JAPANESE SOCIAL INFLUENCES ON ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD LONG-TERM ENGLISH LEARNING

by

Yoko Kobayashi

A thesis submitted in conformity with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto

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Yoko Kobayashi, Ph.D., 2000
Department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning
University of Toronto

Abstract

Focusing on Japanese high school students at university preparatory high schools, this thesis examined Japanese social influences on the students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning and on gender differences in this attitudinal variable. Drawing its theoretical framework from Gardner’s socio-educational model, this study presupposed the relation between Japanese social milieu and Japanese students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning. In order to interpret the quantitative data of this study from the Japanese social perspective, this study used not only its own data obtained from the research participants but also other extant data from related previous studies.

This study found that students’ interest in learning about the outside world and communicating with people in English and their perceptions about studying English as a main school subject influence their attitudes toward long-term English learning. In contrast to this finding, students’ self-reported academic English grade and their self-rated English skills were found to have little influence on their attitudes toward long-term English learning. This study demonstrated that these findings are embedded in the Japanese university preparatory high school context in which English education places undue emphasis on entrance examinations and results in the underdevelopment of students’ English communicative skills, as perceived by both the students and teachers. Regarding gender differences, female students were found to be more positive toward their current and future English learning. It was argued that Japanese women’s marginalized status in the society and related social elements such as the femininity of English professions in Japan are likely to cause women’s positive attitudes toward English learning.
This study verified that the focus on the relationship between social milieu and language attitudes can generate a new understanding of research findings on L2 attitudes. In order to concretely make evident the strength of this study with its context-based perspective, it was demonstrated that what Chihara and Oller (1978), a classic study on Japanese students’ attitudes toward English, failed to explain about some of their major findings could be explained with an understanding of the Japanese context for students’ English learning at school.
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Chapter One: Introduction

Purpose, Research Questions, and Theoretical Framework of This Study

The focus of this thesis is on Japanese high school students at university preparatory high schools where they study English as a major school subject for grammar-focused university entrance examinations. The purpose of this study is to identify variables which influence those Japanese university-bound high school students’ attitudes toward their future plan of continuing to study English after graduation from high school. This thesis examines the following four research questions:

(1) What factors influence Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning?
(2) Is there a relationship between students’ academic performance in grammar-oriented English education at Japanese academic high schools and those students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning?
(3) Is there a relationship between Japanese high school students’ self-rated English skills and their attitudes toward long-term English learning?
(4) Do gender differences exist in Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward English learning? If so, what factors account for the gender differences?

This thesis draws its fundamental theoretical framework from Gardner’s socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985) because his model presupposes a relationship between a particular social milieu and language attitudes and this thesis examines the relationship between the Japanese social milieu and Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning. Explaining his model, Gardner (1985) states:
A central theme of the model is that second language acquisition takes place in a particular cultural context. It proposes that the beliefs in the community concerning the importance and meaningfulness of learning the language, the nature of skill development expected, and the particular role of various individual differences in the language learning process will influence second language acquisition. (p. 146)

There is another quite similar model proposed by Clément (1980) which addresses the relation between social context and L2 motivation. In fact, Gardner (1985) describes Clément’s model as “the social context model” because “it places considerable emphasis on the cultural milieu and the relative vitality of the language communities involved” (p. 137). This thesis, however, does not draw its theoretical framework from Clément’s model because that model pays special attention to the power relation between the L2 learners’ own language community and the target language community, and the balance between L2 learners’ integrativeness and fear of assimilation into the target language community. These focal elements in Clément’s model are relatively irrelevant to this thesis. This is because this thesis focuses on Japanese high school students who study English for grammar-focused entrance examinations in the overall homogenous, monolingual Japanese society and who have almost no contact with any English speaking community or any other foreign community in- and outside school settings.

According to Gardner, the construct of attitude is a main component of another related construct, motivation. He defines motivation as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10) and the term attitude as “an evalulative reaction to some referent or attitude, inferred on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent” (p. 9). The dependent variable in this thesis, Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning, was operationalized as the students’ responses
to Likert-scale items concerned with their future plan of continuing to study English after graduation from high school. Examples of those items are: "I will never study English after juken (entrance examinations) is over" and "I am going to take English courses at university even if they are not compulsory as long as they are effective."

This study, which is embedded in the Japanese context, expands a main construct in Gardner’s model, social milieu. In his model, social milieu comprises only ‘cultural beliefs’ which “refer to those existing in the social context in which the individual lives” (Gardner, 1988, p. 111). In this thesis, social milieu comprises not only Japanese social beliefs about English language and English study but also a number of Japanese social and educational elements which are related to Japanese students’ attitudes toward and perceptions about English study such as the status of English at and outside school, Japanese educational systems (including the nature of English education) at university preparatory high schools and gender differences in students’ academic choices.

**Significance of This Study**

There are several contributions this study will make. First, this study will specify variables which influence Japanese academic high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning. The focus of this thesis on the Japanese context will demonstrate a critical limitation in the conventional SLA research on motivation/attitudes which pays little attention to social variables existing in a particular research context (e.g. learners’ beliefs about L2 learning) and thus fails to appropriately interpret research findings which are inseparable from the research context.

Secondly, this study will provide Japanese teachers of English with information allowing them to reflect on their teaching and its effect upon the students’ perceptions
about English study and attitudes toward long-term English learning. Those who are involved in the development and evaluation of foreign language education policies in Japan will also benefit from this study which produces context-based findings about Japanese high school students’ perceptions about English study and attitudes toward long-term English learning.

Thirdly, the focus of this study on gender differences in Japanese students’ attitudes toward English learning will help raise researchers’ awareness about the weakness in the conventional SLA research on gender differences which often fails to examine the cause of those gender differences and ends with stereotypical assumptions about the differences. Although the present study interprets its findings on gender differences with reference to other extant studies on young Japanese women, this study will shed light on the relatively unexplored aspect of gender in language learning attitudes by treating gender as a socio-culturally embedded phenomenon.

Fourthly, the focus of this study on gender will produce findings which allow Japanese teachers of English to reflect on their (presumably not totally bias-free) perceptions about female and male students’ attitudes toward English learning and expectations from female and male students about their attitudes toward English learning.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

Review of Literature on L2 Motivation and Learning Experience

L2 Motivation and Attitudes

The social psychological orientation to SLA research on motivation, pioneered by Gardner and characterized by his socio-educational model, continues to be dominant and influential (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a; McGroarty, 1996; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Skehan, 1989) (see Gardner, 1985 and Skehan, 1989 for the reviews of literature on other major theoretical SLA models such as Schumann’s acculturation model and Krashen’s monitor model). Prediction of second language achievement from language motivation is the focus of Gardner and his associates’ research (Gardner, 1968; 1983; 1985; Gardner, Lalonde & Pierson, 1983; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; 1972).

Gardner’s voluminous work in collaboration with his associates is, beyond argument, a tremendous contribution to SLA research on attitudes and motivation. However, the recent emergence of new research orientations has provoked heated discussion on research directions. As a recent trend emerging from within the circle of SLA researchers with the social-psychological or “Gardnerian” perspective (Dörnyei, 1994b, p. 516), Dörnyei (1994a) and Oxford and Shearin (1994) called for the expansion of the Gardnerian concept of motivation by integrating psychological and educational psychological theories into L2 motivation research (e.g. need theories, instrumentality theories, equity theories, reinforcement theories). These articles, which were published in Modern Language Journal (vol. 78, no. 3, 1994) three years after the publication of the influential paper by Crookes and Schmidt, “Motivation: reopening the research agenda” in Language Learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991), developed into an exchange between
Dörnyei, Oxford, Gardner, and their associates (Dörnyei, 1994b; Oxford, 1994; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a; 1994b). Gardner and his associates called the movement to expand his theoretical concept “a very positive step forward because renewed interest will result in greater understanding of this fascinating topic” (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a, p. 359). One year later, they published a paper, “Expanding the motivation construct in language learning” (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), which addressed the validity of some of the psychological and educational psychological concepts introduced by Dörnyei and Oxford and Shearin.

The background for this movement to incorporate new educational psychological and psychological theories into the concept of the Gardnerian motivation and his research framework is the increasing recognition among SLA researchers and L2 teachers that the traditional Gardnerian SLA research on motivation is too generalized and complex to be comprehensible and applicable to L2 classrooms and other learning contexts (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990; 1994a; 1994b; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Skehan, 1989). Crookes and Schmidt (1991), for example, claim, “Current SL discussion on this topic [language motivation] lacks validity in that it is not well-grounded in the real world domain of the SL classroom…” (p. 470). They further argue:

Research on the question of integrative versus instrumental attitudes, motivation (not directly measured) and proficiency has produced results that are mixed and difficult to interpret, so the best that can be said is that different attitudes and goal orientations seem to be important, but in ways that vary from situation to situation. (p. 478-479)

The critical yet neglected limitation of this “motivational renaissance” (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994b, p. 526) within the social-psychological circle of SLA researchers is that new theories are drawn exclusively from the traditional psychological and educational psychological field, which itself has been characterized by separation of findings from a
social context and presentation of few practically applicable educational implications (Bergin, 1999; Chase, 1998; Sternberg, 1996). For example, Chase (1998) claims:

...psychologists — including educational psychologists — found that new theories opened new lines of research, and maintained a level of excitement around data from controlled settings such as the laboratory .... Views of such topics as reinforcement and contiguity, effect and expectancy theory resounded in seminar rooms across the nation’s educational psychology departments. However, few curriculum people and few teachers, found their way to these discussions. The findings of the psychological laboratory kept educational psychologists talking among themselves but not finding many features of their research that matched the classroom setting or could be translated into educational methods. (p. 242)

More specifically, Bergin (1999), one of the articles in a recent special issue of Educational Psychologist, 'The value aspects of motivation in education,' discussed the nature of current popular theories of motivation, some of which were introduced into the psychology-oriented SLA research by Oxford and Shearin (1994) and Dörnyei (1994a) and adopted by Tremblay and Gardner (1995). According to Bergin, those dominant motivation theories such as attribution theory, goal orientation theory, expectancy x value theory, flow theory, and self-efficacy theory “are not primarily concerned with designing tasks that catch the interest of students or with explaining why people faced with two activities choose one and not the other even if they have equal perceptions of competence or of value for each” (Bergin, 1999, p. 88).

Naturally, the incorporation of these new educational psychological and psychological theories into an SLA research framework does not automatically solve the old problems of complexity, impracticability of research findings and separation of the findings from a L2 learning context. For example, in response to the call for the expansion of the conventional, Gardnerian motivation, Tremblay and Gardner (1995), in a recent empirical study report titled “Expanding the motivation construct in language learning,” incorporated some of those psychological theories into the theoretical framework and
investigated "the theoretical and pragmatic value of such integrations" (p. 505). In spite of, or because of the conceptual framework based on those psychological and educational psychological theories, the study produced most rigorous, complicated findings and no educational implications. This example crystallizes a fundamental question on the feasibility of recent reform attempts to make SLA research on motivation more context-based and classroom-applicable just by drawing on new theories from the conventional psychological and educational domain.

Prompted by these critical limitations of the psychological research on L2 motivation, another new research orientation has emerged from the circle of SLA researchers with the different, interpretive perspective. Research based on an interpretive theoretical framework and, in most cases, qualitative research methodology, investigates social influences on second language learning and raises arguments against the psychological, context-free research framework on second language motivation. For example, Peirce (1995) argues:

... second language acquisition (SLA) theorists have struggled to conceptualize the relationship between the language learner and the social world because they have not developed a comprehensive theory of social identity which integrates the language learner and the language learning context. (p. 9)

Peirce (1993; 1994; 1995) conducted a longitudinal (12 months) case study with five immigrant women who had recently immigrated to Canada and who were taking Peirce’s ESL course. She collected a substantial amount of qualitative data, through reflective journals, i.e. by asking each woman to keep diaries and reflect upon their English learning experiences. Additional data were also obtained from questionnaires, interviews, and home visits. She constructed her theoretical framework by developing the notions of
second language learners' 'social identity' and their changing 'investment' in speaking the
target language. She claims that while learning and using a second language, second
language learners are constantly dealing with a complex, unfixed social world (people,
time, and space) and negotiating with their own social identity. Her rich, longitudinal data
documented that second language learners' motivation to study English cannot be
understood without those notions which presuppose the complex interaction between
learners and the particular social context.

Goldstein's work (1991; 1995) is a good example of interpretive, longitudinal
research on language choice. She observed and interviewed Portuguese women who had
newly immigrated to Canada and were working as production-line workers in Toronto.
This sociolinguistic study revealed that the dynamics of various context-based, social
factors affected those women's choice of English as a second language and Portuguese as a
first language used during work. For example, the study found that those female workers' 
motivation to master English was enhanced by the status of English in the mainstream
society as the most dominant and prestigious language and their eagerness to maintain their
pride as mothers whose children were becoming fluent in the dominant language, English.
At the same time, the function of Portuguese as a symbol of solidarity in the Portuguese
community and the power structure in the workplace were found to impede those women's
commitment to English learning.

The increasing focus on learners and learning contexts in SLA research is also
found in the classroom-based research which is concerned with learners' perspectives and
interaction among peers and teachers (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Donato, 1994; Gillette,
1994; van Lier, 1988). Research on students' beliefs about second language acquisition,
which employs a more quantitative research methodology, is another line of work which
explores learners' perspectives and examines the hypothesis that second language learning is influenced by beliefs (sometimes myths) brought into the classroom by students from outside of the school context (Horwitz, 1987; see Kuntz, 1996 for a review of previous belief studies).

In their classroom research on second language attitudes, Swain and Miccoli (1994) studied the attitudinal change in a Japanese middle-aged female graduate student who was taking Swain's course, "Collaborative learning in second language classrooms." Through the reflective journals completed by this intermediate-level ESL student and a series of interviews with her throughout the term, the study found that her emotions changed throughout the course (from anxiety and depression to confidence) in relation to her interpretation of her role in the classroom context: her limited English ability, the nature of classroom tasks as collaborative group work, her role in the group, her cultural background as a Japanese woman, and so on. The study also demonstrated that her participation in the study provided her with a chance to consciously reflect on her own learning and resulted in her successful completion of the course.

McKay and Wong (1996) is part of a two-year ethnographic case study on four Mandarin-speaking immigrant students enrolled in a California public junior high school. They examined those students' learning of English as a second language learning from the "contextualist perspective" of "conceptualizing a second-language learner as a complex social being" (McKay & Wong, 1996, p.577). The study revealed that each of four students was continuously subjected to and negotiated with many elements embedded in the school context such as racial and linguistic stereotypes pervasive among teachers and in the local community, students' construction of their own ethnic identity, and power relations
between teachers and students. The study demonstrated how the contextualist perspective was essential to understanding each student's different attitude toward learning English.

In contrast to the growing accumulation of qualitative findings concerned with context-based influences upon second language learners and their learning, there is a dearth in quantitative-oriented research which adopts such a context-based perspective and considers relations between social context and second language learning. Exceptions are some large-scale studies conducted in specific, rather extensive research settings (Cummins, Harley, Swain & Allen, 1990; Sharp, Thomas, Price, Francis & Davies, 1973). For example, Sharp et al. (1973) is the complete report of their research project on Welsh and English students' attitudes toward the learning of Welsh and English. Thousands of students in Wales at the age of 10, 12, and 14 were carefully chosen by means of random stratification (linguistic background and type of school were taken into account). The study found that their attitudes toward Welsh and English either as a first or second language were affected by the variables of sex, general ability, linguistic background, socio-economic background, and attainment in Welsh and English. This detailed project report, which was intended to document the full research process and findings, implied that the research context significantly accounts for variances in students' language attitudes.

**Concept of Continuity of Learning Experience**

Pillemer, Picariello, Law and Reichman (1996) is a report by Pillemer and his colleagues of autobiographical studies on American female college junior/senior students and alumnae. Pillemer et al. garnered those current and former students' descriptions of memorable experiences at college such as interactions with specific teachers, courses,
school activities and friendships which they thought had an impact on their attitudes toward study, efficacy and future choices. The descriptive data revealed that momentary events such as one particular teacher’s comment on academic performance could exert consequential influences upon learning and future plans. One of the alumnae recounted the most memorable moment which made her decide to change her academic course:

In my sophomore year, I took an English literature course. I loved the course material, enjoyed writing papers, and felt pretty good about it until . . . . I wrote an essay on my interpretation of a poem. I felt I had great insight into a special meaning within the verse. When the paper was returned, the teacher told me I didn’t have any understanding of the material and she hoped I wasn’t going to be an English major. I remember her pinched face and small, tight mouth as she said these things to me. I thought no way do I want to be like her. So I changed my major from English to Sociology. (p. 333)

These findings serve as compelling evidence for the profound impact of students’ experiences at school upon their long-term learning and the importance of examining students’ experiences at school as an integral part of educational research. What teachers say in classrooms, what teachers ask students to do as a classroom activity, how teachers react to students’ performance, how teachers teach lessons, and how teachers are dedicated to teaching all exert influences on the formation of students’ experience at school.

Curriculum can be defined as all the learning experiences accumulated throughout education (Clandinin & Connelly, 1989; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Dewey, 1902; 1938; 1944). The concept of “continuity of experience” proposed by Dewey (1938) suggests that what Japanese students experience through a six-year English education at a three-year middle school and another three-year high school is not discontinued after they enter university. Rather, as “two principles of continuity and interaction” (p. 44), students’ learning experiences at school continue, interact, and unite with new experiences. Given the impact of students’ experiences at school upon their long-term learning, it is an
educator’s responsibility to “see in what direction an experience is heading” for the students’ future (p. 38).

**Review of Literature on Gender Differences in L2 Learning and Course Choices**

**Gender Differences in Attitudes Toward L2 Learning**

Prompted by the decline in the popularity of foreign language learning in the UK, particularly among boys, Powell and Batters (1985) conducted survey research with 459 boys and 494 girls from six mixed comprehensive schools and examined gender differences in the five latent constructs: Importance of the Foreign Language, Ethnocentricity, Self-image in the Foreign Language, Attitudes Towards Writing in the Foreign Language, and Attitudes Towards Oral Work in the Foreign Language. The study found that the girls scored higher in all of the five constructs, indicating female students’ more positive perceptions of studying foreign languages. This research, which is often cited as a classical study on gender differences in students’ perceptions of foreign language learning, failed to examine reasons for the results. The researchers concluded: “We recognise the difficulty for researchers in gaining a clear picture of pupils’ perceptions of subjects taught in school, especially as regards sex differences” (Powell & Batters, 1985, p. 20).

Loulidi (1990) is another frequently cited work which is also concerned about the unpopularity of foreign language learning among male students and gender differences in learners’ attitudes toward the learning. The four-page theoretical paper, “Is language learning really a female business?” argues that such attitudinal gender differences might be attributed to the nature of English as a feminine subject and social and cultural pressures on
Boys and girls to make appropriate academic choices in order to comply with sex-stereotyped roles operating in the society.

Bacon and Finnemann (1992) employed discriminant analysis to predict group membership (male or female) based on 938 university students' beliefs about learning Spanish as a foreign language in the U.S. The prediction rate was 62%. The study found that the group of female students scored higher in motivation, strategy use and social interaction with native speakers. The study concluded that “[men and women] should not be expected to share a common point of view or to adopt a generic set of learning strategies. Instruction in L2, therefore, must account for and capitalize on potential differences rather than ignore them” (p. 491). Although concerned with gender differences, this study only identified gender differences but failed to examine causes of the differences as well as the research context subsuming American social and cultural elements such as gender roles and foreign language learning setting (need for foreign language learning, educational requirement, social attitude, etc.).

A recent study on foreign language motivation in the U.S. (Sung & Padilla, 1998) revealed that female students were more motivated to study Asian languages than male students. Concerning reasons for the gender difference, the researchers confessed that “we do not know whether the gender difference can be attributed to a type of socialization... or the fact that all of the teachers in the various FL programs included in this study are female” (p. 215). They concluded, “We are inclined to believe that the advantage of female students in motivation to learn a new language has more to do with gender role modeling than with any female predisposition to learning languages” (p. 215).

As claimed by Ellis (1994), there is a limited body of research focusing on gender in foreign/second language learning. Quantitative studies examining what accounts for
gender differences in learners' attitudes towards foreign/second language learning are almost nonexistent both in Japan and international contexts (for qualitative studies focusing on female immigrants' motivation to learn English in Canada, see Cumming & Gill, 1992; Goldstein, 1995).

**Concept of Doing Gender**

Advocating the incorporation of feminism into linguistic research, Cameron states:

We must criticise explanations of difference that treat gender as something obvious, static and monolithic, ignoring the forces that shape it and the varied forms they take in different times and places. Such explanations are simplistic and pernicious, because whatever their intentions, they tend to end up just like non-feminist research, by giving an academic gloss to commonplace stereotypes and so reinforcing the status quo. (Cameron, 1992, p. 40)

Her critique can be directed toward the conventional SLA research in which gender is used as the ‘fixed’ independent variable and detected gender differences are presented as final results without examining ‘forces’ from other variables. As a consequence, the knowledge about gender obtained from the conventional SLA research remains limited, speculative and stereotypical such as “[men and women] should not be expected to share a common point of view or to adopt a generic set of learning strategies” (Bacon & Finnemann, 1992, p. 491) and “We are inclined to believe that the advantage of female students in motivation to learn a new language has more to do with gender role modeling...” (Sung & Padilla, 1998, p. 215). As in the argument set forth by Cameron, conventional studies seem to be responsible for treating research participants and findings as ‘static and monolithic’ and strengthening gendered stereotypes such as “foreign language learning is a female business” (Loulidi, 1990).
The concept of ‘doing gender’ proposed by West and Zimmerman (1987) is useful in changing the definition and treatment of gender in foreign language attitudinal research. The concept implies that both men and women have multiple, changing identities and actively engage in the on-going process of being themselves while concurrently negotiating with many other variables such as race, class, socio-economic status, age, educational background, etc. (Uchida, 1992). The concept does not simplify women as a homogeneous group against men or a subordinate group under men, which is distinctly different from the biological category, sex, and from some popular gender dichotomous concepts such as ‘women as muted group vs. men as dominant group’ (Kramarae, 1981; Spender, 1980) and ‘women’s culture vs. men’s culture’ (Tannen, 1990; Maltz & Borker, 1982). Claiming gender as an unfixed and socially constructed notion, Cameron (1992) emphatically states, “Gender should never be used as a bottom line explanation because it is a social construction needing explanation itself” (p. 61) (italicized by Cameron).

**Gender Differences in Japanese Students’ Academic and Vocational Choices**

At academically oriented Japanese high schools designed for students wishing to pursue higher education, the students in the second (i.e. middle) and third (i.e. final) grade are enrolled in either liberal arts courses or physical science courses. Students are required to choose which by the end of the first year so that from the second grade they can focus on studying the particular school subjects required by the examination for a university they aim to enter.

A recent survey shows gender differences in students’ academic choices (Benesse Kyouikukennkyuujo, 1996) (Benesse, the name of the company; Kyouikukennkyuujo means ‘educational research institute’). Among 2,358 students (1203 male and 1155...
female) at private high-level academic high schools, 66% of female students chose liberal arts courses while 62% of male students chose physical science courses. Distinct gender differences were also revealed regarding the majors students aim for. It was found that many female students in the liberal arts course planned to major in traditionally female domains such as education (22.1% of the female students in the liberal arts course) and foreign languages (13.1%) while male students in the same liberal arts course opted for male domains such as economics (25.3% of the male students in the liberal arts course) and law (15.1%). Furthermore, female students in the physical science course were found to plan to major in nursing (13.3% of the female students in the physical science course) and pharmacy or education (12.5%) while male students in the course aimed for engineering (53.8% of the male students in the physical science course) and physics (11.9%).

These findings on gender differences in Japanese high school students’ academic choices correspond with the census on Japanese university/college students’ majors. At two-year colleges, human sciences is selected as a major by 28.2 % of all the female students in Japan, followed by home economics (25.6%) and education (16.5%) whereas among male students at two-year colleges, technology was the most popular major (39.1%), followed by social sciences (32.1%) (Fujin Kyouiku Kennkyuukai, 1996; Monbusho, 1996). The census indicates that the same gender differences exist at four-year universities. Majors dominated by men at universities are: technology (men’s representation in the major, 91%), social sciences (76%), physical sciences (75%), medicine/dentistry (69%) and agriculture (61%) whereas majors dominated by women at universities are: home economics (women’s representation in the major, 96%), nursing (71%), art (68%), human sciences (67%), and education (58%) (Nihonn Fujin Danntai Renngoukai, 1998; Monbusho, 1998a). In the area of human sciences at four-year universities the
specialization of literature, foreign languages, and international cultural studies is represented respectively by 67% of female students (Monbusho, 1998a).

According to the census, gender differences exist not only in Japanese university/college students’ choices of majors but also in the types of schools they are enrolled in: although approximately equal numbers of Japanese men and women go to either university or college, nearly 50% of women continue to enter two-year colleges whereas a majority of men proceed to four-year universities (Fujin Kyouiku Kennkyuukai, 1996; Monbusho, 1996).

In part of the survey mentioned earlier (Benesse Kyouikukenkkyuuo, 1998b), more than one thousand students at academically top-level high schools were asked about their perspectives of gender equality in Japan. The finding revealed that a percentage of students who think that Japan is making progress in endorsing gender equality was always lower among female students than male students at any grade: Male 55.6% > Female 41.5 in the first grade, M 52.5 > F 37.2 in the second grade, M 50 > F 29.1 in the third grade. The finding documented that the percentage of female students seeing improvement in gender equality in Japan diminished from 41.5% down to 29.1% as the grade moved up to the final year whereas 50% of male students remained optimistic even in the final grade.

A bitter reality about Japanese working women emerged from a small survey conducted by a major Japanese life insurance firm (Tokyo Seimei Hoken Sougou Gaisha, 1997). The purpose of the survey was to examine OL’s job satisfaction (OL stands for ‘Office Ladies’ and refers to female clerical workers). Three hundred eighty three OL responded to the survey. 87.7% of them were in their twenties or thirties. The survey revealed that English speaking skill and a certificate of Eiken (the most well-known English proficiency test in Japan) were chosen by the largest number of women (53
women; 13.8%) as the most useless skill and certificate for their career as OL. Sixteen women (4.2%) also chose skills gained from overseas stay such as foreign language skills as useless skills for their career.

Those OL noted in the space at the end of the questionnaire that they are considered a disposable workforce, required to do non-technical work for men such as serving tea, photocopying, answering phones and entering data into computers, and expected to resign in a few years and be replaced by new young OL fresh out of college. The respondents expressed their dissatisfaction with the present workplace where, in spite of their investment of time, money and energy in obtaining technical skills, there is no way to utilize those skills such as English skills and certificates.

While revealing the gendered role imposed on young female workers, the study pointed out that OL respondents’ perceptions about professional careers are rather naive and that many of them equate a professional career with possession of a certificate. The study also analyzed that quite a few OL search for a job suitable for a certain certificate they happen to have ('job for certificate') rather than trying to obtain a certificate which leads to a certain job they want to get ('certificate for job') (Tokyo Seimei Hoken Sougou Gaisha, 1997, p. 1083). Those women's fuzziness about careers is reflected also by the fact that many OL, believing in the appealing advertisements of the English language industry, are convinced of the power of English as a way to change their clerical, non-professional jobs into something professional and independent.

Matsui (1997) is a comprehensive research report (in Japanese) on her ten-month feminism ethnographic study conducted at a two-year women's college in Osaka, Japan (see Reinharz, 1992 for a thorough discussion on feminism research in sociology). Her excellent research design, rich semi-structured interview data (more than 600 pages of
transcription), the ideal relationship she established with participants, and her detailed data analyses render this book the most recent distinguished piece of work on Japanese women studying at two-year women’s college. The abundant data, which were obtained from female college students through their voluntary informal conversations with Matsui, brought to light not only the diversity in students’ perceptions but also certain tendencies in those perceptions. Based on the finding that most of the interviewed students wished to go to the U.S. and associated that country with freedom, friendliness, self-expression, high living standards, and equality, Matsui claimed that those students’ ‘naïve recognition of the U.S.’ stems from not only their ‘uncritical admiration for American culture’ but also their distrust in and depression with their Japanese male counterparts who are positioned in the Japanese mainstream culture (p. 213).

Furthermore, Matsui (1995), in an article on gender role perceptions held by Japanese and Chinese female students studying at American universities, claimed that “Japanese women’s marginalized status often allows them greater personal freedom that Japanese men as well as Chinese women cannot afford” (p. 367), enabling Japanese women to leave Japan more easily, and that “My Japanese informants often view study abroad as a maximum extension of such freedom and autonomy” (p. 369).

**Review of Literature on the Japanese Social Context**

**Japanese Educational Settings**

Japan is known as *gakureki shakai*, i.e. an academic background-oriented society where undue value is placed on the names of schools students are enrolled in and graduate
from, rather than what they learn and gain during the schooling (see Amano, 1990 for a comprehensive discussion on examination systems in Japan).

Students are aware of the nature of the Japanese society. For example, in a large-scale survey administered with 1,699 students who were enrolled in high-level academic high schools, 89.1% of them were found to think that gakureki (academic background) has a decisive role and power in the Japanese society (Benesse Kyouikukenkyuujo, 1998b). For those students at examination-directed schools, their parents and teachers, there is no choice but to face the reality and do their best.

In another survey with 1,643 students at academically oriented high schools, 65.7% of them answered that regarding future plans a great deal of time is devoted to the teaching of ways to select the right schools or occupations (Daiichi Gakushusha, 1996). It can be assumed that ‘exit instruction’ and ‘manual instruction’ are rampant at those academic schools in which the aim of instruction regarding life planning is students’ smooth ‘exit’ from high school and successful entrance into post-secondary institutions (p. 213) and the instrument of instruction is a ‘manual’ composed of ranking of universities, types of subjects assessed in university examinations, and each student’s academic record. Students’ motivation to study is measured and evaluated by means of tests and classroom evaluation (Toda, Nakamura, Fujinaga, Miyamoto & Azuma, 1995). As Kage (1995) argues, academic motivation, the term used in educational psychology, is ‘task-directed’ in that students are evaluated in the light of the extent to which they have accomplished required tasks such as classroom activities and tests.

The unchanged reality that students have to learn, memorize, and regurgitate what is contained in prescribed textbooks in order to successfully pass an entrance examination sustains the persistence of ‘banking education’ (Freire, 1983) at Japanese academic high
schools. The orientation of ‘curriculum as technology’ (Eisner, 1979; see Stern, 1990 for discussion of Eisner’s five orientations in language education) is widely favored, focusing “less on the learner or even on his relationship to the material than on the more practical problem of efficiently packaging and presenting the material to him” (Eisner & Vallance, 1974, p. 7).

Fukuzawa (1996) conducted a three-year fieldwork at three average-level public junior high schools in Tokyo. She described one English teacher’s classes at middle school she had observed as those which “epitomize the teacher-centered, text-oriented approach” (p. 298) although she acknowledged that “Not all classes were as completely text-oriented and teacher-centered as this” (p. 299). She provided a detailed illustration of the teacher’s class:

When Okabe-sensei walks into the class a few minutes after the bell has rung, the class slowly quiets down for the opening greeting. A student calls out “Stand up!” and the students rise. “Attention!” he calls, and most students stand straight without talking. “Nakamura, be quiet!” Okabe-sensei reprimands one boy. “Bow!” says the voice. Everyone bows and sits down. As the noise subsides, Okabe-sensei says, “Now take out your textbooks and turn to page 14. Today we will begin Lesson 4. This lesson deals with comparatives and superlatives. In Japanese we use motto (more) and ichiban (the most) plus an adjective to express such differences. Please look at the key sentence at the bottom of the page. ‘I am smaller than a whale,‘ ” he reads. He translates the sentence into Japanese and explains the basic rule for forming English comparatives. “In English you add ‘-er’ to some adjectives to form the comparative. Now let’s listen to the tape.” He plays the tape recorder, and the students repeat the new words and the six sentences of text after the tape recorder as a group.

At the end of the tape he asks who has looked up the meaning of the words for this lesson. “Have you done your lesson preparation? Nakamura, what does ‘ocean’ mean?” The boy quickly turns around to face the front. “You don’t know? I thought so. You’d better prepare next time. Kubo, what about you?” This student is unable to answer either. “Sasaki,” he says, calling on a better student to get the answer. This goes on until the new vocabulary words have been defined. He instructs the students to get out their notebooks and copy what he puts on the board. He puts up the key sentence. Under it he writes “S be (verb) + er than (noun)” and gives a Japanese translation.

“I want you to memorize this sentence.” He repeats the sentence and asks five students to stand up and read it from the book and then another two to repeat it without looking. He seems to call on the less able students to read and better
students to repeat without looking. Next he reads the first sentence and calls on a student to stand and translate it. "Very good," he says of the performance and repeats the translation. The class is very quiet as students write the translation under the English in their books. He continues to call on better students to translate, correcting and supplementing their translations. All students can answer. He then asks two students to read the whole dialogue. Just as the second student begins to read the last sentence, the bell chimes the end of class. Okabe-sensei has him finish reading. The students stand, bow, and class is dismissed. (Fukazawa, 1996, p. 298-299)

**Status of English in Japan**

**English as a subject for entrance examination**

Japanese students learn English for three years at middle school and for another three years at high school. English is the required subject for almost all entrance examinations of public, national and private high schools, two-year colleges, and four-year universities. No matter what kinds of areas students plan to major in at colleges, English is always a required subject for the exams. This system makes English the most important, unavoidable subject for students. *Juken eigo*, the term referring to the English tested in entrance examinations, is very pervasive and commonly used among Japanese people (*juken eigo*; *juken* means ‘taking entrance examinations’ and *eigo* ‘English’). The name implies that there is a particular type of English special for entrance examinations and different from ‘real English.’ *Juken sannkousho*, i.e. reference and exercise books designed for high achievement in daily tests and final entrance examinations, occupy a large space at Japanese bookstores (*sannkousho*; *sannko* means ‘reference’ and *sho* ‘book’).

English entrance examinations are grammar-focused with a limited assessment of listening comprehension and speaking. This traditional characteristic is the root of dominance of grammar-oriented English classes at Japanese three-year junior high schools and three-year high schools. Private entrance examination preparation schools called *juku,*
often translated as ‘cram school,’ provide exam-oriented lessons and help students cope with competitive entrance examinations. It is a shared understanding in Japan that *juku*, especially nation-wide cram schools with numerous branches throughout Japan, offer the most rigorous teaching geared solely toward entrance examinations. The ultimate teaching of *juken eigo* (English for entrance examinations) is a common practice at those cram schools as well as competitive academic high schools.

**English as an international language**

Large numbers of Japanese people are involved in some form of English study. Children, students, housewives, business people, senior citizens, and many other people are studying English even though most of them do not have imminent, specific needs to study English. What motivates them to study English is the Japanese social perception that English is an international language and that they need to study English to become ‘internationalized.’ Studying English is equated with widely and vaguely used terms such as ‘internationalization’ and ‘cross-cultural understanding.’ English proficiency is sometimes considered as a qualification for becoming ‘international people.’

The media and English language industry take advantage of this internationalization obsession among the Japanese people and use English more than necessary to make their messages sound internationalized. This commercially manipulated use of English and English-like words is so penetrating that some sociolinguists overseas equate the use of English in Japan with Singaporean English or Indian English and coin the term ‘Japanese English’ (Haarmann, 1984; Stanlaw, 1987; 1992). The Japanese industry’s one-way transmission of English and pseudo-English words to customers and the extensive representation of English words in the Japanese consumer market, however, should be
clearly differentiated from 'Singaporean English' and 'Indian English' which function as a daily language among local people (Kachru, 1982; 1983). Nevertheless, the salient pervasiveness of English in the traditionally homogeneous, monolingual Japanese society has given rise to heated discussion on 'English imperialism in Japan.' Tsuda, a leading figure in this circle, for example, coining the term 'Japlish,' contributed the following emphatic article to a Canadian national newspaper:

The Japanese craze for English is reaching epidemic proportions. Disc jockeys on FM radio talk in English. Satellite broadcasting is crowded with U. S. programs. Shops and products bear English names. Companies spell their names in English. Even government documents are sprinkled with English words. This English mania is nothing short of a disease. Indeed, Anglomania, or obsession with English, is so prevalent that the Japanese use the language even when they don’t have to. The result is linguistic chaos. The root of Anglomania is the ideology of English linguistic imperialism: the belief that everyone should be able to speak or use English because it is the key international language. The Japanese are going along with this dogma (Tsuda, 1997).

**English as the U.S. language**

During World War Two English was condemned and strictly prohibited as 'a devil language' by the Japanese militaristic government. English textbooks were burned. English teachers were dismissed. English loanwords were all replaced with Chinese characters. After the war the English language suddenly became the symbol of democracy and the once abolished English education gained dramatic momentum as a bridge to American democracy and the most advanced knowledge and technology of the U.S.

Now English is the dominant foreign language in Japan. Due to the strong historical, political, economic, and cultural ties between the United States and Japan, English is strongly associated with the U.S. and its culture. American English is the norm both in
educational and non-educational settings. Most public and private secondary schools, which provide English education as de facto the only foreign language, adopt American English as the target model. Research shows that most Japanese students have a strong preference for ‘standard’ American English, tend to reject other varieties of English as a deviation from the norm, and do not see their Japanese teachers of English as a potential learning model (Baxter, 1980; Matsuura, 1993; Shimizu, 1995). Suzuki (1995) discusses the obsession with American English among young Japanese people who consider American English as the only ‘right’ English and Americans as the only ‘real’ native English speakers. Although many Japanese associate English with internationalization, the association does not necessarily include tolerance of the varieties of English accents (Kachru, 1982).

**English as a foreign language**

In spite of the overwhelming popularity of English in Japan, its status as a foreign language has never changed. The number of Japanese people who attain an intermediate or higher level of English proficiency is limited. Visitors from overseas have a hard time finding a Japanese person on a street who can handle simple English. The notion of ‘Japanese English’ emerged out of disregard of the fact that most receivers of ‘Japanese English’ hardly understand the English messages.

Japanese is always the dominant language for education, daily communication, and economic activities in Japan. Those who lack Japanese proficiency are a limited number of foreign workers, international students, immigrants, Japanese children called returnees who return to Japan after a long stay abroad because of their fathers’ business (rarely mothers’), and so on. The nature of this monolingual society accords English proficiency
and English-speaking people some special, complex images. Those images range from positive ones such as internationalized, professional, intelligent, and fashionable to negative images such as non-Japanese and foreign. These multiple images are so ideologically intricate that several different images are often attached to English speakers. Japanese people who have high English proficiency often encounter not only benefits (e.g. job opportunities) but also discrimination (e.g. linguistic discrimination and physical alienation) because of their ‘deviation’ from Japaneseness.

**English Education in Japan: Official Policy and Actual Teaching**

Japan’s Ministry of Education promulgates the overall objective of English education at middle schools in Japan as “To develop students’ abilities to understand a foreign language and express themselves in it, to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it, and to heighten interest in language and culture, deepening international understanding” (Monbusho, 1993). The objective consists of three components: 1) English proficiency, 2) attitudes toward English learning, and 3) cross-cultural understanding. This official objective of English education places emphasis on communicative skills, “international understanding from a broad perspective” and “students’ awareness as Japanese citizens living in the global community” (Monbusho, 1989).

As Stenhouse (1975) states, “The central problem of curriculum study is the gap between our ideas and aspirations and our attempts to operationalize them” (p. 3). In the area of second language education, Strevens (1978) also recognizes that educational objectives tend to be idealistic. Referring specifically to the Japanese context, Imura (1995) calls the gap between the officially stated, well-balanced objective and the reality of
grammar-focused, entrance examination-based English education a "double-standard."

Examining the same context of English education in Japan, LoCastro (1996) calls the gap "the mismatch between imported terminology and the reality of the situation" (p. 46) and states "... despite the laudable intentions, the curriculum remains content-oriented - specifically grammar-oriented - paying only lip service to communicative skills" (p. 44).

He then discusses several Japanese social elements to which the gap can be attributed:

1. Japanese English teachers' lack of English proficiency
2. Lack of teacher education
3. The written examination for English teaching certificates which does not test applicants' achievement of a professional level of English proficiency
4. The absolute power accorded to the Ministry of Education for curriculum development (i.e. no implementation of needs analyses at classroom level in collaboration with teachers)
5. The status of English as the requirement for almost all entrance examinations for high schools and universities, which exams are composed of grammar-oriented, written questions
6. The Japanese entrance examination system as a main financial source for private universities, publishers, private examination preparation schools (juke or cram schools) and other examination-related industry
7. The role of education in promoting Japanese nationalism
8. The nature of the Japanese society which attaches high value to a diploma from prestigious universities as a ticket to a successful life
9. The subsidiary position of the Ministry of Education and its staff under the Japanese government which is internationally known for its resistance to reform.
Einser (1979) divides the curriculum into three types: explicit, implicit, and null curricula. In the explicit curriculum for English education in Japan there seems to be an overall consensus on the importance of development of fundamental English proficiency and international understanding. The JET program (Japan Exchange and Teaching Program) was launched in 1987 in order to provide Japanese students with opportunities to communicate with native English speaking teachers during English classes. The number of ALT (assistant language teachers) from the U.S., Canada, Australia, England, and other English-speaking countries who participated in the program in 1998 reached 4,815 (Akao, Arai, Ito, Sato, Shimizu & Yaosaka, 1998, p. 281). Furthermore, the introduction of English education into the upper grades of elementary schools was decreed. Currently, experimental teaching is taking place at some public elementary schools under the supervision of the Ministry of Education.

These reforms and experiments launched by the Ministry of Education, however, have not reached the deep level of the implicit curriculum. Japanese academic high schools cannot function without Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) who are devoted to motivating students to study English for successful performance in entrance examinations. The teachers play an active role, consciously or unconsciously, in transmitting the 'implicit curriculum' and its message that learning how to speak English is not part of the exams and not as important as learning grammar. For example, ALTs (assistant language teachers), whose primary role is to do team-teaching with a JTE and act as a facilitator for students’ communicative activities in English, often find themselves left alone by Japanese English teachers. One of those ALTs says:

I am also frustrated of the lack of feedback from my JTEs who have more experience than I. I expect them to tell me directly if they are not satisfied with
something I'm doing in class, but often any complaints felt by a JTE are not told to me at all or until many weeks have passed. I sincerely want to cooperate and make our team teaching situation as comfortable as possible! (Oosumi, 1997, p. 35)

Some JTEs simply do not do team-teaching with ALTs. They stay in their offices while inexperienced ALTs struggle in a classroom. Naturally, given JTEs’ lack of commitment to team-teaching and the trivial percent of grading assigned to participation in English classes with ALTs, students quickly perceive those English classes as a sidestudy.

Rohlen (1983) documents his fieldwork at Japanese high schools. In the book Rohlen briefly described one student at a nationally top high school who spent one year in the U.S. as an American Field Service Exchange Student, came back to Japan with an excellent spoken English skill, but forgot some of the knowledge requisite for exams. The student consequently slid from being a strong candidate for Tokyo University, a top university in Japan, and had to do an extra year to compensate for “the time “wasted” abroad” (p. 26). Imagining what teachers at the top high school would think about the student, Rohlen notes that those teachers’ feeling about the student might be something like, “Spoken English, to begin with, is not on the university entrance examinations, and nothing the boy would learn during a year in an American high school would be of any help, either” (p. 26).

Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyoukai (it reads ‘Japan English assessment association’), the most influential English testing association in Japan in charge of administering the most popular English proficiency test of different levels called eiken, conducted a nation-wide survey with 2,168 high school teachers of English (Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyoukai, 1996). The survey found that many teachers were aware of problems with the present English education and were concerned about the way English is assessed in entrance examinations. It was found that 72.5% of the teachers think that undue emphasis was placed on English in
entrance examinations and that 61.2 % found questions on English examinations inappropriate. Reasons for the inappropriateness provided by teachers are as follows:

(1) 'Few listening and speaking questions' (283 frequencies)
(2) 'Too difficult' (280)
(3) 'Few questions on practical use of English' (132)
(4) 'Too many questions on obsolete use of English' (54)
(5) 'Too specific' (50)
(6) 'Too many questions on grammar' (43)
(7) 'Too much reading and translation' (27).

English Study for Japanese High School Students

Relatively large-scale survey reports about Japanese high school students' perceptions about English learning are available in Japanese. The English Education Program, Department of Education, Hiroshima University conducted an equivalent survey four times since 1966 with thousands of different Japanese high school students each time as independent samples (Matsuura, Nishimoto, Ikeda, Kaneshige, Ito, & Miura, 1997). The students were chosen from the population of all the high school students in Japan by stratified sampling (with the ratio of gender and types of schools taken into account). The survey consisted of thirty-one 5-point Likert scale items and additional questions on students' personal English learning activities. In the stage of data analysis, the 5-point Likert scale was converged into three categories: positive, neutral, and negative responses.

According to some of the results, more than 70 % of the surveyed students in 1966 were found to think that they did not have to study English because of: (1) the availability
of foreign books in Japanese translation (Item No. A4), (2) no need of English in their daily lives (A11), and (3) the ownership of Japanese as their own language (A16). However, the percentages for each item steadily decreased from 70% in 1966 to 45-56% in 1996 over the three decades (A4: 49.3%; A11: 45.1%; A16: 56.7%). In addition, the percentage of students who believed that English should be studied only by those who need English in the future dropped from 63.8% in 1966 to 25.7% in 1996. These results from the four items reflect the thirty-year transition of the status of English in Japan from a special language for the elite to the most popular global language for ordinary Japanese people.

It was also found that students’ positive perceptions about eigo gakushuu, i.e. studying English as a school subject (at school, home, cram school, etc.), were consistently low. For instance, the percentages of students who find eigo gakushuu interesting were in order in 1966, 1976, 1988, 1996: 31%, 25.3%, 22.3%, and 23.8%. The percentages of students who like eigo gakushuu showed a gradual decline from 37.8% in 1966 to 26.5% in 1996. These results show students’ consistently low satisfaction with and uncertainty of English instruction, which has continuously focused on grammar and translation.

The double status of English for Japanese high school students as the most popular, international foreign language and as a main school subject was revealed in another survey conducted by the research institute affiliated with a Japanese major educational industry (Benesse Kyouikukenkyuujo, 1998a). The study involved 1,718 students at five private university preparatory high schools. The study found that English was chosen as the most useful subject outside the school context by 46% of the total students, followed by home economics (19.6%) and social studies (12.5%). English was also chosen as the most
important subject for entrance examinations by 54.3% of the students, followed by math (34.2%).

The survey also revealed that recognizing the significant social value in English skills, almost all students took a critical view of English instruction at school: 93% were found to think that English instruction would not enable them to speak English. Instead of calling for reform, however, 61% of the first-year students expressed their demand that English classes cater specifically to entrance examinations with more grammatical exercises. The percentage of second-year students with this demand rose to 80%. This strong demand for examination preparatory teaching reflects academically motivated students’ strong recognition of the reality that English is the only school subject required for almost all types of entrance examinations, regardless of kinds of universities, levels, and majors. The findings also clearly reveal that entrance examinations and goal-focused English education play an important part in Japanese academic high school students’ lives and futures.

Relevance of the Reviewed Literature to the Research Questions of This Study

As mentioned previously, the four research questions in this study are as follows:

(1) What factors influence Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning?

(2) Is there a relationship between students’ academic performance in grammar-oriented English education at Japanese academic high schools and those students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning?

(3) Is there a relationship between Japanese high school students’ self-rated English skills and their attitudes toward long-term English learning?
(4) Do gender differences exist in Japanese high school students' attitudes toward English learning? If so, what factors account for the gender differences?

The reviewed literature on L2 motivation and attitudes is fundamentally relevant to all the questions: the literature review led to the construction of the theoretical framework of this study (drawn from Gardner's socio-educational model) and to the focus of this study on the relation between social milieu and language attitudes. The reviewed literature on the Japanese social context is also relevant to all the research questions: the literature review facilitated the identification of specific independent variables assumed to influence the dependent variable of this study, Japanese students' attitudes toward long-term English learning (to be listed at the end of this section).

The aim of research question 1 is to identify variables which have profound influences on Japanese academic high school students' attitudes toward their future plan of continuing to study English after graduation from high school. Because of the literature on the Japanese social context (particularly the literature on English study for Japanese high school students), variables such as students' perceptions about studying English in a school context, students' interest in communicating in English, and English test scores will be treated in this study as independent variables. The literature on the concept of continuity of learning experience is also relevant to this research question 1 because it examines the relation between students' perceptions about their current English learning in a school context and their attitudes toward long-term English study.

The research questions 2 and 3 focus on, respectively students' self-reported academic English grade and their self-rated English skills. The aim of those questions is to examine each variable's relation with students' attitudes toward long-term English learning.
The literature on L2 motivation and attitudes and the literature on the Japanese social context are relevant to these two questions in that the comparative examination of those two types of literature led to the specification of the two research questions. On the one hand, the literature on L2 motivation and attitudes presupposes that L2 grade represents L2 proficiency. On the other hand, the literature on the Japanese social context (particularly the literature on English education in Japan and the literature on English study for Japanese high school students) suggests that while Japanese university-bound high students are concerned with grammar-based English academic grade, many of them do not think that it represents their L2 proficiency.

Research question 4 examines gender as one of the main variables in the Japanese social milieu. The literature on gender differences in attitudes toward learning L2 and the literature on gender differences in Japanese students’ academic and vocational choices are relevant to this research question. The literature on the concept of doing gender is also relevant to this question which addresses not only gender differences themselves but also Japanese social backgrounds for gender by referring to previous studies on Japanese women.

In terms of variables, the literature review led to the isolation of the following variables relevant to this thesis:

- Attitudes toward long-term English learning (mainly from the literature on L2 motivation and attitudes and on the concept of continuity of learning experience)

- Interest in culture and communication in English (mainly from the literature on L2 motivation and attitudes and on the Japanese social context,
particularly on the status of English in Japan and on English study for Japanese high school students)

- Perceptions about studying English in a school context (mainly from the literature on the concept of continuity of learning experience and on the Japanese social context, particularly on English study for Japanese high school students)

- Images associated with English, English role models, and exposure to English (mainly from the literature on the Japanese social context, particularly on the status of English in Japan)

- Academic English grade, English four skills, and English learning activities outside school (mainly from the literature on L2 motivation and attitudes and on the Japanese social context, particularly on English education in Japan and on English study for Japanese high school students)

- Gender (from the literature on gender differences in attitudes toward learning L2 and on the concept of doing gender)

- Choice of English as a major (from the literature on gender differences in Japanese students’ academic and vocational choices)
Chapter Three: Research Method

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The four research questions of this thesis and corresponding hypotheses are as follows:

(1) What factors influence Japanese academic high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning?

Drawing its theoretical framework from Gardner’s socio-educational model, this study hypothesizes the relation between Japanese social milieu and Japanese students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning. More specifically, it is hypothesized that Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward their future plan of continuing to study English after graduation from high school are significantly influenced by their current English learning experience at school, their association of English with something valuable (e.g. internationalization, job opportunities) and their interest in culture and communication in English. This hypothesis is based on not only Gardner’s socio-educational model but also the reviewed literature concerned with the impact of students’ current learning experience upon their future learning activities, the pervasive association of English with internationalization and American culture in Japan, and students’ awareness of the usefulness of English for their future.

(2) Is there a relationship between students’ academic performance in grammar-oriented English education at Japanese academic high schools and those students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning? (Students’ academic English performance is operationalized as students’ self-reported English grade, which is based on the written
tests they have taken at high school; the coding for this variable will be described in the next chapter).

This study hypothesizes that there is a moderate relationship between students’ (self-reported) English academic grade and attitudes toward their future plan of studying English. This hypothesis is based on the two kinds of reviewed literature, first on the SLA motivation/attitudes research which documents the relation between L2 learning motivation/attitudes and L2 achievement and, second on the English education at Japanese high schools which suggest that many of the students do not think that English achievement (grade) at school represents their L2 proficiency, i.e. the composite of their four English skills.

(3) Is there a relationship between Japanese high school students’ self-rated English skills and their attitudes toward long-term English learning? (Students’ self-rated English skills are operationalized as students’ self-reported overall ability to speak, write, read and understand English; the coding for this variable will be described in the next chapter).

This study hypothesizes that students’ self-assessment of their English skills has an influence on their attitudes toward long-term English learning. Related to the second research question, this hypothesis is based on the reviewed literature on SLA motivation/attitudes research which documents the relation between L2 learning motivation/attitudes and L2 achievement (four skills).

(4) Do gender differences exist in Japanese academic high school students’ attitudes toward English learning? If so, what factors account for the gender differences?
This study hypothesizes that gender differences exist in Japanese academic high school students' attitudes toward English learning, based on the reviewed literature which repeatedly shows women's positive attitude toward foreign language learning and their persistent choice of traditionally female domains such as foreign languages and education as a major.

Furthermore, based on the literature on gender differences in academic and occupational choices and specifically on the social status of Japanese women, it is hypothesized that Japanese students' attitudes toward learning English are influenced by Japanese gendered social and cultural elements such as the marginalized status of women and English as a popular academic and occupational choice for women. The term English major at either a four-year university or two-year college is defined broadly in this thesis as university/college specialized courses which require students to focus on English-related study such as literature, linguistics, communication, cultural and regional studies, and language education (see Gakenn, 1998 for the list and brief description of those courses.)

**Population of the Study**

The population of the study is Japanese high school students at academically oriented high schools designed for students' successful entrance into post-secondary institutions. The choice of the students enrolled in academic schools, excluding students at night schools and technical schools (e.g. agricultural, engineering, commercial, fishery high schools), was made in accordance with the purpose of the present study, which is concerned with influences of the university preparatory school context upon students' attitudes toward long-term English learning. Another related reason for the choice is that those academic high school students are likely to encounter more opportunity and necessity
to learn and use English in the future than others whose education ends at high school. My familiarity with the context is the other reason for the choice of the population.

There is a wide range of academic-oriented high schools in Japan, varying in academic level, size, location, management (national, public, private, etc.), affiliation with other levels of schools (such as elementary school and university), religious affiliation, co-ed or not, strictness of school rules and so on. In terms of academic level, the range extends from half-technical schools where more than a half of the students start to work after graduation to extremely competitive, top private schools often affiliated with junior high schools where students are provided with consistent, highest-level education to aim for the most prestigious universities (see Rohlen, 1983, especially Chapter 1, for an excellent ethnographic description of five different types of high schools in a major city, Kobe, from a well-known top academic high school and an average academic school, to a night technical school; also see Okano, 1992, for another popular ethnographic study of academically low-level, vocational schools in Japan; see Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999 for the latest comprehensive critical book on Japanese education, including academic high schools).

This study targets futsu (‘non-technical’) kyougaku (‘co-ed’) kouritu (‘public’) high schools, i.e. academically directed, co-ed public high schools where a majority of students aim to go to varying levels of post-secondary institutions. In those school settings where the sample of the present study is enrolled, it is shared knowledge among students, parents and teachers that English is the primary school subject required for all kinds of university entrance examinations, regardless of types of universities, colleges, departments, majors, and levels. At those academic-focused schools English is taught in a traditional teacher-centered, textbook-based teaching mode with a focus on grammar, vocabulary,
reading and translation-mediated composition, which are all essential knowledge for successful performance in university entrance examinations and entry into post-secondary institutions.

Regarding the actual size of the population, the size of the accessible population of this thesis (i.e. realistic choice) is the students enrolled in academic, co-ed, public high schools located in the prefecture where the two present research schools are located. According to the census (Monbusho, 1998b), the number of the students is 15,896 (=male 7,770 + female 8,126). The target population of this thesis (i.e. its ideal choice) is students enrolled in academic, co-ed, public high schools in Japan. The size of the population is 2,020,341 students (=male 965,418 + female 1,054,923) (Monbusho, 1998b) (see Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996 for the differentiation of target and accessible population). The appropriateness of participants of this study as its sample, i.e. a part of the population will be discussed later.

**Pilot Study**

**Purpose of the Pilot Study**

The pilot study was conducted at two high schools located in the central part of Japan. The purpose of the pilot study was to examine the appropriateness of the research settings, to check the validity and reliability of a structured questionnaire developed for the final study, to make necessary modifications to it, and to gain a better understanding of the research settings. The instrument was evaluated not only statistically but also qualitatively based on the data obtained from interviews with teachers and a semi-structured questionnaire administered to students. A research report on the pilot study was compiled and submitted to teachers and school administration in May 1998.
Interviews With Teachers: Inside the Research Settings

During interviews with teachers, it was confirmed that public school teachers are regularly relocated to different schools throughout their teaching careers and consequently gain accumulated knowledge about an extensive school district. The interviewed teachers’ knowledge about the school district where the present research schools were located contributed to the better understanding of not only inside the school settings but also the broader school district.

The interviews with the teachers also confirmed the busy schedule at academically oriented schools. Numerous daily tasks required of the teachers are to: develop semester tests, mark them, analyze students’ performance in each of the tests, monitor students’ academic performance and motivation, provide difficult students with appropriate personal counseling, have meetings with colleagues at least once a day, organize ‘three party meetings’ in which a classroom teacher privately provides to each student and his/her parent an individualized evaluation of the student’s performance, develop English exercises for next day’s classes, print out those exercises, teach classes, deal with salespeople from the educational industry, examine new teaching textbooks, negotiate with other colleagues about the purchase of materials, keep abreast of changing educational policies handed down by the Ministry of Education, etc. In addition to these classroom- and teaching-related duties the teachers are also responsible for extra-curricular activities such as school festivals and overnight school trips, etc.

The busy school curriculum affects students as well as teachers. The students are challenged to manage time efficiently in order to cope with numerous school activities. The
intensity increases as the grade goes up, reaching the maximum level at the second and last semester of the final grade, right before the entrance examinations.

Reflecting the intensity of the schedule at those schools, during negotiations with the teachers concerning the way the pilot and final studies were to be conducted under their supervision, they requested that the questionnaire be short enough to be completed within twenty or thirty minutes. They also requested that the questionnaire be delivered to them as soon as the final version was ready so that they could have the whole set in hand, look for a day when thirty minutes could be spared, and administer the questionnaire once the day was identified.

Instrument 1: Structured Questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire was conducted with 80 second-grade students in March 1998 during English classes. Thirty-four male students and forty-six female students at the age of either 16 or 17 participated in the study. Twenty-four items on a 6-point Likert scale (from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’) were subjected to factor analysis. Five interpretable factors were extracted:

(1) **Experiences with English Study** (4 items; alpha = 0.84) (e.g. “I have had many bad experiences with English study,” “I like to study English”)

(2) **Perceptions about Studying Juken Eigo** (5 items; alpha = 0.77) (e.g. “What I am studying as juken eigo will be of no use in the future,” “There are some interesting parts in studying juken eigo”) (juken eigo ‘English assessed in entrance examinations)
(3) Association of English with Femininity and Intelligence (3 items; alpha = 0.71) (e.g. "I associate English-related occupations with women," "Professions involving the use of English sound intelligent")

(4) Interest in Learning about Foreign Cultures and Communicating with People (6 items; alpha = 0.79) (e.g. "I am interested in learning about English speaking regions and their culture," "I want to communicate with many people in English")

(5) Association of English with Internationalization (6 items; alpha = 0.82) (e.g. "English proficiency is important for the internationalization of Japan," "I need to study English since it is the era of internationalization.")

The third factor, Association of English with Femininity and Intelligence, correlated with none of the other four factors while the first factor, Experiences with English Study, correlated with all other factors except for the third factor, Association of English with Femininity and Intelligence.

Instrument II: Semi-structured Questionnaire

The semi-structured questionnaire was conducted with 40 first-grade students (at the age of either 15 or 16) and 26 second-grade students (at the age of either 16 and 17) at the middle of April in 1998. The first-grade students responded to the questionnaire during an English class and the second-grade students at home. Gender distribution was relatively equal among students in each grade. Because of the time constraint in the first-grade English class, both the questionnaire and the forty students were divided into two, creating two sets of shorter questionnaires (respectively consisting of three different questions and one identical question) and two groups (respectively, 21 and 19 students). Each group
responded to one of the two questionnaires. Twenty-six second-grade students responded to six questions, excluding one question which was answered by all the first-grade students.

The questionnaire was designed to elicit students' perceptions about studying English at school for entrance examinations and about Japanese people's attitudes toward English. The questions were presented not as structured ones but rather as opening statements on which respondents make their own arguments with different positions (pro, con, neutral, etc.). The students were asked to write down their thoughts regarding those questions in Japanese (thus, all the questions in the questionnaire and actual responses from students presented in this section are in the English translation; the orders of questions were changed for the convenience of discussion in this section).

**Question 1**: Why are you studying English now? Is the entrance examination (*juken*) the only reason? Do you think you would have not studied English if it were not *juken kamoku* (a subject required for *juken*)? (47 respondents = 21 first-grade students + 26 second-grade students)

Thirteen students answered that they were studying English mainly or solely because it is required for *juken*. Some of them provided reasons why they were studying English for the sake of *juken*:

Because we cannot speak English even though we studied it [for a long time] at junior high school and high school.

Because I just need to speak a bit of English when I travel overseas, and I do not want to learn complicated grammar.

When I was a kid and was taking English lessons I enjoyed them more than anything else. But now I feel differently about studying English.
In contrast to those students, six students stated that they would have studied English even if it were not a *juken* subject:

I think I would have studied English even if it were not a *juken* subject because I like English, it is the era of internationalization, and it is good for me to learn English.

I have never thought that I am studying English for the sake of *juken*. English is the language spoken by people around the world, so I can communicate with them if I can speak English.

It is fun to be able to speak with foreigners. I think we can benefit from knowing English even if it were not a *juken* subject.

Reasons for studying English now other than that it is required for *juken* are tallied as follows:

1. Because we are living in an international society and international era (21 students)
2. Because I want to communicate with foreigners (11)
3. Because I need English in order to go overseas (8)
4. Because I like English (7)
5. Because I will need English for my career (4)
6. Because I want to improve my English (4).

These findings indicate that many students study English not just because English is a major *juken* subject and they have to study it but also because of some other reasons. The opposite opinion was expressed by some other students who thought that they would not have studied English so hard or on their own if it were not a school subject or a *juken* subject.
Question 2: What do you think of studying *juken eigo* (a type of English assessed in entrance examinations)? Do you think *juken eigo* is different from *eigo* (English in general)? Do you think the English you are learning now will not be useful in the future when you need to use English? (47 respondents = 21 first-grade students + 26 second-grade students)

Three students stated that *juken eigo* and *eigo* are the same and that they were not thinking of studying the specific English, *juken eigo*. On the contrary, one student wrote, “It is natural that two kinds of English [*juken eigo* and *eigo*] are different because the purposes are different.” On the whole, a majority of students were found to differentiate *juken eigo* from *eigo* and placed different values on *juken eigo*.

Fourteen students were found to conceive *juken eigo* as “a part of *eigo*” and positively regard English study at school as a good time to build up the basic grammatical knowledge and foundation of their English proficiency:

I think what we are learning at school is useful. *Juken eigo* is a part of *eigo* and [*juken eigo’s*] grammar is useful for learning conversations or correct English [usage].

I think *juken eigo* is also important because there are times when English we have studied at school turns out to be helpful.

I think *juken eigo* is useful. I am learning the basics of *eigo* and I feel more confident in speaking English a little.

Some say that the English we learn at school cannot be used overseas. But I think if we do not know the basics of English, there is no way to be able to use English in the first place.
Many other students (23 students), however, were found to conceive *juken eigo* as of little use for speaking English (*eigo*) because of the *juken eigo*’s focus on grammar and writing. Their critical perceptions about *juken eigo*, however, range from a strong rejection of *juken eigo* as of no use at all to a modest evaluation of the writing and reading aspects of *juken eigo*:

*Juken eigo* is of no practical use. We cannot speak English and we can only write something on a piece of paper. I am very sure that *juken eigo* is useless.

I think *juken eigo* is, although not totally, not so useful. When we communicate with other people, ‘conversation’ is more important than ‘writing.’ Although grammar is important, I still think that [spoken] language is more useful.

*Juken eigo* might be useful for reading and writing English, but not so much for conversations.

I do not think [*juken eigo*] is totally useless because we cannot speak if we do not know grammar and such.

I do not think *Juken eigo* is not useful. But when I went to Canada and tried to speak, it seems I was composing what I wanted to say as sentences [as I do as English composition during classes] first and then producing them from my mouth. In my opinion, *juken eigo* focuses on writing whereas real *eigo* is well balanced in reading, listening, writing and speaking.

**Question 3:** Do you think the English education you have received so far has been influencing how you think of English? For example, did English classes at school ever make you dislike English itself? Or did you ever become interested in English speaking culture because of English classes you took? (45 respondents = 19 first-grade students + 26 second-grade students)
This question generated many types of responses from students not only about their experiences with English study at school but also about their personal English learning activities outside school. Regarding experiences with English classes or those effects upon students’ perceptions about learning English, nine students stated that they came to dislike English or could not enjoy English classes any more because the classes were too difficult to understand or involved too much grammar and memorization. Sixteen students mentioned positive effects of English classes upon their English learning experience: (1) the development of interests in communicating with foreigners, visiting foreign countries, and learning more about foreign cultures (English speaking culture) (9 students), (2) the development of interests in English language or the awareness of the importance of English (4 students), and (3) being able to communicate with native English teachers (3 students).

Regarding effects of personal English learning activities outside school upon students’ perceptions about English, six students noted that positive experiences with using or understanding English during overseas trips, on streets, or when watching TV helped them become more positively involved in English study. Two students noted that the private English lessons they had received when they were children helped them become interested in learning English.

Concerning negative experiences with English activities outside school, two students wrote that they were shocked at their limited ability to speak English in spite of the amount of time they had spent in learning English. Another two students expressed their irritation at people who take for granted the notion of ‘English is an international language.’ They wrote:

It makes me mad that Americans speak English in Japan with no hesitation while Japanese people speak English in the U.S.
I feel like arguing against so many people who regard English as an international language and are saying 'English is important in this society.'

Five students answered that English classes have had no particular influences on their perceptions about English study. Two of them wrote that the reason was because they always liked English and English classes had not changed that positive perception.

**Question 4:** How are you feeling about studying English in general? What kinds of English learning activities make you feel that way? (47 respondents = 21 first-grade students + 26 second-grade students)

Six students noted that they could sense the benefit of learning English when communicating with people overseas, on the streets, or during private English lessons. A majority of students, however, only mentioned English learning activities at school or at home. This result implies that most students study English only as a school subject or *juken* subject and hardly get involved in other English learning activities on their own outside school.

Thirteen students noted that they came to dislike English study because of some English learning activities at school (complicated grammar, 6 students; listening tasks, 2; translation from English into Japanese, 2; memorization of new words, 2; interpretation of English passages, 1). Seventeen students, however, were found to feel happy about studying English during English classes or personal English study at home because that is the time when they are able to:

1. communicate with native English teachers (6 students)
understand written or spoken English sentences (5 students)

(3) understand grammar and sentence structure or translate English sentences into Japanese well (3 students)

(4) catch connotations of English words (by referring to English dictionaries) (3 students)

These responses suggest that English learning tasks during English classes have influenced students' perceptions about English study differently. For example, the task of comprehending new English grammar imparted a sense of challenge and accomplishment to some students while the same task resulted in a sense of frustration in other students.

**Question 5:** Do you think you want to continue to study English after you graduate from high school? Why do you think so? (45 respondents = 19 first-grade students + 26 second-grade students)

Thirty-nine students answered that they wanted to continue to study English even after they graduated from high school. Reasons given by those who felt positive about continuing to study English were similar to their reasons for studying English now at school except that it is required for juken (see Question 1). Their need to master English in the era of internationalization and aspiration to communicate with many people were mentioned by many students as their reasons for continuing to study English. Only five students stated that they would quit studying English upon their graduating from high school. Those five reasons are:

(1) "Because I came to dislike English halfway when I was in the third grade at junior high school [at the age of 14 or 15]."
(2) “Because what I am learning at high school will do for communication with foreigners.”

(3) “Because what I am learning at school will be enough even when I go overseas.”

(4) “Because I hate to study.”

(5) “Because I will not use English in the future and I do not feel like using it.”

The students’ responses to Question 4 indicates that a majority of students are relatively positive about continuing to study English after they graduate from high school. This result suggests that most students will reply positively to modestly worded Likert-scale items, implying the need to create and include in the final questionnaire more strongly worded and more specific items on students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning.

**Question 6:** It is often said in Japan that ‘English is important for internationalization’ and ‘It is cool to be able to speak English fluently.’ Why do you think many people think this way? Where do you think these perceptions stem from? (45 respondents = 19 first-grade students + 26 second-grade students)

Regarding the first perception, ‘English is important for internationalization,’ many students attributed the pervasiveness of the perception to: the status of English as a global language and benefits from mastering the language (13 students), the need for Japan to be connected to the outside global community (11 students), and the power of the U.S. (6 students).
As for the similarly pervasive perception, 'It is cool [for non-native speakers] to speak English fluently,' no students interpreted the perception as a fashion-consciousness or snobbery. Rather, many students were found to think that the perception stemmed from Japanese people’s recognition of the enormous difficulty in achieving high L2 proficiency and the limited number of Japanese who can speak English fluently (11 students). Four students assumed that the pervasiveness is due to Japanese people’s admiration for those who can communicate with foreigners efficiently in a foreign language. Some responses provided by students are as follows:

Because handling a language other than the first language so well is not what everybody can do.

It is natural to admire people who can do what most people cannot do.

It is purely ‘cool’ to be able to communicate with people overseas effectively and understand each other because we are usually living in different countries across the ocean.

Because it is often the case that even the ten-year English study does not make you such a fluent English speaker.

**Question 7:** What occupations occur to you when you hear ‘English-related occupations’?

Please list all the occupations which come to your mind. (Respondents: 40 first-grade students)

Almost all students listed ‘interpreter’ (35 students). Approximately forty percent of the students mentioned ‘flight attendant’ (17) and ‘English teacher’ (15) (‘English teacher’ does not include positions at university level).
Learning From the Pilot Study

The pilot study generated new knowledge about the present research topic and useful information for designing the final study. First, the importance of Japanese students’ perceptions about learning English in a school context and the need to increase related items in the final questionnaire were suggested from the results that two factors concerned with those perceptions were extracted and that the diversity in those perceptions was confirmed in the semi-structured questionnaire.

Secondly, it was learned from the semi-structured questionnaire that the students’ images associated with English (e.g. internationalization) and with its speakers (e.g. admiration for native-like English speakers) were grounded in their perceptions of English in the Japanese context (e.g. the need for Japan to be tied to the outside world community). This finding suggested the importance of sufficiently taking into account the Japanese social context in order to understand Japanese students’ perceptions about English learning.

The third suggestion was concerned with the association of English with femininity. On the one hand, the analysis of this factor, which consisted of three items, indicated an acceptable variance in the students’ association of English with femininity (e.g. in the case of one of the items, “English-related occupations remind me of women’s work,” 3.8% of the students chose ‘strongly agree’; 10.0% ‘moderately agree’; 41.3% ‘agree’; 20.0% ‘disagree’; 15.0% ‘moderately disagree’; 10.0% ‘strongly disagree’). On the other hand, it was found from Question 7 of the semi-structured questionnaire that most students listed several female-dominant occupations as English-related professions (e.g. interpreter, translator, flight attendant). Those two conflicting results suggested that at least half of the students among those who listed English-involved, women-dominant occupations in the
semi-structured questionnaire were unaware of the dominance of women in those English-related professions when they responded to some Likert-scale items on the femininity of English professions. These findings brought to light people’s lack of awareness of gendered aspects in a society and the difficulty in investigating people’s perceptions about gender-related issues.

McLaren and Gaskell (1995) confirmed this point by interviewing nineteen Grade 12 female students who were enrolled in male-dominated classes such as advanced math, physics, and science courses in British Columbia, Canada. The paper started with a quotation from one of those female students who was enrolled in the most challenging physics course: “I think it’s equal here. Like I said, I’ve never seen any discrimination between females and males. Of course there is some, but you don’t see it.” McLaren and Gaskell (1995) argue, “This quotation illustrates the difficulty many girls have in articulating their experience of inequality in schools. It’s there but it isn’t. It’s equal but there is some discrimination (p. 136).” They conclude by claiming:

This [the girls’ failure to articulate gender issues] was not just because they were “blinded” by patriarchal, meritocratic, and scientistic ideologies, but because they had to make the best of their situation.... To highlight gender differences in experiences might exacerbate even more the girls’ status of being the “other.” Thus the girls tended to dismiss their harassment by some boys as a joke and to point to the help that other boys were prepared to give. (p. 152-153)
Participants and Schedule

The final study was conducted from May 1998 to December 1998 at the two schools which also collaborated in the initial pilot study. The participants were 651 students. None of them participated in the structured questionnaire of the pilot study. The questionnaire was administered during English classes under the supervision of teachers. Although the response rate was 100%, 16 students were deleted from the initial data set because of severe incompleteness and obvious insincerity in the responses, leaving 635 students for the final analysis. They consisted of 341 first-grade students (at the age of either 15 or 16) and 294 second-grade students (at the age of 16 or 17). Male students are 294, female 339, and 2 unidentified (who failed to identify their gender). The survey was administered in all the classes at each of the grades within one week in order to minimize the risk of information exchange between those who had already participated in the survey and those who had not. It was reported by the teachers that the questionnaire was completed within 25 minutes.

Participants as Representatives of the Population

The two high schools for the pilot study and final study are officially categorized as \textit{futsuu} (non-technical or academic) \textit{kyougaku} (co-ed). Interviews with teachers at the schools verified that more than 80% of graduates proceed to either a four-year university or a two-year college of varying levels. Regarding English education at those schools, the interviews with teachers and the written responses from students suggested that the English teaching is in the form of one-way information transmission from teachers to students, exam-directed, and focuses on text, grammar, memorization, reading, and writing. It was
also found that while those regular English courses are taught at least three times a week in the first and second grade, classes with native speakers of English were irregular and far less frequent. This factual and demographic information about the schools renders them appropriate research sites for the present study, i.e. average-level academic high schools in Japan.

**Instrument and Technical Issues Over Its Administration**

The questionnaire used for the final study consisted of: (1) forty-two Likert-scale statements designed to examine students’ perceptions of studying English in the Japanese context (7 items were developed for descriptive statistics such as frequencies and the remaining 35 for factor analysis) and (2) six sets of multiple choice questions designed to garner students’ personal information about English (e.g. English learning activities, future plans about English study). The English version questionnaire and its original Japanese questionnaire appear in Appendix A and C respectively.

During the negotiation with teachers over the instrument administration, one English teacher, who was teaching two English classes in the second grade, expressed his concern about the possible conflict between the time constraint in classroom management and the research plan of conducting the final study within one week in all the second-grade classes. He suggested that the questionnaire be split into two sections so that Section 2 of the questionnaire, which consisted of multiple choice questions and required less concentrated thinking from students, could be taken home by them and brought back to school in case all the second-grade English classes did not have enough time to complete the whole questionnaire during classes. Acting on this teacher’s request, together with the
detailed explanations about the tight schedule imposed on all the teachers, it was decided to split the questionnaire into two sections for the second-grade students only.

Against this teacher’s apprehension, it turned out that all the students in the second-grade classes could complete both questionnaires (Section 1 and Section 2) during English classes without interruption. But this procedure of conducting two, physically, separate questionnaires, was found to cause one incident which happened during two of the second-grade classes. As mentioned earlier, since all the second-grade students worked on the two separate questionnaires, it was critical to have those students place their student number on each of the two questionnaires so that later those two could be combined into one. It was reported, however, that two classes out of the total eight classes failed to comply with the procedure, making it impossible to combine the separate data from Section 1 and Section 2 obtained from 75 students into one complete data set. Given the importance of the data collected at the expense of the teachers and students’ time, the maximum use of the obtained data was sought: It was decided that for the data analyses, which require the combined data set, they would be performed without those 75 students and for other analyses, which could be done on the separate data, all the data would be used. Table 1 summarizes data sets used in this thesis:
Table 1

Three Data Sets Used in This Thesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data set</th>
<th>Section 1 data set (Total 635)</th>
<th>Section 2 data set (Total 634)</th>
<th>Section 1 &amp; 2 data set (Total 555)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ‘Missing’ refers to the data from students who failed to identify either their gender or grade.

For the rest of this thesis, three types of data sets will be mentioned respectively as ‘Section 1 data set,’ ‘Section 2 data set,’ and ‘Section 1 & 2 data set.’

Data Analysis

All the data analyses except for structural equation modeling were conducted by SPSS 8.0 statistical package (SPSS For Windows, Release 8.0.1, 1997, Chicago: SPSS Inc.). LISREL Windows 8.20 (Chicago: Scientific Software International) was used to analyze a structural equation model. Prior to writing programs for path analyses, a covariance matrix was first computed by SPSS reliability analyses and then transferred to LISREL 8.20.

Limitations of the Study

The present study has three limitations: (1) a limited number of variables, (2) non-random sampling, and (3) insufficient amount of longitudinal and qualitative data.
First, since the present study employed a structured questionnaire as the main instrument and the constraint of time in the research context was not negligible, the number of questions to be included in the questionnaire had to be limited. Therefore, although the Likert-scale items and questions were developed carefully for the creation of variables, based on the pilot study and the literature review, it is highly conceivable that some variables which might be significantly related to the present research theme are missing in the study. For example, students' learning experiences at juku (cram schools) must play an important role in the formation of students' perceptions about studying English for entrance examinations because it is where the students are exposed to the ultimate teaching geared to entrance examinations.

Second, the research participants in this study were not selected by means of random sampling. Therefore, although the choice of research sites for both the pilot study and the final study was carefully made in consideration of the population of the study and its appropriateness was confirmed, generalizing its findings to the population of all kinds of academic high school students in Japan, not to mention other EFL contexts outside Japan, should be carried on with great caution.

Finally, this study lacks qualitative and longitudinal data. Although some qualitative data obtained from the students and the comprehensive literature review served as resources for interpreting findings, it is true that the limitation affected the present study. For example, the discussion on gender differences in Japanese high school students' attitudes toward English learning had to be made with reference to related previous studies on Japanese young women (ranging from college students to working women).
Suggestions for Research Procedures in the Japanese School Context

Some knowledge about appropriate research procedures at academically oriented high schools in Japan was gained through conducting this study. First, it was learned that the tight schedule imposed on teachers and students makes it difficult for them to collaborate with large-scale, repeated, longitudinal research. The best timing to conduct research seems to be: (1) the very first day of a new semester when teachers usually set up a flexible, warm-up plan in order to talk to students and stimulate their academic motivation which has often waned during holidays, (2) the very last day of a semester when teaching tasks for the semester have already been completed and students spend the free time in working individually on exercise books, and (3) the day when marked tests are returned to students; to be more precise, after a teacher returns the tests to each student, provides to the class basic information of the results (e.g. class average, the best score in the class, the most difficult question), and deals with some students who find incorrect marking in their tests.

The second point is that it is important to administer a survey questionnaire at school in order to secure sincere, thoughtful responses from students. Due to the constant time pressure and stress affecting students and the preciousness of their limited private time at home, it is difficult to expect them to take a serious attitude toward an external, possibly uninteresting, questionnaire irrelevant to their academic achievement, and respond to it in a focused manner at home without, for example, watching TV, listening to music, taking breaks, half falling into sleep, or chatting with a friend over the phone.

The third point about appropriate research procedures in Japanese school contexts is concerned with official consent to research. It is common that external Japanese researchers in SLA and educational psychology ask individual teachers to conduct research
during their classes without seeking consent from the school administration. It was learned in the present study that obtaining the school administrative consent to research and then approaching individual teachers, which is a rigid requirement for scholars affiliated with North American institutes, can benefit Japanese researchers as well, especially when the research is relatively large-scale, involving more than one teacher and one class. For instance, the formal consent issued from a school administration enables external researchers to have easier access to the school and teachers throughout the research process as well as a large number of participants (students or teachers) and to secure serious attitudes toward the research not only from students but also from teachers involved.

Fourthly, it was learned that the degree of difficulty in obtaining administrative consent at academically oriented high schools seems to be affected by the purpose of study, the nature of study, the number of participants and the amount of time required for the research, and the credibility of researchers (e.g. their affiliation). Difficult examples would be studies aiming at the critical examination of a school itself such as its administration, policy, teaching staff and classroom activities. In terms of research methodology, difficult examples would be case study, experimental study, repeated, longitudinal study and participant observation. The present study did not encounter any serious difficulties, due to, as one teacher said, its “important” yet “harmless” research topic and its nature as a one-time survey involving no manipulation and disturbance of class activities. According to the teacher, a researcher’s request to conduct research which profoundly affects administrators, teachers, and students’ compressed curriculum of teaching and learning is likely to be considered “unethical” at these academic high schools pressed for time.
Chapter Four: Results and Discussion

The first part of this chapter, which describes the processes of creating variables from the final questionnaire, is subcategorized into two sections: creation of variables from Section 1 and creation of variables from Section 2.

The last part of this chapter, which is concerned with data analyses, is subcategorized into four sections in correspondence to each of the four research questions.

Creation of Variables From the Questionnaire

Variables Created From Section 1: Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

This section describes the process of defining scales from Likert-scale items in Section 1 of the final questionnaire. That was carried out using factor analysis. A reliability analysis was conducted to measure the reliability of each scale. Scores based on each scale were then calculated and treated as variables for future analyses.

The 35 six-point Likert-scale items, which were subjected to factor analyses, were numerically coded as follows: SA (strongly agree) into 6, MA (moderately agree) 5, A (agree) 4, D (disagree) 3, MD (moderately disagree) 2, and SD (strongly disagree) 1. Five negative items (to be shown with * in this section) were reverse-coded.

The purpose of this factor analysis was to determine the number of underlying dimensions of students' perceptions about the learning of English. Unweighted least squares was employed with direct oblimin rotation, one of the oblique rotation procedures available in the SPSS program, based on the assumption that the underlying factors
concerned with students' perceptions about English are correlated (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

In an initial analysis, using a minimum-eigenvalue criterion of 1.0, six factors were produced. Based on the values of the eigenvalues, the first three factors which accounted for 46.2% of the total variance were selected and studied in detail.

The analysis also revealed that four items loaded on more than two factors (Item 6, 13, 19, 27) and one item's factor loading was less than .30 (Item 1). These five items were deleted from further analyses “particularly to avoid the situation in which a substantial percentage of the included variables are complex measures” and to select variables which could measure only one factor (Comrey, 1978, p. 650).

Specifying three factors, the factor analysis procedure was conducted on the remaining 30 items. As a result, three numerically, theoretically interpretable factors emerged. The factors accounted for 50.5% of the total variance. Table 2 summarizes the factor analysis results.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I want to go into a profession which gives me a chance to use English.</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24*</td>
<td>I will never study English after jiken is over.</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>English is the most promising school subject for future use.</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38*</td>
<td>I want to choose a life course which does not require foreign language learning.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Item</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>I am thinking of starting to study English by myself in the future.</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>I am going to take English courses at university even if they are not compulsory as long as they are effective.</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I am interested in learning about life and culture in English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I want to make friends with people from overseas.</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I want to communicate with many people in English.</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I feel attracted to culture and life in the U.S.</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>I want to master American English.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>I am interested in learning about various kinds of languages and culture.</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>I want to make efforts to speak a local language if I have a chance to go abroad.</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Studying English for entrance examinations is a good opportunity to build up grammar and vocabulary.</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7*</td>
<td>I hate all the things we have to study as <em>juken eigo</em>.</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I think I am a type of person who can enjoy learning any foreign languages.</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>There are some interesting parts in studying <em>juken eigo</em>.</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>English study at school raised my interest in learning English.</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16*</td>
<td>I have had many bad experiences with English study so far.</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17*</td>
<td>I came to dislike English itself because of the English study for entrance examinations.</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I am good at English.</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I like English classes.</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>I think the English I am learning for <em>juken</em> forms a good foundation of my English proficiency.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Professions involving use of English sound intelligent.

I envy people who can speak English fluently.

English proficiency is very important for the internationalization of Japan.

I think that people who master English can rely on its proficiency to earn money.

I think lack of English proficiency will be a major hindrance to my successful job seeking activities.

The ability to handle English gives a sense of being educated.

I think it is cool to be able to speak English fluently.

Eigenvalue 10.29 3

Percent of variance explained (%) 34.29 10.15 6.07

Note: Items with * are reverse-coded. Factor loadings only over .30 are indicated in the table. ‘Section 1 data set’ (N=635) was used for this analysis.

Since the first factor consisted of items that reflect both attitudes toward long-term English learning and interest in culture and communication, the items were regrouped into two scales as follows:

Attitudes toward long-term English learning

4 I want to go into a profession which gives me a chance to use English.

24* I will never study English after juken is over.

34 English is the most promising school subject for future use.

38* I want to choose a life course which does not require foreign language learning.

39 I am thinking of starting to study English by myself in the future.

42 I am going to take English courses at university even if they are not compulsory as long as they are effective.

Interest in culture and communication

20 I am interested in learning about life and culture in English-speaking countries.

23 I want to make friends with people from overseas.
I want to communicate with many people in English.
I feel attracted to culture and life in the U.S.
I want to master American English.
I am interested in learning about various kinds of languages and culture.
I want to make efforts to speak a local language if I have a chance to go abroad.

A reliability analysis was conducted on these two conceptually related but different scales as well as on the other two scales labeled 'perceptions about studying English in a school context' and 'images associated with English.' As shown in Table 3, the four scales yielded high reliabilities ranging from .79 to .88. Therefore, 4 scores based on the corresponding four scales were calculated for each student by summing up the items on each.

Table 3
Four Scales and Their Respective Alpha

Scale 1: Attitudes toward long-term English learning:  Alpha = .85
4 I want to go into a profession which gives me a chance to use English.
24* I will never study English after juken is over.
34 English is the most promising school subject for future use.
38* I want to choose a life course which does not require foreign language learning.
39 I am thinking of starting to study English by myself in the future.
42 I am going to take English courses at university even if they are not compulsory as long as they are effective.

Scale 2: Interest in culture and communication:  Alpha = .86
20 I am interested in learning about life and culture in English-speaking countries.
23 I want to make friends with people from overseas.
25 I want to communicate with many people in English.
26 I feel attracted to culture and life in the U.S.
28 I want to master American English.
31 I am interested in learning about various kinds of languages and culture.
35 I want to make efforts to speak a local language if I have a chance to go abroad.
Scale 3: Perceptions about studying English in a school context: Alpha = .88
5 Studying English for entrance examinations is a good opportunity to build up grammar and vocabulary.
7* I hate all the things we have to study as juken eigo.
8 I think I am a type of person who can enjoy learning any foreign languages.
14 There are some interesting parts in studying juken eigo.
15 English study at school raised my interest in learning English.
16* I have had many bad experiences with English study so far.
17* I came to dislike English itself because of the English study for entrance examinations.
22 I am good at English.
29 I like English classes.
30 I think the English I am learning for juken forms the foundation of my English proficiency.

Scale 4: Images associated with English: Alpha = .79
2 Professions involving use of English sound intelligent.
9 I envy people who can speak English fluently.
10 English proficiency is very important for the internationalization of Japan.
11 I think that people who master English can rely on its proficiency to earn money.
32 I think lack of English proficiency will be a major hindrance to my successful job seeking activities.
40 The ability to handle English gives a sense of being educated.
41 I think it is cool to be able to speak English fluently.

Note: See Appendix E for the histogram of these four sets of items.

Variables Created From Section 2: Coding and Theoretical Rationale
This section describes the procedure of defining scales from six multiple choice questions in Section 2 of the final questionnaire. The following is a description of the variables derived from Section 2 of the questionnaire (see Appendix A for the English version of the final questionnaire and actual questions in Section 2; see Appendix E for the histogram for the five interval variables created from Section 2):
1. **English learning activities outside school (interval scale)**

Number of English learning activities checked by students.

For example, 2 indicates that a student chose two activities (e.g. going to an English conversation school and reading English books).

2. **Exposure to English outside school (interval scale)**

Sum of a 6-point Likert-scale alternatives, from 0 (never) to 5 (very often), consisting of ten items addressing students’ daily exposure to English such as frequencies of listening to English in Japanese TV commercials.

Thus, the higher the score, the more frequent the exposure to English outside school.

3. **Identification of English role models (interval scale)**

Sum of numbers of English role models checked.

For example, 0 indicates that a student chose no English role models.

4. **Academic English grade (interval scale)**

One of eight academic English grade levels checked by students.

Students were asked to “recode the full mark of all the English tests [they] have taken so far at high school into 100 and calculate the average of [their] test scores”: from a maximum of 8 representing a grade ‘above 80’ to a minimum of 1 representing a grade ‘below 20.’

5. **Self-rated English skills (interval scale)**

In the four categories of English skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading), students rated their own level: 4 (indicative of the highest level); 3 (intermediate); 2 (novice); 1 (lowest). These ratings were then summed up.

For example, 2 for speaking + 2 for listening + 3 for writing + 3 for reading = 10.

Thus, the higher the sum, the higher the self-rated English skills.
6. Future English learning plan (categorical scale)

Students are grouped according to their future English learning plans (frequencies will be shown later in Table 4 and in more details in Table 12):

1 “major in English”

2 “study English personally”

3 “never study foreign languages at all”

4 “study a foreign language other than English”

5 “others”

Summaries and Examinations of Variables from Section 1 and Section 2

Table 4 lists twelve variables (9 interval and 3 categorical variables) employed in this thesis.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of the Twelve Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval Variables</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Highest</th>
<th>Lowest</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Attitudes toward long-term English learning</td>
<td>Section 1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22.78</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Interest in culture and communication</td>
<td>Section 1</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>30.35</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Perceptions about studying English in a school context</td>
<td>Section 1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34.78</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Images associated with English</td>
<td>Section 1</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>32.23</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Interval Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Highest</th>
<th>Lowest</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>English learning activities outside school</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Academic English grade</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Self-rated English skills</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Exposure to English outside school</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26.05</td>
<td>6.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Identification of English role models</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Categorical Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Grouping</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Future English learning plan</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
<td>1 major (n=148)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 study personally (n=162)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 no more study (n=86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 study another FL (n=120)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 others (n=39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1st Grade students (n=340)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2nd Grade students (n=215)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Male (n=242)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female (n=313)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 'Section 1 & 2 data set' was used. See also Table 1 for the complete data on gender and grade. See Appendix E for the histogram of nine interval variables used in this study.

Prior to conducting a series of data analysis, students in the first grade (G1) (n=340) were compared with those in the second grade (G2) (n=215) on the nine interval variables in order to identify variables with the group difference. The purpose of this analysis was to examine which variables were influenced by the one-year interval and also to see if there is
a difference between the two groups of students in their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

Using ‘Section 1 & 2 data set,’ a one-way MANOVA was conducted to examine differences between these two groups of students. In order to control for Type I error, the Bonferroni method was employed and each ANOVA was tested at the .006 level (.05 / 9 ≈ .0055). In the results of the MANOVA, the Wilks’ Lambda, .91 was significant, F (9, 518) = 5.75, p < .001, indicating that the population means on the nine variables are different between G1 and G2 students. The ANOVA output as part of the MANOVA revealed significant differences between two groups of students on three variables: ‘academic English grade,’ ‘English learning activities outside school,’ and ‘interest in culture and communication.’ The findings are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5

Differences Between the First-Grade (G1) and Second-Grade (G2) Students in Their English Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>G1</th>
<th>G2</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes toward long-term English learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.25</td>
<td>23.67</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in culture and communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>29.66</td>
<td>31.50</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>8.74</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions about studying in a school context</td>
<td></td>
<td>34.49</td>
<td>35.27</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Images associated with English</td>
<td></td>
<td>31.94</td>
<td>32.72</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>G1</td>
<td>G2</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English learning activities</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-rated English skills</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic English grade</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>14.25</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure to English outside school</td>
<td>25.61</td>
<td>26.77</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification of English role models</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>(1, 528)</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ‘Section 1 & 2 data set’ (N=555) was used for this analysis.

Table 5 indicates that G2 students are less involved in personal English learning activities outside school and that G2 students’ academic grade is lower than G1 students’. This finding might be indicative of more challenging English study tasks required for G2 students than for G1 students. Another finding is that G2 students are more interested in the cultural and communicative aspects of English learning than G1 students. This finding might be either due to students’ growing dissatisfaction with grammar-oriented *juken eigo* or due to cumulative English classes over the two years in which G2 students could nurture more interest in communicative and cultural aspect of English study, or due to the mixture of both. The difference was not found between the two groups of students in their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

The categorical grouping variable, grade, will not be included into the subsequent analyses. First, regarding Research question 1, it attempts to identify which interval variables concerned with students’ English learning influence their attitudes toward long-term English learning. It is pointless to include the grouping variable, grade, in the
analysis, when it is known that there is no difference between Grade 1st students and Grade 2nd students in their attitudes toward long-term English learning. Regarding Research questions 2 and 3, the purpose of those analyses is to examine the relationship between students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning and a particular variable concerned with students’ English learning (respectively, academic English grade and self-rated English skills). The aim of Research question 4 is to identify gender differences in the variables on students’ English learning. Since grade is a grouping variable, not a variable specifically about students’ English learning, this categorical variable will not be dealt with in either of the four research questions in this study.
Research Question 1
Predicting Attitudes Toward Long-term English Learning

Research question 1: What factors influence Japanese academic high school students’
attitudes toward long-term English learning?

1. Multiple regression analysis I: predicting attitudes toward long-term English
learning

   A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate which variables regarding
Japanese students’ English learning could predict the dependent variable in this study,
‘attitudes toward long-term English learning,’ and how well. The predictors used in the
analysis are:

1. Interest in culture and communication
2. Perceptions about studying English in a school context
3. Images associated with English
4. Self-rated English skills
5. English learning activities outside school
6. Academic English grade
7. Exposure to English outside school
8. Identification of English role models

   The stepwise variable selection procedure was employed because the present study
is exploratory in that it is not based on a specific theory which can decide the ordering of
the eight variables. The stepwise variable selection procedure produced a model with four predictors included as shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis I (Dependent Variable: Students’ Attitudes Toward Long-term English Learning)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step #</th>
<th>Variables entered</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2$ change</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Partial t</th>
<th>Partial p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interest in culture and communication</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>13.97</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Perceptions about studying English in a school context</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>11.06</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Self-rated English skills</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Images associated with English</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ‘Section 1 & 2 data set’ was used for this analysis.

Figure 1 shows the plot of Y (students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning) versus $\hat{Y}$, i.e. the predicted value of Y. The figure visually confirms the linearity in this multiple regression which predicts Japanese academic high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning from four predictors: ‘interest in culture and communication,’ ‘perceptions about studying English in a school context,’ ‘images associated with English,’ and ‘self-rated English skills.’
Figure 1.

Scatterplot of \( Y \) (students' attitudes toward long-term English learning) versus \( Y' \) (standardized predicted value)

As shown in Table 6, the multiple regression analysis, which was conducted to predict the dependent variable (\( Y \), students' attitudes toward long-term English learning), resulted in one model which included four independent variables (students' interests in culture and communication, their perceptions about studying English in a school context, their self-rated English skills, and their images associated with English). The analysis produced the regression equation with all the four independent variables (i.e. predictors), which yields predicted dependent variable scores (\( Y' \)). The equation is:

\[
Y' = .42 \text{ interest} + .23 \text{ perceptions} + .38 \text{ self-rated skills} + .14 \text{ images} - 5.41
\]

Although this equation yields \( Y' \) (predicted value of \( Y \)), the weights in the equation cannot be compared because all the independent variables are based on different scales. To make the weights comparable, the independent and dependent variables are changed into \( z \)
scores (with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1). The regression equation based on the standardized scores, which is used for Figure 1, is:

\[ Y' = 0.47 \text{ interest} + 0.34 \text{ perceptions} + 0.11 \text{ self-rated skills} + 0.13 \text{ images} \]

R square change shown in Table 6 reveals that while the first two predictors, ‘interest in culture and communication’ and ‘perceptions about studying English in a school context,’ accounted for the significant variance of students’ attitudes (respectively, 53% and 11%), the other two predictors (‘images associated with English’ and ‘self-rated English skills’) did not make large contributions to the increase in R square (both 1%). This result implies that students’ interest in culture and communication and their perceptions about studying English in a school context play the most important role in predicting students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning.

2. Relevance of Qualitative Data to Quantitative Findings

The multiple regression analysis showed that students’ interest in culture and communication is the best predictor of their attitudes toward long-term English learning. It might be argued that Gardner’s integrative orientation profoundly affects Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward their future plan of continuing to study English after graduating from high school when English study is no longer compulsory. However, the variable in this study, Japanese students’ ‘interest in culture and communication,’ addresses more than integrative orientation (second language learners’ perceptions about being a part of the target language community). The variable consists of not only 3 items specifically concerned with students’ interest in English-speaking countries (Item 20),
American culture (Item 26) and American English (Item 28) but also 4 items concerned with students' interest in cultures and foreign languages in general (Item 31 and Item 35), friendship with people from overseas (Item 23), and communication in English (Item 25) (see Table 3 for the list of the items).

As discussed previously, English is widely associated both with internationalization and American culture in Japan. The literature documents that whereas there exist favorable attitudes toward American English, Americans and American culture among young Japanese people, the association of English with internationalization and globalization also permeates the Japanese society. In fact, "internationalization," "communication with foreign people," "this era," and "world" appeared with high frequency in students' responses to the semi-structured questionnaire in the pilot study. The status of English in Japan as 'English as an international language' and 'English as the U.S. language' underlies the finding that the combination of Japanese high school students' integrative orientation to English speaking countries, particularly the U. S., and students' orientation to the outside world and people from outside Japan can best predict their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

It was found that along with students' 'interest in culture and communication,' their 'perceptions about studying English in a school context' could predict their 'attitudes toward long-term English learning' well. In other words, how students think about studying English now at school influences how they think about continuing to study English after they graduate from high school.

This finding reflects the Japanese educational context of English education in which unlike ESL settings, the development of communicative skills is not emphasized and
thus there is a gap between what students are studying now for entrance examinations and what they wish to learn for internationalization and cross-cultural communication. Consequently, as discussed earlier with written responses obtained from students, Japanese academic high school students, who all recognize the profound importance of studying English for entrance examinations, vary in their perceptions about the long-term benefits they can expect from engaging in studying English at school other than the short-term benefit of achieving good scores in exams.

Some were found to believe that the English study at school forms the foundation of their 'true' English proficiency and see the linkage between the English they are studying now as a school subject and the English they wish to master for communication in the future:

I think what we are learning at school is useful. *Juken eigo* is a part of *eigo* and [*juken eigo's*] grammar is useful for learning conversations or correct English [usage].

Some say that English we learn at school cannot be used overseas. But I think if we do not know the basics of English, there is no way to be able to use English in the first place.

On the contrary, other students were found to perceive the present English education and studying *juken eigo* (English tested in exams) very critically:

*Juken eigo* is of no practical use. We cannot speak English and we can only write something on a piece of paper. I am very sure that *juken eigo* is useless.

It was also found that some other students were seeing, in *juken eigo*, the limited value of reading and writing practices:

*Juken eigo* might be useful for reading and writing English, but not so much for conversations.

I do not think *Juken eigo* is not useful. But when I went to Canada and tried to speak, it seems I was composing what I wanted to say as sentences [as I do as English
compositions during classes] first and then producing them from my mouth. In my opinion, *juken eigo* focuses on writing whereas *real eigo* is well balanced in reading, listening, writing and speaking.

These diverse responses and the finding that students’ perceptions about studying English at school influence their attitudes toward long-term English learning suggest the important linkage between the current learning at school and the future learning. In accordance with Dewey’s concept of “continuity of experience” (Dewey, 1938, p. 28), what students experience through a six-year English education at high school is not discontinued upon their graduation. Rather, as “two principles of continuity and interaction” (p. 44), students’ learning experiences at school continue, interact, and unite with new experiences.

3. Structural Equation Model of Attitudes Toward Long-term English Learning

The findings from the multiple regression analysis indicated that Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning is best predicted by the two variables: ‘perceptions about studying English in a school context’ and ‘interest in culture and communication.’ Based on these findings, a structural equation model was constructed and its fit was checked by LISREL. Table 7 lists the items included for LISREL. Table 8 is the covariance matrix used for LISREL analysis.
Table 7

Three Latent Variables and Corresponding Observed Variables Used for LISREL Analysis

Latent variable: Attitudes toward long-term English Learning
- # 4: I want to go into a profession which gives me a chance to use English.
- # 24*: I will never study English after *juken* is over (*negatively-worded item).
- # 42: I am going to take English courses at university even if they are not compulsory as long as they are effective.

Latent variable: Perceptions about studying English in a school context
- # 14: There are some interesting parts in studying *juken eigo*.
- # 15: English study at school raised my interest in learning English.
- # 50: I think the English I am learning for *juken* forms the foundation of English proficiency.

Latent variable 3: Interest in culture and communication
- # 25: I want to communicate with many people in English.
- # 26: I feel attracted to culture and life in the U.S.

Note. Item # corresponds with what is shown in Table 3. In structural equation modeling, there are two major types of variables: latent variables (directly unobservable construct) and observed variables (directly observable one). It can be said that those two are equivalent to, in factor analysis, respectively factors and items.

Table 8

Covariance Matrix of Observed Variables Used for LISREL Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>#4</th>
<th>#24</th>
<th>#42</th>
<th>#14</th>
<th>#15</th>
<th>#50</th>
<th>#25</th>
<th>#26</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#4</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>#24</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#42</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#14</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#15</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#50</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#25</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#26</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 'Section 1 data set' (N=635) was used for this analysis.
Prior to performing LISREL analysis and testing the specified model of this study, it is important to check that the model includes observed variables which actually measure the corresponding hypothesized latent variables. Thus, “The testing of the structural model [the relation among latent variables], i.e. the testing of the initially specified theory, may be meaningless unless it is first established that the measurement model [the relationship between a latent variable and its corresponding observed variables] holds” (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993, p. 113). The selection of appropriate observed variables is usually carried out by examining factor loadings and measurement error. Schumacker and Lomax (1995) explain in simple language:

The relationships between the observed variables and the latent variables are described by factor loadings. The factor loadings provide us with information about the extent to which a given observed variable is able to measure the latent variable. They serve as a validity coefficient. Measurement error is defined as that portion of an observed variable that is measuring something other than what the latent variable is hypothesized to measure. It serves as a measure of reliability. (p. 81)

The eight items included in the specified model of this thesis (Table 7) were chosen by examining the factor loadings and measurement errors and by confirming that the eight observed variables account for large variances of the corresponding latent variables with high reliability (for excellent introductory books on structural equation modeling, see Schumacker & Lomax, 1995; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993; in Japanese, Toyoda, Maeda & Yanai, 1997).
The specified model of this study is shown in Figure 2 (the convention of structural equation modeling is that a circle represents a latent variable and a square represents an observed variable).

**Figure 2.**
Structural equation model of students' attitudes toward long-term English learning
Goodness of fit statistics

1. The Chi-square of 23.8 with 17 degrees of freedom yielded a p-value of 0.12, above 0.05, showing that the hypothesized model is adequate (The intent of structural equation modeling is to check if the null hypothesis that a specified model fits the data is not rejected. Thus, the lower the chi-square, the better the fit).

2. RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) is 0.026, smaller than 0.05.

3. Two additional important Goodness-of-Fit indices, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), are 0.99 and 0.98, both high, larger than .95, indicating that the model is adequate.

In addition, the squared multiple correlations $R^2$ between a latent variable and the corresponding observed variables are acceptable overall, ranging from 0.37 to 0.86, and suggest that the latent variables are adequately represented by the observed variables. Both students’ perceptions about studying English in a school context and their interest in English culture and communication in English are significant predictors of students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning as shown in this relation with standardized coefficients:

$$\text{Attitudes} = 0.32 \text{perception} + 0.63 \text{interest}, \text{Errorvar.} = 0.29, R^2 = 0.71$$

All the detailed assessment of fit shows that the model fits well, leading to the conclusion that Japanese students’ perceptions about studying English in a school context and their interest in knowing about English-speaking countries and communicating with people in English greatly influence their attitudes toward long-term English learning.
Research Question 2
Examining the Relation Between Academic Performance and Attitudes Toward Long-term English Learning

Research question 2: Is there a relationship between students’ academic performance in grammar-oriented English education at Japanese academic high schools and those students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning?

As discussed earlier and shown in Table 6, the first multiple regression analysis predicting students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning revealed that the three variables of ‘academic English grade,’ ‘exposure to English outside school,’ and ‘identification of English role models’ did not enter the multiple regression model. This finding indicated those variables’ weak power of predicting students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning.

With a focus on ‘academic English grade’ in relation to ‘attitudes toward long-term English learning,’ Figure 3 visually confirms that there existed no linear relation between the two variables: Japanese high school students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning and their academic English grade. This finding is worthy of attention because the educational psychology and SLA research on L2 motivation both in Japan and overseas traditionally equates test score with achievement and examines the relationship between language motivation and the score as language achievement.
Figure 3.
Scatterplot of students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning versus academic English grade

Multiple regression analysis II: predicting academic English grade

In order to reexamine the validity of the conventionally matched relationship between attitudes and ‘language achievement’ (i.e. test scores) in the context of Japanese academic high schools, another multiple regression analysis was performed by setting ‘academic English grade’ as the dependent (or predicted) variable and the remaining variables, including ‘attitudes toward long-term English learning,’ as predictors.

The stepwise analysis found that the top four predictors in bold on the list below entered the regression model while the other four predictors in italics, including ‘attitudes toward long-term English learning,’ did not enter the model. Table 9 summarizes the result.

1. Self-rated English skills
2. Perceptions about studying English in a school context
3. Exposure to English outside school
4. English learning activities outside school
5. *Attitudes toward long-term English learning*

6. *Interest in culture and communication*

7. *Images associated with English*

8. *Identification of English role models*

**Table 9**

**Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis II (Dependent Variable: Academic English Grade)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step #</th>
<th>Variables entered</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2$ change</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Partial t</th>
<th>Partial p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Self-rated English skills</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>9.26</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Perceptions about studying English in a school context</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Exposure to English outside school</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>-2.80</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>English learning activities outside school</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: ‘Section 1 & 2 data set’ was used for this analysis.*

The variable, ‘exposure to English outside school’ (the third variable in Table 9), was found to be inversely related to the predicted variable, ‘academic English grade.’ This finding implies that the more frequently students are exposed to English outside school, the lower their academic English performance (i.e. English grade). The background for this apparently contradictory result is that although the variable is concerned with students’ exposure to English not only through the Japanese media and culture (e.g. English in Japanese TV commercials and English in Japanese pop music) but also through English
culture (e.g. English books and English music), it turned out that the type of English students are exposed to in their daily life comes mainly from the Japanese media and culture, i.e. English or pseudo-English used in Japanese TV commercials and Japanese pop music.

For example, in the case of students’ exposure to English in Japanese pop music (see Question 5, which addresses exposure to English outside school, in Section 2 in the final questionnaire shown in Appendix A), 28.9% of them replied that they are exposed to that type of English ‘very often’; 42.6% ‘relatively often’; 21.5% ‘sometimes’; 4.1% ‘not much’; 0.9% ‘seldom’; 1.4% ‘never.’ In the case of students’ exposure to English through English books, however, 0.8% of them replied that they are exposed to that type of English ‘very often’; 0.5% ‘relatively often’; 7.6% ‘sometimes’; 18.5% ‘not much’; 22.1% ‘seldom’; 50.3% ‘never’ (‘Section 2 data set’ was used). In other words, most students are exposed only to the Japanese culture-mediated English or ‘Japlish’ (Tsuda, 1997). Thus, students’ high exposure to such commercially oriented English implies that they spend more time in watching TV and listening to music and presumably less time in studying English and other academic subjects at home, resulting in the students’ lower academic grade.

The results from the first multiple regression analysis predicting ‘attitudes toward long-term English learning’ (Table 6), the scatter plot of ‘academic English grade’ versus ‘attitudes toward long-term English learning’ (Figure 3) and the second multiple regression analysis in this section predicting ‘academic English grade’ (Table 9) all confirmed no linearity between students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning and English academic scores. This finding underlies the nature of the present research context where a
majority of Japanese high school students are convinced that English as a school subject, *juken eigo*, focuses on grammar, translation and memorization and is different from the type of English they want to learn, i.e. English for communication. The data shown in Table 10 illustrate this point.

**Table 10**

**Frequency Table of Item 3 and Item 8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>MA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 3: I think <em>juken eigo</em> is not for communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(%)</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n)</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Item 8 My English grade represents my efforts but not my ability. |     |     |     |       |     |     |     |     |       |
| (%)  | 20.0| 29.9| 35.9| 86.2  |     | 0.9 | 3.0 | 9.8 | 13.8  |
| (n)  | 127 | 190 | 228 | 545   |     | 6   | 19  | 62  | 87    |

Note: ‘Section 1 data set’ was used for this analysis. SA (strongly agree), MA (moderately agree), A (agree), D (disagree), MD (moderately disagree), SD (strongly disagree)

Table 10 shows that close to 79% of the total 635 participants in the present study were found to believe that *juken eigo* is not useful for communication and 86% of them replied that their English grade is the reflection of their effort rather than their ability. Thus, although a good English score is crucial for those who are planning to go to a better university, students do not think that the score, calculated from grammar-focused test
results, denotes their ‘true’ English proficiency. This understanding agrees with SLA knowledge: “...focus on grammatical competence in the classroom is not a sufficient condition for the development of communicative competence” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 13), which was explained with reference to Tucker (1974) and other empirical studies. Due to the focus on grammar in English education at Japanese academic high schools and the students’ awareness of the focus, academic English grade neither predicts nor is predicted by the students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning.

**Research Question 3**

**Examining the Relation Between Self-Rated English Skills and Attitudes Toward Long-term English Learning**

Research question 3: Is there a relationship between Japanese academic high school students’ self-rated English skills and their attitudes toward long-term English learning?

As discussed previously to address Research Question 1, the first multiple regression analysis predicting ‘attitudes toward long-term English’ found that one of the predictors, ‘self-rated English skills,’ plays a minor role in predicting students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning (see Table 6): it was found to account for only an additional 1% of the total variance of the predicted variable.
Figure 4. Scatterplot of students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning versus students’ self-rated English skills

Indicating the weak relation between students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning and their self-rated English skills, Figure 4 illustrates that although there is a tendency for students who rated their skills at the highest level to have the highest scores on attitudes toward long-term English learning, this tendency becomes unclear as the level of self-rated skills lowers. In fact, some of the students who rate their skills at the lowest level are found to have the same most positive attitudes toward long-term English learning as those who rate their skills at the highest level.

The result that ‘self-rated English skills’ is a weak predictor of students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning partly stems from the fact that a majority of students attribute their low English skills not to themselves but to the grammar-focused English education. Written responses obtained from students in the pilot study identified those who criticize juken eigo (English for exams) for their low speaking skill in spite of the nearly six-year English learning:
[I am studying English, *juken eigo*, just for the sake of entrance examinations] Because we cannot speak English even though we studied it [for a long time] at junior high school and high school.

*Juken eigo* is of no practical use. We cannot speak English and we can only write something on a piece of paper. I am very sure that *juken eigo* is useless.

As discussed earlier (see Table 10), nearly 79% of the total 635 participants in the present study were found to believe that *juken eigo* is not useful for communication and 86% of them replied that their English grade is the reflection of their effort rather than their ability. Similarly, as reviewed previously, a large-scale study conducted by an educational research institute affiliated with a Japanese educational firm (Benesse Kyouikukenkyuujo, 1998a) found that among 1,718 university-bound high school students who participated in the survey, 93% of them think that English education would not enable them to speak English. This critical perception against the current English education held by many students seems to be one reason for the weak relationship between students’ self-rated English skills and their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

Another reason for the weak relation between students’ self-rated English skills and their attitudes toward long-term English learning is that a majority of students rate their skills at a novice-level, resulting in the variable (self-rated English skills)’s small variances and therefore its weak power in predicting students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning. Table 11 illustrates that a majority of students in this study rated their English skills at a novice level (Level 1 indicates the lowest level; Level 4 the highest level).
Table 11

Frequency Table on Students' Self-Rated English Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Speaking</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I can hardly speak English.</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I can speak English at a novice level, using formulated expressions.</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>88.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I can speak English for a limited time, using basic expressions.</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>99.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I can speak English fluently for quite long if it is a basic conversation.</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Listening</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I can hardly understand spoken English.</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I can understand English somehow if I have met it before as in textbooks.</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>74.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I can understand English I have not heard before if it is spoken not so fast.</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>99.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I can understand overall contents of English news.</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Writing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I have difficulty writing a few lines in English.</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I can write ten or fewer English lines.</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I can write a short essay in English.</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I can write what I want to express in English with little difficulty.</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Reading</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I have difficulty understanding my textbook.</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I can understand a reading if it is the same level as my textbook.</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>93.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I can understand a long reading at a higher level than my textbook.</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>99.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I can understand contents of English newspapers.</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: ‘Section 2 data set’ was used for this analysis. Some missing data resulted in less than 100 cumulative percent.*
Research Question 4

Examining Gender Differences in Attitudes Toward English Learning

Research question 4: Do gender differences exist in Japanese academic high school students’ attitudes toward English learning? If so, what factors account for the gender differences?

Theoretical Background for the Research Question and Data Analyses

The reviewed literature addressing gender differences in students’ attitudes toward foreign languages and other perceived feminine or masculine school subjects documented: (1) female learners hold more favorable attitudes toward foreign language learning than male learners and (2) gender differences in students’ attitudes toward school subjects stem from social and cultural factors such as gender socialization, gender-patterned social structure, and femininity (or masculinity) associated with school subjects. As mentioned previously, this study hypothesized that Japanese female students are likely to have more positive attitudes toward English learning than their male counterparts and that the nature of English in Japan as the socially accepted choice for women’s education (e.g. major in English literature) and career (e.g. interpreter) is an important basis for women’s positive attitudes toward English learning.

This study examined first if more female high school students were planning to major in English than male students. In Question 4 in Section 2 in the final questionnaire, students were asked to choose one from five alternatives about their future English plans (1: major in English at college; 2: study English personally; 3: never study English; 4: study another foreign language; 5: unknown or others). Table 12 summarizes the result.
Table 12

**Frequency Table on Male and Female Students' Future English learning plan**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future plan</th>
<th>Male (N=242)</th>
<th>Female (N=313)</th>
<th>Total (N=555)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Major in English</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within plan</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within gender</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Study personally</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within plan</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within gender</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. No study</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within plan</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within gender</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Study another FL</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within plan</td>
<td>40.8%</td>
<td>59.2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within gender</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Unknown / others</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within plan</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
<td>48.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within gender</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within group</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>56.4%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within gender</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 'Section 1 & 2 data set' was used for this analysis.

Table 12 shows that more female students plan to major in English-related fields at university than male students. In order to examine if there are statistically significant different patterns of gender differences across the five groups, a two-way MANOVA by plan (5 levels) and gender (2 levels) was conducted on the nine interval variables.
The analysis found that both the plan main effect (Wilks’ Lambda, .76, F (36, 1912.94) = 3.96, p < .001) and the gender main effect (Wilks’ Lambda, .89, F (9, 510) = 7.17, P < .001) were significant. However, the interaction between gender and plan was not significant (Wilks’ Lambda, .95, F (36, 1912.94) = .76, p = .85). The finding of no interaction implies that there are no significantly different patterns of gender differences across the five groups. Because the interaction between gender and plan was not significant, the grouping variable of students’ future English plans (i.e. plan) was dismissed from future analyses.

A one-way MANOVA with the remaining grouping variable, gender, was performed on the nine interval variables. The purpose of the analysis was to examine gender differences among the variables. The result of the MANOVA test showed that the Wilks’ Lambda was significant, F (9, 518) = 9.63, p < .001, indicating that the population means on the nine variables are not the same between male and female students.

Regarding ANOVAs, which are produced as part of the MANOVA, the Bonferroni method was employed and each ANOVA was tested at the .006 level (.05 / 9 = .0055) in order to control for Type I error. The ANOVAs revealed significant gender differences among five variables at the .006 level. The findings are summarized in Table 13.
Table 13

One-way MANOVA: Gender Differences in Japanese Students' English Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes toward long-term English learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23.59</td>
<td>21.76</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>11.92</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in culture and communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.77</td>
<td>28.55</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>29.44</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions about studying English in a school context</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36.00</td>
<td>33.24</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>13.08</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Images associated with English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33.47</td>
<td>30.66</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>38.82</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English learning activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>11.96</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-rated English skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic English grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure to English outside school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26.67</td>
<td>25.25</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification of English role models</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>(1, 518)</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ‘Section 1 & 2 data set’ (N=555) was used for this analysis.

Table 13 shows that female students scored higher than male students in the variables of attitudes toward long-term English learning, interest in learning about the outside world and communicating in English, perceptions about studying English in a school context, and positive images about English. Furthermore, female students were
found to be more frequently involved in English learning activities (e.g. listening to radio English conversation programs) than male students.

Possible Social Backgrounds for the Gender Differences: With Reference to Literature for/on Japanese Young Women

As discussed earlier, a majority of students listed translator, interpreter, flight attendant and English teacher as English-involved professions, which are exclusively or widely occupied by women in Japan. Reflecting the femininity of many English professions, Japanese women’s magazines often carry feature stories about women working as English professionals. The English teaching industry’s advertisements which abound in English learning materials (e.g. monthly textbooks for NHK Radio English Conversation Programs) illustrate that translator-, interpreter-training schools, English conversation schools and other English teaching businesses appeal to women, the primary potential students. Those messages are intended to draw the attention of women by connecting English proficiency to internationalization, intelligence and careers, similar to Item No. 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6. The best example for the connection is manifested in the titles of books written by Japanese women who were/are English professionals.

For example, a former flight attendant is the author of A Passport for Ladies at the Era of Internationalization: Guidebook on How to Live as Intelligent Women Using English (Koga, 1989) (the original title and text are in Japanese; the English title is my translation). Two successful female interpreters are co-authors of the book, English Changes Women (Shinoda & Shinzaki, 1993) (the title and text are in Japanese but the English title is also shown on the cover page along with the Japanese title). A woman working as a translator and an interpreter recently published the book, Women Revive with
English (Yasui, 1999) (the title and text are in Japanese; the English title is my translation).

It is conceivable that receiving the messages aimed at women, they unconsciously come to associate English with positive images such as an intelligent career and develop favorable images about the professional use of English.

Matsui (1997) is a comprehensive research report on her ten-month feminism ethnographic study, characterized by an excellent research design, rich semi-structured interview data (more than 600 pages of transcription), the ideal relationship she established with participants, and the detailed data analyses. These features make this book the most recent distinguished piece of work on Japanese women studying at a two-year women’s college. Referring to Matsui (1997), her previous work (Matsui, 1995) and other related literature on Japanese women, the following discussion aims to speculate about possible backgrounds for Japanese female students’ tendency to be more positive about English learning.

*Kokusaika shikou*, ‘preference for internationalization’ is the term Matsui often employed to discuss female college students’ tendency to identify ‘internationalization’ with white European and American culture (p. 119). She claimed that twenty-eight students who expressed their wish to study or work overseas possess had the *kokusai shikou* and that it was based on their naïve illusion of mainstream European and American people’s lifestyles as ideal, romantic, and high-standard, which lifestyles the students believe are nonexistent in the Japanese society (p. 119). Based on the finding that most of the interviewed students wished to go to the U.S. and associated the country with freedom, friendliness, self-expression, high living standards, and equality, Matsui claimed that those students’ ‘naïve recognition of the U.S.’ stems from not only their ‘uncritical admiration
for American culture' but also their distrust in and dissatisfaction with their Japanese male counterparts who are positioned in the Japanese mainstream culture (p. 213).

Matsui (1997) clearly illustrates that those Japanese young women are located at the periphery of the society, confront constant social pressures from every aspect of the Japanese society, and are obliged to behave and live in a Japanese women-like fashion. Given this difficult situation for women, it is conceivable that their recognition of their marginalized, restricted gender role in Japan in comparison with other western countries leads to young female students’ opposition to the traditional Japanese women’s role and search for a new life either in or outside Japan. For example, most of the students who participated in Matsui’s study were found to recognize that an occupational choice readily available to them is to work as OL (Office Ladies), called “girls” (onninanoko) in the workplace and do clerical work such as photocopying and serving tea for their male colleagues (p. 134). Many students expressed their dissatisfaction with the vocational choice destined to end in marriage and voluntary resignation (p. 134). Instead of acquiescing in the unfair treatment, some of the college students expressed their plan to work as OL just temporarily to earn some money and later invest the money in seeking new life courses either by studying abroad (the two-year college had a sister university in the U.S.) or obtaining more professional skills at training school (p. 134).

According to the official statistics on Japanese people going overseas (Ministry of Justice, 1997), the number of Japanese women at the age of 20-24 who went to the U.S. in 1997 is 518,410, twice as many as the number of Japanese men of the same age who visited the U.S. (255,602). Interestingly, while the number of Japanese women at the age of 25-29 who went to the U.S. in 1997 (566,480) is still larger than the number of men of the same age who went to the U.S. (413,310), the ratio is reversed for Japanese people older than 30.
As shown in Figure 5, more Japanese men in their thirties and forties visited the U.S. than their female counterparts in the same generation. These figures indicate that although twice as many Japanese women in their twenties visit the U.S. for travel and study as their male counterparts, once people reach their thirties, women are no longer free enough to leave their family and go overseas while men in their thirties and forties have the chance to visit the U.S. on business.

Figure 5.
Statistics on the Japanese visiting the U.S. in 1997

Matsui (1995) is based on her dissertation on gender role perceptions held by Japanese and Chinese female students studying at American universities. The data were obtained from 15 Japanese and Chinese students through in-depth, semi-structured interviews. The study documented that those Japanese female university students studying at a state university in the U.S. received little societal and parental encouragement for overseas study, perceived their life in the U.S. as an experience of "cultural exploration" or "self-emancipation" (p. 362), favored the American culture of self-assertiveness and
individualism, and preferred to remain in the U.S. after graduation. Matsui (1995) claimed that “Japanese women’s marginalized status often allows them greater personal freedom that Japanese men as well as Chinese women cannot afford” (p. 367) and that “My Japanese informants often view study abroad as a maximum extension of such freedom and autonomy” (p. 369). The marginalization from the mainstream workforce and the relative freedom to leave the society also hold true for young highly educated women. Iwao (1993) argues:

Many of them [foreign companies in Japan] have attracted bright young women with career ambitions and some foreign language proficiency.... It is not at all an anomaly to find Japanese women on the management staff of foreign companies. They had difficulty finding interesting jobs in Japanese companies, and because working women are not part of the mainstream of the Japanese work force, they are freer to take the risks involved in working with foreign companies. Compared to men, they have less to lose in terms of social standing by not being employed by the companies at the top of the hierarchy of employment prestige in contemporary Japan. (p. 169)

It is documented earlier that Japanese female high school students are more aware than their male counterparts are of gender inequality in the Japanese society (Benesse Kyouikukenkyuujo, 1998b). Similar to female college students’ illusion of an idealized mainstream (white) people’s life in western countries (Matsui, 1997) and OL’s naïve association of English skills with career success and better lives (Tokyo Seimei Hoken Sougou Gaisha, 1997), those high school female students’ perception of women’s unsatisfactory status in Japan in contrast to that in other western countries is likely to lead to their interest in the outside world, particularly the U.S. and English learning/use.

The next chapter summarizes major findings obtained from this study, followed by a discussion of the theoretical and pedagogical significance of this study.
Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusion

Major Findings in This Study

Finding 1: The strongest relation was found between students’ interest in culture and communication and their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

The analysis regarding research question 1 revealed that in the Japanese social milieu students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning was affected most by students’ interest in culture and communication, which variable is composed of integrative orientation to English speaking countries (particularly the U.S.) and outward orientation to the outside world in general (e.g. “I want to communicate with many people in English”; “I want to make friends with people from overseas”). This finding characterizes the Japanese social milieu in which English study is associated not only with American culture but also with more general orientations such as ‘Internationalization,’ ‘globalization’ and ‘cross-cultural communication.’

Finding 2: The second strongest relation was found between students’ perceptions about studying English in a school context and students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning.

The analysis regarding research question 1 also revealed that students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning is affected by students’ perceptions about studying English in their current school context, which variable consisted of items regarding not only students’ like/dislike for English study but also whether they see the linkage between their current English study and the development of their English proficiency (e.g. “I think the English I am learning for juken forms the foundation of my English proficiency”). This
Finding suggests that students’ current learning experience has an influence on their future English learning plan.

**Finding 3:** Almost no relation was found between students’ academic English grade and their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

The educational psychology and SLA research on L2 motivation traditionally equates test score with achievement and examines its relationship with L2 motivation. This conventional equation was not found in this study. Instead, this study yielded the finding that Japanese students’ academic English grade has almost no influence on their attitudes toward long-term English learning. This finding reflects the dominant perception held by Japanese academic students about the English grade: the grade is based on grammar-, reading-, memorization-oriented written tests and does not appropriately represent their English skills. In fact, a majority of students in this study was found to think that their “English grade represents [their] efforts but not [their] ability” (Item 8; see Table 10).

**Finding 4:** A marginal relation was found between students’ self-rated English skills and students’ attitudes toward long-term English learning.

Related to the third finding discussed above, this fourth one provides an important implication: Unlike in conventional SLA research on motivation and proficiency, Japanese university-bound high school students’ (perceived) English proficiency is not a powerful variable to examine their attitudes toward their future plan of continuing to study English. This is because English education at Japanese academic high schools is not administered for the development of communicative English skills, resulting in the underdevelopment of students’ well-balanced English proficiency and in the pervasive perception among the
students that their low proficiency is not their fault but due to their grammar-focused English education.

**Finding 5:** Female high school students were found to score higher than male students in the five variables: attitudes toward long-term English learning, interest in culture and communication, perceptions about studying English in a school context, images associated with English, and English learning activities.

Regarding Japanese social influences upon female students’ more positive attitudes toward current and long-term English learning, this study argued that Japanese women’s marginalized status and related Japanese social elements are likely to be the background for female high school students’ positive attitudes toward English learning. In this study, in order to understand this background, information was gleaned from other studies focusing on different subgroups of Japanese young women (ranging from two-year college students to elite working women). This study suggested a complex relation between gender in a social milieu and language attitudes by demonstrating that an understanding of gender differences among a particular group of L2 learners (academically oriented high school students in Japan in the case of this study) necessitates considerations of extensive, non-linguistic, (feminist) sociological data from related groups of L2 learners.

**Theoretical Implications**

This Study and Chihara and Oller (1978): What The Present Study Explains

Chihara and Oller (1978) surveyed 123 Japanese ‘adults’ (age unknown) enrolled in various levels of EFL classes at a private English language school (YMCA) and examined these learners’ English learning attitudes and English proficiency. English learning
attitudes were measured by the Japanese translation of the questionnaire employed in their related previous study, Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977). EFL proficiency in their study was based on: the cloze test developed by Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977), “a proficiency test consisting of Grammar, Vocabulary, and Listening Comprehension sub-tests” (Chihara & Oller, 1978, p. 57) and ‘self ratings of EFL skill’ which is their students’ rating on five-point scales for understanding, speaking, reading and writing skills (p. 57).

The findings showed weak correlations between factors extracted from the attitude questionnaire and English proficiency. In fact, Chihara and Oller contacted Gardner to ask him for his suggestions on the interpretation of their unexpected findings. Because the findings are contradictory to Gardner and his associates’ research findings, Chihara and Oller (1978) have often been cited as a good example which suggests the different nature of a foreign language learning context from a second language learning context (Au, 1988; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Skehan, 1989; Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Sawaki, 1997).

The purpose of this section is to offer an explanation for some of their findings which were then “not easily explained by any existing theory known to the authors” (Chihara & Oller, 1978, p. 67). This section focuses on the following findings obtained from their study:

- ‘Amount of EFL Study’ did not contribute much to the prediction of Japanese students’ EFL proficiency.
- ‘Pass Exams’ (one of the reasons for studying English) was scarcely correlated with the students’ EFL proficiency.
- ‘Parents’ EFL skill’ did not contribute much to the prediction of Japanese students’ EFL proficiency and was “judged very unimportant by most of the subjects” (p. 66).
The literature reviewed previously in this present thesis provided a picture of the Japanese context: all Japanese students spend six years in studying English as a main school subject before graduating from high school. The type of English they are required to study is, as perceived by students and teachers as well, characterized by its undue focus on grammar, composition, translation and memorization, and limited focus on speaking and listening. Due to the special characteristic of the English taught and tested, it is pervasively known as ‘English for entrance examinations’ (juken eigo). Reflecting such a contextual background, this thesis produced the finding that shows almost no relationship between Japanese academic high school students’ self-reported academic English grade and their attitudes toward their future plan of studying English for other purposes. A marginal relationship was also found between these students’ self-rated English skills and their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

Chihara and Oller’s finding that ‘Amount of EFL Study’ could not predict Japanese students’ EFL proficiency well is due to the fact that although those Japanese students spend 6 years in learning English as a school subject, the six-year study does not necessarily result in their achievement of well-balanced English proficiency. This is because regular school tests and entrance examinations assess only a part of English proficiency such as grammatical and lexical knowledge, while listening and speaking skills are largely dismissed. Naturally, the students study what is to be on the tests. The common result is the underdevelopment of Japanese students’ English communicative skills, in spite of their six-year English study at school.

Another related finding which Chihara and Oller could not explain was that the factor of ‘Pass Exams’ (one of the reasons for studying English) was scarcely correlated
with their students' EFL proficiency. This finding lies in the fact that successful performance in exams at Japanese schools does not require students to possess high English communicative skills. This is because English classes and tests at Japanese schools are not primarily designed for the development and assessment of communicative skills in English. Therefore, Japanese students' good or poor performance in English as a school subject in the Japanese school context rarely indicates those students' communicative abilities.

Finally, Chihara and Oller failed to explain why 'Parents' EFL skill' did not contribute much to the prediction of Japanese students' EFL proficiency and was "judged very unimportant by most of the subjects" (p. 66). Considering the time when the study was conducted (in the late 1970's in Japan) and provided that the students' parents were in their 50's at the time of the study (not known from the study), those parents would have been teenagers at school 40 years ago, i.e. in the late 1930's in Japan. As briefly reviewed at the beginning of this study, it was the war time when learning English, i.e. the "devil language" spoken in the U. S. and UK, was considered as an act of national betrayal. Although Chihara and Oller did not provide (presumably did not collect) the data, it would not be surprising to find that a majority of those research participants' parents had no English learning experiences. Given this Japanese historical background, it is not surprising that parents' EFL skill (possibly severely limited skill) had little to do with students' EFL proficiency.

**Strength of The Present Study**

The strength of this study is its focus on the relationship between social milieu and language attitudes and its consequent ability to explain reasons for research findings on L2
attitudes. The previous section demonstrated that what Chihara and Oller (1978) failed to explain could be explained with the understanding of the Japanese context for students' English learning at school.

Gardner's focus is conventionally on second language achievement and the variables assumed to influence it, particularly motivation. Although he positions social milieu as "a central theme" of his socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985, p. 146), the social milieu, attitudes, and other variables influential on achievement are examined in their relation to second language achievement only. In the barely one-page section headed "The Role of Context" in his paper (Gardner, 1988, p. 121-122), he states: "...there is a need to determine its [cultural context's] effect on the relation of aptitude and attitudes and motivation to proficiency in a second language" (p. 121). Although his focus on L2 achievement has contributed tremendously to SLA research and influenced numerous studies conducted in various research contexts, the weakness of Chihara and Oller (1978), as discussed in the previous section, indicates that the constrained focus on motivation and achievement often results in the minimization of attention to a particular social context and in the failure to offer explanations for research findings.

This present thesis verified the meaningfulness of focusing on a particular social milieu as a source of attitudes by showing its ability to provide an explanation about specific language attitudes characteristic of the Japanese EFL context. Furthermore, the socially embedded findings obtained from the present quantitative study suggested that the context-based perspective and the use of quantitative research methodology can be integrated. This integration results in a better understanding of L2 attitudes in a particular social milieu.
This Study and Gender

As discussed in the literature review chapter, the conventional SLA research on motivation and attitudes addressing gender differences treats gender as something biologically fixed and women and men as two independent groups. A common result is the documentation of gender differences in attitudes toward foreign language learning and the recognition of difficulty in explaining those differences such as “We recognise the difficulty for researchers in gaining a clear picture of pupils’ perceptions of subjects taught in school, especially as regards sex differences” (Powell & Batters, 1985, p. 20).

The present study documented that a careful consideration of the Japanese context (e.g. the English industry’s association of English proficiency with professional career and women’s awareness of the gender inequality in Japan) could lead to a new understanding of women’s positive perceptions about the use of English in or outside Japan. These findings suggested that the conventional treatment of gender differences in research on foreign language learning “as a bottom line explanation” should be abandoned and replaced with the perspective that gender is “a social construction needing explanation itself” (Cameron, 1992, p. 61) in order to understand accurately gender differences in foreign language learners. Although the data to interpret the gender differences identified in this study were drawn from other previous studies, not from the original data of this study, this study introduced the feminist sociological concept of gender into L2 attitudinal research and yielded a new understanding of gender as a socio-culturally embedded phenomenon.

Pedagogical Implications

The present study provides several pedagogical implications for Japanese teachers of English at university preparatory high schools. First, the finding that students’ attitudes
toward long-term English learning are influenced by their interest in culture and communication in English and their perceptions about studying English at school indicates that in order to develop and sustain students' positive attitudes toward long-term English learning, it is important to offer English classes which enrich students' English learning experiences at school and foster their interest in the cultural and communicative aspect of English learning.

Secondly, teachers should be aware of the influences of their English classes upon students' perceptions about English study, which were found to influence their attitudes toward long-term English learning. Efforts should be made to create opportunities for students to express their perceptions about their present English study and future English plans. Students' seemingly uncritical and committed attitudes toward English study at school should neither be taken for granted nor equated with their satisfaction with their present English education.

A third implication stems from the finding that students' English academic grade and their (largely underdeveloped) English skills poorly predict their attitudes toward long-term English learning. Japanese teachers of English at university preparatory schools should be critically aware of the unsolved incompatibility between the English taught at school and the English used in the world (or what students wish to master), and bear in mind that English instruction is supposed to assist not only students' admission into universities but also their long-term English learning.

Finally, this study provides an implication concerned with gender differences in Japanese students' attitudes toward English learning. Female students' more positive attitudes toward English learning and their tendency to choose English as a major should not be taken for granted or uncritically conceived as a common trend. The finding that their
attitudes toward English learning are intertwined with Japanese social factors such as the feminization of the English profession and the marginalized status of women in the job market should be useful for teachers to reflect upon their students' decision-making on academic choices.

Conclusion

This study found that on the one hand, students’ interest in learning about the outside world and communicating with people in English and their perceptions about studying English as a main school subject have a profound impact on their attitudes toward long-term English learning. On the other hand, students’ self-reported academic English grade and their self-rated English skills were found to have little influence on their attitudes toward long-term English learning.

This study demonstrated that the rationale for these findings lies in the Japanese university-bound high school context in which English instruction places undue emphasis on entrance examinations and results in the students’ underdevelopment of English communicative skills, as perceived both by the students and teachers. Regarding gender differences, female students were found to be more positive toward their current and future English learning. It was argued, drawing on data from the recent literature on young Japanese women, that Japanese women’s marginalized status in the society and related social elements are likely to cause women’s positive attitudes toward English learning.

These findings embedded in the Japanese social context bear out the importance of examining a particular social context in order to understand the background for foreign language learning attitudes. This knowledge should be pivotal to the further development
of SLA research on attitudes which often neglects and fails to offer explanations for research findings on L2 attitudes because of its restricted focus on motivation and L2 proficiency and minimum attention to social milieu.
References


Appendix A: English Version Questionnaire for the Final Study

Purpose of questionnaire and directions

- The purpose of this questionnaire is to study Japanese high school students' perceptions of English study.
- You do not have to spend much time in answering to each question. But please answer all the questions honestly.
- If you have difficulty choosing only one answer, please recall your own experiences of or ideas about English and choose an answer which you think best expresses those experiences and ideas of your own.
- Responses collected from you all are to be processed for statistical analyses by a computer.
- Your name is not necessary for this survey.
- This survey has nothing to do with school evaluation of your academic performance.
- No one except for me will ever use data collected from you all.
- This questionnaire consists of Section 1 and Section 2.
- This questionnaire is developed so that it can be completed within 30 minutes.

- Sample answer for Section 1

Please read each statement below and circle only one alternative out of six choices.

(Sample statement): I dislike English study.

strongly moderately somehow somehow strongly strongly
agree agree agree disagree disagree disagree

Incorrect ways of answering

strongly moderately somehow somehow moderately strongly
agree agree agree disagree disagree disagree

strongly moderately somehow somehow moderately strongly
agree agree agree disagree disagree disagree
Grade ( )
Class ( )
Gender: Male ( ) Female ( )

Section 1

1. I think the English we are studying for entrance examinations will be of no use in the future.
   
   | strongly | moderately | somehow | somehow | moderately | strongly |
   | agree    | agree      | agree   | disagree| disagree  | disagree  |

   (*A six-point Likert-scale is not shown hereafter in this appendix*)

2. Professions involving use of English sound intelligent.
3. I think *juken eigo* is not for communication.
4. I want to get into a profession which gives me a chance to use English.
5. Studying English for entrance examinations is a good opportunity to build up grammar and vocabulary.
6. I think I will be able to master English in the future.
7. I hate all the things we have to study as *juken eigo*.
8. I think I am a type of person who can enjoy learning any foreign languages.
9. I envy people who can speak English fluently.
10. English proficiency is very important for the internationalization of Japan.
11. I think people who master English can rely on its proficiency to earn money.
12. Many *buzinesu mann* (career men) are learning and using English lately.
13. I like to study English.
14. There are some interesting parts in studying *juken eigo*.
15. English study at school raised my interest in learning English.
16. I have had many bad experiences with English study so far.
17. I came to dislike English itself because of the English study for entrance examinations.
18. My English achievement represents my efforts, not my ability.
19. I am going to continue to learn English even if I am not sure how likely there will be any chance to use English in the future.
20. I am interested in learning about life and culture in English-speaking countries.
21. I have a feeling that women are better at English than men.
22. I am good at English.
23. I want to become friends with people from overseas.
24. I will never study English after juken is over.
25. I want to communicate with many people in English.
26. I feel attracted to American culture and life in the U. S.
27. I am learning English now just because it is a school subject required for juken.
28. I want to master American English.
29. I like English classes.
30. I think the English I am learning for juken forms the foundation of my English proficiency.
31. I am interested in learning about various kinds of languages and culture.
32. I think lack of English proficiency will be a major hindrance to my successful job seeking activities.
33. I need to learn English since it is the era of internationalization.
34. English is the most promising school subject for future use.
35. I want to make efforts to speak a local language if I have a chance to go abroad.
36. English-related occupations remind me of women’s work.
37. I am happy about learning English at school, not other foreign languages.
38. I want to choose a life path which does not require foreign language learning.
39. I am thinking of starting to study English by myself in the future.
40. The ability to handle English gives a sense of being educated.
41. I think it is cool to be able to speak English fluently.
42. I am going to take English courses at university even if they are not compulsory as long as they are effective.
Section 2

1. Please circle all the English activities you have done:
( ) joining English study club at school or outside school
( ) going to an English conversation school
( ) using TV or radio English conversation programs
( ) buying English conversation materials (books, CD, cassette tapes, videos, etc.)
( ) reading English books, watching English movies, listening to English music
( ) reading newspapers or watching English news
( ) taking eiken or English tests not designed for entrance examinations
( ) staying or traveling in English speaking regions (the U.S., England, etc.)

2. If you recode the full mark of all the English tests you have take so far at high school into 100 and calculate the average of your test scores, which category is the closest to the average? Please choose only one category.

( ) above 80
( ) 70-80
( ) 60-70
( ) 50-60
( ) 40-50
( ) 30-40
( ) 20-30
( ) below 20
3. Please choose only one sentence each which describes your English skill the best. The first sentence implies the highest English skill.

Your English speaking skill:
( ) I can speak English fluently for quite long if it is a basic conversation.
( ) I can speak English for a limited time, using basic expressions.
( ) I can speak English at a novice level, using formulated expressions.
( ) I can hardly speak English.

Your listening skill:
( ) I can understand overall contents of English news.
( ) I can understand English I have not heard before if it is spoken not so fast.
( ) I can understand English somehow if I have met it before as in textbooks.
( ) I can hardly understand spoken English.

Your writing skill:
( ) I can write what I want to express in English with little difficulty.
( ) I can write a short essay in English.
( ) I can write ten or fewer English lines.
( ) I have difficulty writing a few lines in English.

Your reading skill:
( ) I can understand contents of English newspapers.
( ) I can understand a long reading at a higher level than my textbook.
( ) I can understand a reading if it is the same level as my textbook.
( ) I have difficulty understanding my textbook.
4. Regarding your future plan for English study after you graduate from high school: please circle only one which you are most likely to choose.

( ) major in English (English literature, English language, language culture, etc.)
( ) study English personally
( ) never study foreign languages at all
( ) study a foreign language other than English
( ) others (  )

5. How often do you see or hear English in your daily life? Please choose the most appropriate answer among six alternatives below and circle your choice.

very often relatively often sometimes not much seldom never

(1) English in TV commercials
(2) English in Japanese TV programs (e.g. interviews in English
(3) English in Japanese pop music
(4) English in Japanese radio programs
(5) Topics on English (learning) in Japanese newspapers or magazines
(6) English TV programs or news (including one with Japanese interpretation)
(7) English newspapers or English magazines
(8) English books
(9) English music
(10) English movies

6. Do you know anyone personally who can use English practically to a certain extent?

Yes (  ) No (  )
7. For those who answered "Yes" above: who are those who can use English?

( ) English teacher(s) at high school
( ) English teacher(s) at cram school
( ) parent(s)
( ) brother(s) or sibling(s)
( ) relative(s)
( ) Japanese friend(s) of mine
( ) international friend(s) of mine
( ) others ( )

Thank you very much for your cooperation!
Appendix B: English Version Letter of Consent for the Pilot and Final Study

Dear Mr. / Ms. [the name of a principal],

I am writing this letter to you in order to ask you to give me permission for conducting research at your school. Since I entered university to specialize in English education, I have always been interested in Japanese people’s attitudes towards the outside world and foreign culture, especially towards English, English speaking people, and their culture. After I obtained a MA in English education, I decided to further pursue my academic interest. Since September 1996, I have enrolled a Ph.D. program at The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT) in Toronto, Canada. Supported by excellent thesis committee members (Dr. Merrill Swain, Dr. Gila Hanna, and Dr. Birgit Harley), I have started to do research for my doctoral dissertation this April, focusing on Japanese high school students’ perceptions of English study.

My study does not aim for the evaluation of English classes, teachers or students at your school. The main purpose of the study is to: (1) obtain free writings completed by students about their perceptions about studying English (the form for the writing is enclosed with this letter), (2) obtain numerical data from your students in the form of written, multiple-choice questionnaires, which are enclosed with this letter, (3) codify the data for statistical analyses, and (4) elicit main perceptions of English held by those students, who, I believe, can represent the population of Japanese high school students at public high schools designed for entrance examinations (futsuu shingatkou) in Japan. I also want you to allow me to do field work at your school such as interviews with teachers. The name of your school or students will not be identified in my dissertation. The identification
is not necessary in this study which aims for a certain degree of generalization based on the data provided by your students.

I wonder if it would be possible for you to take some time to meet me and discuss issues concerning my request for conducting research at your school and conditions for the research. Since I am fully aware that you are very busy, please allow me to call you around [a suggestion for the data when I am going to call] rather than asking you to contact me.

Thank you very much for having read this letter. I would really appreciate it if you could support me with my research. I am looking forward to meeting with you soon.

Sincerely yours,
Yoko Kobayashi
Ph.D. candidate, Second language education program

Modern Language Centre
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto
252 Bloor Street West
Toronto, Ontario
Canada M5S 1V6
Dear Principal [ ],

I greatly appreciate your having agreed to allow me to conduct research at your school. As part of the ethical review procedures regulated by the Graduate Studies Office at the University of Toronto, I need to ask you to provide me with a written informed consent. I would truly appreciate it if you could read the following conditions of my conducting research at your school and, providing you agree with all the conditions, could put your signature on the bottom of this letter as a written informed consent.

The main purpose of my study is to: (1) obtain free writings completed by students about their perceptions about studying English, (2) obtain numerical data from your students in the form of written, multiple-choice questionnaires, (3) codify the data for statistical analyses, and (4) elicit main perceptions of English held by those students, who, I believe, can represent the population of Japanese high school students at public high schools designed for entrance examinations (fuṣsu shingatkou) in Japan. I also would like to do field work at your school such as interviews with teachers. The name of your school or students will not be identified in my dissertation. Upon the completion of the doctoral dissertation, I will produce copies of a leaflet on major findings revealed in my study and provide copies to you, the classroom teachers who are going to collaborate with me, and the participants. It would be very helpful if you could send this letter back to me. I thank you in advance.

Sincerely yours,
Yoko Kobayashi
Ph.D. candidate, Second language education program
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto

I. [the name of the principal], hereby agree with the research conditions described above by Yoko Kobayashi and provide her with my written informed consent.

[signature of the principal himself] [data]
アンケート調査の目的と注意事項

・ このアンケート調査の目的は日本人高校生の英語学習観を調べることにあります。
・ 各質問項目に時間をかけて頂く必要はありませんが、すべての質問項目に、正直に回答して頂きますようお願いします。
・ 回答の選択に迷った時は、皆さん個人個人の日常生活での経験や考えを思い出し、その経験・考えを最もよく表現すると思われる回答を選択して下さい。
・ 皆さんから頂いた回答はコンピューターにより統計処理されます。
・ みなさんの個人名はこの調査に必要ありません。
・ このアンケート調査は学校側の学業評価とは全く無関係です。
・ 本調査担当者以外が皆さんの回答を利用することは絶対にありません。
・ アンケートはセクション１とセクション２のふたつで構成されています。
・ アンケートへの回答はおよそ３０分で終了できるように作成されています。

セクション１への回答例

質問項目を読んで、以下の６つの選択肢のいずれかひとつだけの上に○をつけてください。

例文）英語の勉強がきらいた。

強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど  全然
そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思わない  そう思わない  そう思わない

好ましくない回答の仕方

強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど  全然
そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思わない  そう思わない  そう思わない

強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど  全然
そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思わない  そう思わない  そう思わない

ではページをめくって回答をはじめてください。
まず以下を記入してください。

学年（ ）
クラス（ ）
性別 男（ ） 女（ ）

セクション1(42問)

1. 今受験のために勉強している英語は将来何の役にも立たないと思う。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

2. 英語を使う仕事は知的な感じがする。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

3. 受験英語はコミュニケーションのための英語ではないと思う。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

4. 将来英語を使う機会のある職業につきたい。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

5. 受験のために英語を勉强するのは文法や単語を覚えるのにいい機会だ。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

6. 私は将来英語をマスターできると思う。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

7. 受験英語として勉强しなくてはならない内容がすべてたらいった。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

8. 私はどんな外国語でも楽しんで学習できるタイプだと思う。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

9. 英語をぺらぺらしゃべることができるのはうらやましい。
   強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
   そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

10. 日本の国際化のためには英語力はとても重要だ。
    強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
    そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う

11. 英語をマスターしたらその英語力を利用して収入が得られると思う。
    強く  たしかに  どちらかといえば  どちらかといえば  ほとんど 全然
    そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う  そう思う
12. 最近は多くのビジネスマンが英語を勉強したり実際に使ったりしている。

13. 私は英語の勉強をするのが好きだ。

14. 受験英語でもおもしろいところはある。

15. 学校で英語を学ぶことがきっかけで英語学習への興味が深まった。

16. 英語の勉強ではこれまでにたくさんの難な思いをしている。

17. 受験勉強のせいで英語そのものが嫌いになった。

18. 私の英語の成績は能力の問題ではなく労をしたかしないかの表れだと思う。

19. 英語を使う機会が将来どの程度あるかわからないけれども私は英語を学習し続けた。

20. 私は英語圏での生活や文化に興味がある。

21. 女性の方が男性より英語が得意な感じがする。

22. 私は英語が得意だ。

23. 外国人の友達・知り合いがほしい。

24. 受験が終わったら二度と英語の勉強はしない。
25.英語でたくさんの方とコミュニケーションしたい。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

26.アメリカ文化やアメリカでの生活についてかれる。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

27.私が今英語を勉強しているのは単に英語が受験科目だからだ。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

28.アメリカ英語をマスターしたい。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

29.私は英語の授業が好きだ。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

30.受験のために勉強している英語は私の英語力の基礎になっていると思う。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

31.私は様々な言語や文化に興味がある。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

32.英語力がなくなったら私が就職活動をする際大きなマイナス要素になると思う。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

33.国際化時代なので私は英語を学ぶ必要がある。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

34.他の教科に比べて英語は私にとって将来一番利用価値の高い科目だ。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

35.外国に行く機会があったたらその国の言葉を話せるように努力したい。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

36.‘英語力をいかした職業’と聞くと女性をイメージする。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

37.学校で他の外国語ではなく英語を学んでいることはうれしい。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない

38.将来は外国語を勉強する必要のない進路を選びたい。

強い　たかに　どちらかというと　どちらかというと　ほとんど　全然
そう思う　もう　もう　そうそう　そうそう　そうでない　そうでない　そうでない
39.将来自分で英語を勉強し直そうと思っている。
強く たしかに どちらかというと どちらかというと ほとんど 全然
そう思う そう思う そう思う そうは思わない そう思わない そう思わない

40.英語が使えると教養がありそうな感じがする。
強く たしかに どちらかというと どちらかというと ほとんどの 全然
そう思う そう思う そう思う そうは思わない そう思わない そう思わない

41.英語を流暢にしゃべることができたらかっこいいと思う。
強く たしかに どちらかというと どちらかというと ほとんど 全然
そう思う そう思う そう思う そうは思わない そう思わない そう思わない

42.大学で本当にいい英語の授業があったら必修でなくても受講するつもりだ。
強く たしかに どちらかというと どちらかというと ほとんど 全然
そう思う そう思う そう思う そうは思わない そう思わない そう思わない

セクション2 (13問)

1.以下の方法で英語を学んだことがあっただけ、その方法に○をして下さい（複数回答可）。

( ) 学校でまたは学校内で英語クラブに加入
( ) 英会話学校に通学
( ) テレビ、ラジオの英会話講座を受講
( ) 共学対策用以外英会学習教材を購入(テキスト、CD、カセットテープ、ビデオなど)
( ) 洋書、洋画、洋楽を英語学習に利用
( ) 英字新聞や英語のニュースを利用
( ) 英検など大学受験準備以外の英語テスト受験
( ) 英語圏(アメリカ、イギリスなど)での滞在経験(旅行、語学研修、ホームステイなど)

2.あなたが高校でこれまでに受けた英語のテストをすべて百点満点とし、その結果の平均点を計
算したとすると、その平均点はおおよそ以下のどの分類に当てはまりますか。ひとつだけに○
をつけてください。

( ) 80以上
( ) 70-80
( ) 60-70
( ) 50-60
( ) 40-50
( ) 30-40
( ) 20-30
( ) 20以下
3. あなたの現在の英語力について当てはまる文をそれぞれひとつだけ選んでください。各選択肢とも最も英語力の高いことを示す文から始まっています。

英語を話すことについて:
( ) 日常会話ならかなり流暢に長いことしゃべれる。
( ) 基本的な表現を使って限られた時間内会話を続けられる。
( ) 決まり文句を使いながらカタコト程度にしゃべれる。
( ) ほとんど何もしゃべれない。

英語を聞くことについて:
( ) 英語のニュースなどが内容が分かる程度に聞き取れる。
( ) それほど速くないスピードだったら習ったことのない内容でもある程度聞き取れる。
( ) 教科書の内容など習ったことがある英語ならなんとか聞き取れる。
( ) ほとんど何も聞き取れない。

英語を書くことについて:
( ) かなり自由に英語で言いたいことが書ける。
( ) 英語で短いエッセイくらいなら書ける。
( ) 10行以下の英文くらいなら書ける。
( ) 2、3行の英作文でも苦労する。

英語を読むことについて:
( ) 英字新聞の内容がつかめる。
( ) 教科書より高いレベルの長文でも内容がつかめる。
( ) 教科書レベルの英文ならあまり苦労しないで内容が理解できる。
( ) 教科書の内容をつかむのに苦労する。

4. 高校卒業後のあなたの英語学習計画について：最も当てはまりそうものをひとつだけ選んでください。
( ) 進学先の大学・短大・専門学校などで英語を専攻する（英文科、英語科、言語文化科など）。
( ) 個人的に英語の勉強をする。
( ) 大学でも個人的にも外国語は全く勉強しない。
( ) 英語以外の外国語を大学か個人的に勉強する。
( ) その他 ( )
5. 使用する言語に関して：将来あなたが選択したい場所はどれですか。ひとつだけ選んで下さい。
( ) 職場でも私生活でも主に日本語が
( ) 職場でも私生活でも主に日本語が
( ) 職場でも私生活でも主に日本語が
( ) 職場でも私生活でも主に日本語が
( ) 外資系企業など、職場で英語を長時間日常的に使う。
( ) 通訳業、翻訳業など、英語の資格をいかして独立またはパートタイムで働く。
( ) 英語教師として、日本人を相手に英語を教える。
( ) 英語以外の外国語を職場か私生活で使う。
( ) その他( )

6. あなたは日常生活のなかでどの程度英語を見聞きしますか。以下の6つの選択肢から最も適当な回答を選び、その上に○をつけてください。

(1) テレビのコマーシャルのなかの英語

非常に頻繁に かなり頻繁に ときどき あまり ほとんど 全く
みる みる みる みる みる みる

(2) 日本のテレビ局の番組のなかの英語（英語でのインタビューや日本人アナウンサーの英語など）

非常に頻繁に かなり頻繁に ときどき あまり ほとんど 全く
みる みる みる みる みる みる

(3) 邦楽（日本人歌手のうた）のなかの英語

非常に頻繁に かなり頻繁に ときどき あまり ほとんど 全く
聞く 听く 听く 听く 听く 听く

(4) 日本のラジオ局の番組のなかの英語

非常に頻繁に かなり頻繁に ときどき あまり ほとんど 全く
聞く 听く 听く 听く 听く 听く

(5) 日本語の新聞・雑誌のなかの英語（学習）の話題

非常に頻繁に かなり頻繁に ときどき あまり ほとんど 全く
みる みる みる みる みる みる

(6) アメリカなどの英語のテレビ番組やニュース番組（日本語音声がある場合も含めて）

非常に頻繁に かなり頻繁に ときどき あまり ほとんど 全く
みる みる みる みる みる みる
7.あなたが直接知っているひとで英語がある程度使える人がいますか。次のいずれかに〇をつけてください。

いる（  ）  いない（  ）

「いる」という方への質問：その知り合いのかたはどなたですか。〇をつけてください（複数回答可）。
（  ）高校の英語の先生
（  ）塾の英語の先生
（  ）親
（  ）兄弟・姉妹
（  ）親戚
（  ）日本人の友達
（  ）外国人の友達
（  ）その他 （  ）

大変お疲れさまでした。

ご協力どうもありがとうございました。
Appendix D: Japanese Original Letter of Consent for the Pilot and Final Study

1998年3月29日

差出人:
小林葉子
トロント大学大学院博士課程

謹啓

日本から桜の開花宣言の知らせが届く時期になりました。こちらカナダ東部のトロントでもようやく長い冬が終わり、日差しに温かさが感じられるようになりました。さて先日[個人名]先生より、わたくしが[調査学校名]にて博士論文のための調査をするのを[個人名]校長先生が許可してくださった、との連絡を受けました。心よりお礼を申し上げます。誠にありがとうございました。

先日の手紙のなかにも少し書かせて頂きましたが、トロント大学の学生は研究を行う段階以前に、調査対象者のプライバシー保護など、トロント大学が定めます倫理規定に従うことを証明するための書類を大学側に提出しなくてはなりません。わたくしも博士論文のための研究を開始します前に、倫理規定を遵守することを証明する書類を提出することを求められております。お忙しいなか大変申しわけないのですが、その必要書類の大切なひとつとしまして、わたくし[調査学校名]にて調査を行うことに対し正式の許可として本書の末尾に[個人名]校長先生の署名を頂けませんでしょうか。以下にわたくしの研究の目的などをまとめさせて頂きましたので、ご一読頂きましてから署名をご記入頂けましたら幸いです。ではなにとぞよろしく御願い致します。

謹白
小林葉子

トロント大学大学院博士課程
第二言語教育プログラム
研究調査への承諾書

研究調査者：小林葉子（こばやしようこ）
現在の所属：カナダ、トロント大学大学院博士課程第二言語教育専攻

博士論文題目
Japanese High School Students’ Perceptions of English Study

研究目的
本研究では英語を外国語科目として学習している日本人高校生に焦点を当て、日本人高校生がどのような英語・英語学習観を抱いているのか、またどのような日本の社会要素が高校生の英語学習観に影響をおよぼしているか、について調査したいと思っております。

研究計画
（1）第1回目、第2回目のアンケート調査
アンケート調査用紙のセクション1では英語・英語学習観、日本語・日本人観、英語学習と将来の関連性など、60ほどの質問項目で構成、セクション2では将来の進路、受験以外の英語学習経験など、個人情報に関する質問内容で構成する予定です（アンケート回答は30分ほどで終了すると思われます）。アンケート調査の目的は被験者である高校生に関するデータ傾向、彼らの英語・英語学習観、その男女差を調べることにあります。実施時期は第1回目が1998年新学期（対象2年生）、第2回目が1998年2学期（対象1年生）を希望いたしております。実施時期と場所（授業時間中か各生徒自宅でしょうか）については学校側と先生がたに最終決断をお任せしますが、回収率やアンケート回答への態度などについても考慮から、学校で調査を実施して頂きますことを理想としております。
（2）自由作文
アンケート調査に加えて、数十人の生徒のかたに短い自由文を繰ってもらいたいと思っております。この調査の目的は、選択式のアンケート調査では把握しきれない、高校生がそれぞれ英語に対して考えていることを理解することにあります。調査の内容は、無差別に選ばれた生徒60人ほど（一学期1学年より30人、二学期1学年より30人）が自宅で「英語または英語学習について感じていること」について自由に、白紙に一枚以内に書いてもらう、というものであります。回収の仕方としましては生徒のかたが直接私あてに用紙を郵送してもらいたいと思っております。

（3）フィールドワーク
英語担当の先生がたより先生方の英語学習観などについてお話伺いたいと思っています。また各クラスの人数、男女比など、調査参加者に関する統計的データ収集をさせて頂きたいと思います。

研究調査結果の報告
調査結果は[調査学校名]という特定の学校ではなく、「日本の公立普通進学高校に在籍する高校生」として一般化し、公表いたします。調査結果は私の博士論文になりますし、その内容につきまして学会、学会紀要や専門誌のなかで公表いたしたいと思っておりますが、[調査学校名]の名前と生徒のみなさんの個人名はいかなる状況に置きても、決して公表いたしません。また生徒のみなさんから収集いたしましたデータはわたたくし個人の研究目的のみに使用させて頂き、第三者の手に渡すことは絶対にありませんことをここに固くお約束いたします。大まかな調査結果がまとまりましたら、校長先生をはじめ、調査に参加して下さった先生がたや生徒のみなさんにその調査結果をまとめた冊子を準備、配布させて頂くことを考えております。

トロント大学大学院の博士論文のための調査として、___________が本校[調査学校名]にて上記の研究を実施することを[調査学校名]校長として正式に許可する。

署名__________________印　日付
Appendix E: Histogram of Nine Interval Variables Used in This Study

Four variables created from Section 1 of the questionnaire
('Section 1 data set' was used; N=635)

- Attitudes toward long-term English learning (M = 22.5; SD = 6.08)

- Interest in culture and communication (M = 30.0; SD = 6.89)
Perceptions about studying English in a school context ($M = 34.4; SD = 8.84$)

Images associated with English ($M = 32.0; SD = 5.45$)
Five variables created from Section 2 of the questionnaire
('Section 2 data set' was used; N = 634)

- English learning activities ($M = 1.3; SD = 1.25$)

- Academic English grade ($M = 5.2; SD = 1.45$)
- Self-rated English skills ($M = 7.4$; $SD = 1.84$)

- Exposure to English outside school ($M = 26.0$; $SD = 6.69$)
Identification of English role models ($M = 1.6; SD = 1.16$)