31	3.00	3.00	1.45

Note: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree. n = 134.

Beliefs about Language Learning and the Future

In many areas, the following discussion of student attitudes concerning language learning, foreign language aptitude and the nature of language learning illustrates how, as Horwitz (1988) asserts, students' own beliefs about language learning may hinder their efforts and curtail their ability to increase proficiency while studying at university. Table 10 provides an illustration of participants' often-contradictory beliefs. While most students agree that anyone can learn a foreign language ($M = 2.50$; mode = 2.00) and that some people are quite good at learning languages ($M = 3.06$; mode = 3.00), students did not believe that they possessed a special ability for learning foreign languages ($M = 4.47$; mode = 5.00) or that Japanese people are particularly good at learning foreign languages ($M = 4.21$; mode = 5.00). Taking into account that 68.9% of survey participants were men, the results show that most students disagreed that women are better than men at learning foreign languages ($M = 4.29$; mode = 5.00).

Table 10: Instrumental Orientation

Survey Questions	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
64. I would like to know English for future career.	3.85	4.00	5.00	1.56
65. I would like to know English because it will make me a knowledgeable person.	3.57	3.00	3.00	1.35
66. I would like to know English because it will be useful in helping me get a good job.	3.23	3.00	3.00	1.46
67. People will respect me if I am fluent in another language.	3.96	4.00	5.00	1.34

Note: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree. $n = 134$.

Under Horwitz's (1988) nature of language learning category, with the exception of questions #62 and #74 each response had both a mean and a mode score of 3.00. The greatest agreement was that practicing English conversation will improve students' proficiency ($M = 2.44$; mode = 2.00) and that practicing with cassette tapes will lead to increased proficiency ($M = 2.36$; mode = 2.00); very interesting results considering that most students were not often taught using these strategies while at secondary school. While still showing general agreement, the lowest level was "the most important part of learning English is the grammar" ($M = 3.49$; mode

= 3.00). Most students were aware that learning a language is different from studying other subjects. There remained, however, a general belief that translation between first and second language plays an important role in language learning—more so than the study of grammar. There was also general agreement that knowing the differences between the two languages would help the learner improve their language proficiency.

Table 11: Foreign Language Aptitude.

Survey Questions	mean	median	mode	SD
68. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	4.29	5.00	5.00	1.35
69. People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.	4.21	4.00	5.00	1.18
70. I have foreign language aptitude.	4.47	5.00	5.00	1.27
71. Anyone can learn a foreign language	2.50	2.00	2.00	1.23
72. There are some people who are particularly good at learning languages.	3.06	3.00	3.00	1.378

Note: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree. n = 134.

Following Horwitz's learning and communication strategies, there was evidence of students' belief that to focus on accuracy is better than focusing on production. Students reported the necessity of speaking with a 'good accent' ($M = 2.59$; mode = 2.00). They report a slight reticence to speak English ($M = 3.49$; mode = 3.00). This orientation toward accuracy over production did show its limits, however. While students agreed that if one were allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it would be hard to get rid of them later on, most disagreed with the statement that students should not say anything in English until it can be said correctly (mean = 4.92; mode = 5.00).

Discussion and Implications

The results from this limited study illustrate a case where a group of students received most of their English education through traditional secondary education. Very few of the participants had learned or used English abroad. Use of English at home was minimal. Most reported a low proficiency in the language; they appeared to have little confidence

Table 12: Nature of Language Learning

Survey Questions	Mean	Median	Mode	<i>SD</i>
73. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.	3.13	3.00	3.00	1.28
74. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.	2.83	3.00	3.00	1.21
75. Learning about the differences between English and Japanese will help me improve my English.	3.08	3.00	3.00	1.20
76. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.	3.18	3.00	3.00	1.25
77. The most important part of learning English is the grammar.	3.49	3.00	3.00	1.26
78. Practicing English conversation will improve my proficiency.	2.44	2.00	2.00	1.09
79. It is necessary to know the cultures of the English-speaking world in order to speak English well.	2.76	3.00	3.00	1.24
80. You can improve your ability in English by playing games.	2.98	3.00	3.00	1.20
81. It is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.	2.36	2.00	2.00	1.11

Note: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree. n = 134.

Table 13: Learning and Communication Strategies

Survey Questions	Mean	Median	Mode	<i>SD</i>
82. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	2.39	2.00	2.00	1.21
83. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	2.68	3.00	3.00	1.12
84. I feel shy speaking English with other people.	3.49	3.00	3.00	1.37
85. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	4.92	5.00	5.00	1.19
86. It is really important to speak English with a good pronunciation.	2.59	2.00	2.00	1.31

Note: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree. n = 134.

in using English across the four language skill areas after six years of language study. Participants stated that they most often learned English using the grammar/translation method. Just as traditional teaching methods have remained in use, students believe that teachers' purposes for teaching English remain largely tied to preparation for entrance examinations (there are teachers who are reported to be also working upon increasing their students' English fluency). Student purposes for English study differ from their teachers and appear to be more oriented toward studying English to increase fluency and less to prepare for entrance examinations. Pearson correlational and paired *t* tests show a tentative correlation between teacher/student orientations in this area. While parents tended to be uninvolved in their children's day-to-day studies, their indirect influence in their children's education is evident. As above, Pearson correlational and paired *t* tests show a relatively weaker set of relationships in this area. While demographic realities may have opened other means of gaining university entrance, it appears that parents and teachers continue to emphasize the importance of English for entrance examinations.

In an attempt to uncover students' language study orientations while attending secondary school, the students were asked to choose between focusing on examination preparation and studying to increase general fluency in English. They were also asked to define their teachers' and parents' orientations in the same way. This 'one or the other' dichotomous construct, which appears prevalent in the literature about English education in Japan (Brown, 1995, Frost, 1991; Hendrichson, 1989; Lee, 1991), may not capture how students view their language learning experiences at secondary school. Results have shown that a number of students appear to believe that preparing for entrance examinations may also have helped their general proficiency and vice versa. This was evident in the reasons for students gave for studying at *juku* as well as when looking at parent/child correlations between parental emphasis on studying English for entrance examinations and parental encouragement to increase fluency. More research is needed in order to better understand what may be a more nuanced reality of students' perceptions concerning their language learning experiences.

Despite vast demographic changes which continue to make university entrance less competitive, the English language secondary educational experiences of participants in this survey appear, in the main, to be little changed from the past as represented in the literature. While only 11.1% of first year participants had gained university entry by means

of the regular entrance examination, students' perceptions of their experiences show that the educational system is still preparing them for examinations, which the majority of students do not have to take. This system, with its long history, seems impervious to rapid change even as it becomes obvious to students, parents, and educational authorities that it is no longer serving an educational purpose, at least at the non-elite level.

Just as Horwitz (1988) suggests, after six years of English language study, the students investigated here have most certainly developed specific attitudes about language learning and about English and its speakers. As Gardner (1985) asserts, "the teachers and methodology can consequently play an important role in shaping the nature of students' attitudes....If teachers are skilled in the language, attuned to student feelings and offer an interesting and informative methodology they can help bring about positive attitudes" (p. 8). If Gardner is correct, it is equally probable that teachers' actions can bring about negative attitudes which hinder language development if the opposite conditions are present. This can be true for both high school and university instruction.

Most participants in this study had come from their secondary schools with a generally negative assessment of their secondary English language classes. The results of this study seem to suggest as Kimura et al. (2001) point out in their study that, "Japanese EFL learners have inhibitory factors operating against learning English such as anxiety, past experiences, or preferring teacher-dominated lectures" (p. 64). A majority of students in this study seemed to have little confidence in their ability to use the language. There appeared to be contradictory beliefs about language learning attitudes. While most participants believed that anyone can learn English, many more participants believed that they do not possess an aptitude for learning English. Student beliefs about the general nature of language learning and learning and communication strategies parallel many of the traditional practices of their secondary language experiences where accuracy appears to be valued over production. On the whole, students remain reticent to use English for fear of making errors. At the same time, they are aware that language learning is different from other subjects and that one must know the culture of the language which is being studied in order to become more proficient. Integrative/instrumental orientation results show that students aren't particularly oriented strongly in either direction. As Norton (2000) describes, this dichotomy may not clearly

uncover participants' conflicting and ambiguous purposes for studying the language. And as Kimura et al. (2001) argue, "it is inappropriate to seek one theory to explain all aspects of motivation" (p. 48).

As students begin to study English in the university classroom, they may be taught by a foreign instructor for the first time. It is imperative that such instructors know how their students have been taught. Student and teacher expectations must be matched to rely on students' real experiences, rather than on the received understanding of past educational practices. In this way, instructors may discover ways to help their students find a purpose for increasing their language proficiency while they are studying at university.

Knowledge of student attitudes and motivations is vital if one is to bridge cultural and pedagogical gaps, particularly for the instructor whose approach to teaching might run counter to common teaching methods at the secondary level. Horwitz (1988) asserts that, "if certain beliefs are an impediment to successful language learning...it is necessary...to make learners aware of their own preconceived notions about language learning and their possible consequences" (p. 292). Ellis (1997, p. 71) has argued that those students who have spent a great deal of their early language learning in grammar practice and have been unable to acquire fluency in English "...are likely to benefit from communicative activities rather than grammar teaching." If these communicative tasks, which according to Nunan work, "to involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language" (cited in Ellis 1997, p. 209), are to be effective in helping students gain fluency in English, instructors must pay close attention to their student's foundation of language learning acquired in secondary school and show those who are interested in attaining fluency the best way to achieve improved proficiency.

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Notes

1. Participants were asked to provide which area of Japan they came from. The following *regions* include the following prefectures: *Hokkaido*: Hokkaido; *Tohoku*: Aomori, Iwate, Akita, Yamagata, Miyagi, Fukushima; *Kanto*: Tokyo, Chiba, Saitama, Kanagawa, Gumma, Ibaraki, Tochigi, Yamanashi; *Tokai*: Nagano, Shizuoka, Aichi, Gifu, Mie; *Kansai*: Osaka, Kyoto, Hyogo, Shiga, Wakayama, Nara; *Hokuriku*: Fukui, Ishikawa, Niigata, Toyama; *Chugoku*: Okayama, Shimane, Tottori, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi; *Shikoku*: Kagawa, Tokushima, Ehime, Kochi; *Kyushu*: Fukuoka, Saga, Nagasaki, Oita, Kumamoto, Miyazaki, Kagoshima; *Okinawa*: Okinawa.

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Appendix 1

English Translation of Survey

Demographic Information

1. Gender:
2. Age:
3. First Language:
4. Department:
5. Home town: rural urban suburb
6. Region: Hokkaido Tohoku Hokuriku Kanto
 Kansai Tokai Chugoku Shikoku
 Kyushu Okinawa
7. Country:
8. Did you graduate from a sister high school?
9. What kind of high school did you go to?
10. Were you in a special English program?
11. How did you enter this university?
 Recommendation AO Regular entrance examination

English Language study before entering university

12. Started studying English before entering junior high school. Yes No
13. If Yes at what age? _____
14. I began studying when I entered my first year of junior high school. Yes No
15. I did not study English outside of school. Yes No
16. I studied at juku. Yes No

If you answered Yes to question 16 please answer the following questions

17. How often did you study at juku?
 18. I studied at juku so I could prepare for my entrance examination. Yes No
 19. I studied at juku so that I could improve my English proficiency. Yes No
 20. I spoke English with my family Yes No
 21. If yes, what kind of practice did you do?
 22. Have you stayed in an English speaking country? Yes No
- If yes, how long?

About your High School English classes (choose the best response)

- Always often sometimes rarely never
23. When I studied English in high school, I studied English grammar.
 24. When I studied English in high school, I did listening practice.
 25. When I studied English in high school, we translated English into Japanese.

26. When I studied English in high school, I practiced English conversation during class.
27. When I studied English in high school, I spoke with a native speaker during class.
28. When you studied English in high school, how many hours a week did you study English?

How would you rate your English proficiency? (choose the best response)

No ability can a little can fairly well can very well

29. English speaking ability:
30. English writing ability:
31. English reading ability:
32. English listening ability:

High school English classes (continuation)

- 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree
33. My high school teacher taught English with the purpose of preparing us for entrance examinations.
 34. My high school teacher taught English with the purpose of making us fluent in the language.
 35. I studied English with the purpose of preparing for entrance examinations.
 36. I studied English with the purpose of becoming fluent in English.

Parental Influence

- 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree
37. During my high school years, my parents tried to help me with my English homework.
 38. During my high school years, my parents thought that I should devote more time to my English studies.
 39. During my high school years, my parents stressed the importance of English for university entrance examinations.
 40. My parents feel that because we live in an international era, I should learn English.
 41. During my high school years, my parents encouraged me to become as fluent in English as possible.

Semantic Differential Scale of students' impression of the past year's English lessons

- | | | |
|----------------|---|---------------|
| 42. Meaningful | _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ | Meaningless |
| 43. Enjoyable | _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ | Not enjoyable |
| 44. Monotonous | _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ | Absorbing |
| 45. Effortless | _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ | Hard |
| 46. Good | _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ | Bad |

47. Interesting	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Boring
48. Simple	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Complicated
49. Worthless	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Valuable
50. Necessary	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Unnecessary
51. Appealing	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Unappealing
52. Useless	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Useful
53. Elementary	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Complex
54. Educational	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Non-educational
55. Unrewarding	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Rewarding
56. Satisfying	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Unsatisfying
57. Unimportant	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Important
58. Pleasant	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Unpleasant
59. Exciting	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Dull
60. Clear	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Confusing

Integrative Orientation

1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree

61. One reason that I am studying English is because I may stay in an English speaking country some time in the future.
62. Studying English is important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with foreigners who speak English.
63. Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate English language literature and culture.

Instrumental Orientation

1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree

64. Studying English is important for me only because I'll need it for my future career.
65. Studying English is important for me only because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.
66. Studying English is important for me only because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.
67. Studying English is important for me only because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language.

Foreign Language Aptitude

1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree

68. People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.
69. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.
70. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.
71. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.
72. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

- 1 5. 学校（中学・高校）以外では英語を習うことはなかった。（○をつけて下さい。）
はい いいえ
- 1 6. 塾で英語を学んだ。（○をつけて下さい。）
はい いいえ
（「はい」を選んだ人は塾について次の質問に答えて下さい。）
- 1 7. 塾でどのぐらい勉強しましたか。（○をつけて下さい。）
週一回 週二回 それ以上
- 1 8. 塾での勉強は入学試験のためでしたか。（○をつけて下さい。） はい いいえ
- 1 9. 塾での勉強は英語の上達のためでしたか。（○をつけて下さい。） はい いいえ
- 2 0. 家族と英会話を楽しんだことはありますか。（○をつけて下さい。） はい いいえ
- 2 1. （「はい」を選んだ人はどんな練習をしましたか。 _____）
- 2 2. 英語を話す国に滞在したことがありますか。（○をつけて下さい。）
はい いいえ

「はい」の人はその期間

一ヶ月未満 一年未満 一年以上～二年未満 二年以上～五年未満 五年以上

高校時代の英語の授業について：（○をつけて下さい。）

- 2 3. 高校時代には授業で英文法を学んだ。
いつも たびたび ときどき まれに ぜんぜん 分からない
- 2 4. 英語を勉強する時にヒヤリングの練習した。
- 2 5. 高校時代には授業で英語を日本語に翻訳した。
- 2 6. 高校時代には授業で英会話を練習した。
- 2 7. 高校時代には授業で英語を母国語とする外国人と英語で話した。
- 2 8. 高校時代には英語の授業は週何回ありましたか。
一回 二回 三回 四回 五回以上

自分の英語能力がどれくらいだと思いますか。

- 2 9. 英語を話す： できない _____ 少しできる _____ できる _____ 大変よくできる _____
- 3 0. 英語を書く： できない _____ 少しできる _____ できる _____ 大変よくできる _____
- 3 1. 英語を読む： できない _____ 少しできる _____ できる _____ 大変よくできる _____
- 3 2. 英語を聴く： できない _____ 少しできる _____ できる _____ 大変よくできる _____

高校時代の英語の授業について：（続き）

- 3 3. 高校の先生は生徒を受験に合格させることを目的として英語を教えていた。
非常にそう そう ややそう ややそう そうは 全くそうは
思う 思う 思う 思わない 思わない 思わない
- 3 4. 高校の先生は生徒が英語を使いこなす力をつけるために英語を教えていた。
- 3 5. 私は受験に合格することを目的として英語を勉強した。
- 3 6. 私は英語を使いこなす力をつけるために勉強した。

Parental Influence

- 3 7. 高校時代には両親が英語の宿題を助けてくれた。
- 3 8. 高校時代、両親は私が英語をもっと勉強したほうがいいと思っていた。
- 3 9. 高校時代、両親は私が大学に進学するには英語の勉強が必要であると強調した。
- 4 0. 現在は国際時代であるため、両親は私が英語を勉強しなければならぬと感じている。
- 4 1. 高校時代、両親は私が出来るだけ英語を流暢に話せるよう励ました。

Semantic Differential Scale of students' impression of the past year's English lessons.

高校での英語学習のイメージは次のどちらに近いですか。

- 4 2. 意味があった _____:_____:_____:_____:_____ 意味がなかった
- 4 3. 愉快だった _____:_____:_____:_____:_____ 愉快ではなかった
- 4 4. 退屈だった _____:_____:_____:_____:_____ 夢中にさせた
- 4 5. 努力を要しなかった _____:_____:_____:_____:_____ つらかった
- 4 6. 良かった _____:_____:_____:_____:_____ 悪かった
- 4 7. 面白かった _____:_____:_____:_____:_____ つまらなかった

