Attitudes to and motivation for learning English in Japan

with special reference to first-year university students

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to determine Japanese first-year university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English.

A successful English-language education system is crucial for Japan, under great pressure to internationalise during her most prolonged recession ever. To help make the education system successful, knowledge of learners' attitudes and motivation is essential.

Chapter 1 discusses Japan as a stage for English-language education. Japan is identified as uniquely homogenous and insular. Internationalisation of industry and a drop in the college-age population forcing universities to compete for students are identified as recent phenomena driving reform in the English-language education system.

Chapter 2 describes the roughly 130-year history of Japanese English-language education from first contact to the present day. Changes in the English-language education policies of successive Japanese governments are discussed through examination of the Ministry of Education 'Course of Study' guidelines.

Chapter 3 surveys the theoretical literature on attitudes and motivation in foreign and second language learning. Significant and relevant empirical research from Japan and other countries is reviewed.

Chapter 4 determines an approach to the main research question through a number of subsidiary questions, using the theoretical framework from Chapter 3. A detailed research design (methods, schedule, and data collection procedures) is drawn up and discussed.

Chapter 5 presents and analyses the findings of the two questionnaires which form the main data collection method. The computer program SPSS is used in analysis.

Chapter 6 presents and analyses the findings of the two group interviews and two

individual interviews by categorising and descriptive explanation.

Chapter 7, the final chapter, reviews the research process and answers the subsidiary and main research questions. Key themes are that Japanese students are highly motivated to learn English for communication, and that the English classes currently offered at universities do not meet the demands of Japanese students. These answers and themes are used as the basis for some recommendations for English-language education in Japan.

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Table of Contents

(Index of Figures: page ix)

(Index of Tables: page x)

(List of Acronyms: page xiii)

Chapter 1: Climate of ELT and ELL at tertiary level 1
1.1 INTRODUCTION 1
1.2 SOCIAL CHANGES DRIVING ENGLISH-LANGUAGE EDUCATION REFORM 2
1.21 Japan facing demands of rapid internationalization *2*
1.22 English the language of international communication *3*
1.23 English therefore an increasingly important skill in Japan *4*
1.24 Popular evaluation of the educational system using TOEFL and TOEIC scores *4*
1.25 Careful evaluation of the system shows real problems *5*
1.3 DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE DRIVING ENGLISH-LANGUAGE EDUCATION REFORM 7
1.31 English in the entrance examination system *7*
1.32 Students and teaching examination-oriented *8*
1.33 Effect of the shrinking pool of students *10*
1.34 Industry also driving English-language education reform *11*
1.4 JAPAN AS A STAGE FOR ENGLISH-LANGUAGE EDUCATION 12
1.41 Japanese society: isolated and homogenous *12*
1.42 Impact of cultural and linguistic homogeneity on EFL in Japan *13*
1.43 Japanese language: no clear relatives *13*
1.44 Impact of this linguistic distance on EFL in Japan *14*
1.5 THE NEED FOR RESEARCH 14
1.51 Provisional research question *15*
1.52 Inquiry restricted to first-year students *15*
1.6 SUMMARY 15

Chapter 2: Historical Background of English-language Education in Japan................ 17

2.1 INTRODUCTION.. 17

2.2 DAWN OF ENGLISH-LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN JAPAN: LATE EDO PERIOD (1808 – 1867) 17

2.21 From first transitory contact in 1600 17

2.22 Dutch dominant foreign language 18

2.23 Start of English-language education prompted by British attack on Dutch in Japan 18

2.24 Western pressure ends isolationist Tokugawa shogunate.. 19

2.3 MEIJI (1867–1911) AND TAISHO (1912–1925) PERIODS 20

2.31 Promoter of English-language education Yukichi Fukuzawa 20

2.32 Meiji government promotes English as language of technology 21

2.33 English briefly the language of instruction.. 22

2.34 English becomes a purely academic subject.. 23

2.35 Shift from native English teachers to Japanese English teachers.................................. 23

2.36 Debates on whether to make English an elective or minor subject 24

2.4 SHOWA PERIOD UNTIL THE END OF WORLD WAR II (1927–1944)..................................... 25

2.41 Harold Palmer and the attempted reform of English-language education........................ 25

2.42 Nationalist movements denounce English-language education during World War II 26

2.5 SHOWA PERIOD AFTER WORLD WAR II (1945–1988)... 26

2.51 Sudden need for communicative English during Allied occupation 26

2.52 Debates on proper focus of English-language education: utilitarian or cultural 27

2.53 'Course of Study' guidelines for English-language education in secondary schools 29

2.6 HEISEI PERIOD (1989–PRESENT)... 29

2.61 Current English-language education: elementary and secondary school......................... 30

2.62 Current English-language education: higher education 30

2.63 Perception of current Japanese university students.. 31

2.7 GOVERNMENT POLICY ON ENGLISH-LANGUAGE EDUCATION 32

2.71 Changes of policy in Course of Study guidelines.. 33

2.71a Course of Study guidelines, 1958 33

2.71b Course of Study guidelines, 1989 34

2.71c Comparison of Course of Study guidelines, 1958 and 1989.. 35

2.71d Course of Study guidelines, 1999 35

2.71e Comparison of Course of Study guidelines, 1989 and 1999.. 36

2.72 JET Programme brings native English speakers into high school classrooms.................. 37

2.73 Kokusaika (internationalisation) and Kokusairikai (international understanding) 38

2.74 New measures in English-language education 40

2.8 SUMMARY 40

Chapter 3: Theoretical Background of Attitude and Motivation 42
3.1 INTRODUCTION – THE IMPORTANCE OF AFFECTIVE VARIABLES 42
3.2 ATTITUDE 43
3.21 Definition of 'Attitude'.. 43
3.21a Problems with determining individual attitudes in the Japanese context...................... 44
3.21b Changing attitudes 46
3.22 Attitudes in foreign language education 46
3.22a Attitudes play important role in FLL 46
3.22b Wide variety of attitudes relevant to FLL 48
3.23 Empirical research into attitudes to learning English 49
3.23a Asian students: obedient and unquestioning in the language classroom? 49
3.23b One Japanese girl's attitudes to foreign languages in the U.S. 52
3.24 Social distance, geographic distance, psychological distance and linguistic distance 53
3.3 MOTIVATION 55
3.31 Definition of 'Motivation' 55
3.31a Distinction between attitude and motivation 57
3.32 Motivation in foreign language learning 59
3.32a Dichotomy theory (social psychological model) of motivation 59
3.32b Critical expansions to the dichotomy theory 62
3.32c Self-determination theory of motivation 64
3.32d Dörnyei's model of motivation 68
3.32e Important relationship between type and strength of motivation 69
3.32f 'Motivation' of not only students but also national/educational systems 70
3.32g Theory of motivation in FLL: summary 71
3.33 Anxiety 71
3.33a Definition of 'Anxiety' 71
3.33b Language anxiety 72
3.34 Learning Strategy 74
3.34a Definition of 'Language Learning Strategy' 74
3.34b Learning strategy and the present research 75
3.35 Empirical research into FLL motivation in Japan 75
3.35a Studies suggesting that students are 'personally' or integratively motivated 77
3.35b Studies suggesting that students are primarily instrumentally motivated 78
3.4 SUMMARY 80

Chapter 4: Research 82

4.1 INTRODUCTION 82

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTION; TEN SUBSIDIARY QUESTIONS 82

4.21 Restriction of Research in the Japanese context 85

4.3 RESEARCH METHOD 86

4.31 Quantitative vs. Qualitative 87

4.32 Positivist vs. Interpretivist 88

4.33 Subjectivity and Reflexivity 90

4.34 Research methods for the present research 93

4.4 RESEARCH SCHEDULE 94

4.5 FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE 96

4.51 Preliminary study for questionnaire 96

4.52 Sample for the main research 98

4.53 Question and response type 100

4.54 Question wording 101

4.55 Questionnaire: structure and variables 102

4.55a Section A: Contextual factors, personal (Purpose 1) 104

4.55b Section B: Contextual factors, experience at high school (Purpose 1) 104

4.55c Section C: Expectations for English classes at university (Purpose 2) 107

4.55d Section D: Self-perception as a learner (Purpose 4) 107

4.55e Section E: Current attitudes to English (Purpose 1) 109

4.55f Section F: Motivation for learning and using English (Purpose 2) 110

4.56 Pilot study for first questionnaire 114

4.57 Conducting the first questionnaire 115

4.6 SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE 115

4.61 Difference in content of first and second questionnaires 116

4.7 GROUP INTERVIEWS 117

4.71 Nature of the group interviews; semi-structured 118

4.72 Participants for the group interviews 119

4.73 Conditions and location for the group interviews 120

4.74 Main questions for the first group interview 121

4.75 Main questions for the second group interview 121

4.8 INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW 122

4.81 The individual interviews; nature, participants 122

4.82 Main questions for the individual interviews 123

4.83 Conditions and location for the individual interview 123

4.9 SUMMARY 123

Chapter 5: Presentation and Analysis of Findings, First and Second Questionnaires 124
5.1 INTRODUCTION 124
5.2 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS—FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE (PRE-UNIVERSITY) 124
5.21 Personal information: gender, age, experience of overseas travel *124*
5.22 Question 1: experience with learning English before university *126*
5.22a Underlying patterns of association in responses: statistical analysis 130
5.23 Questions 2, 3: expectations for university English; relation between questions 1 and 2 *134*
5.24 Question 4: attitudes to and motivation for learning English at start of university *138*
5.24a Responses classified by bearing on types of motivation 146
5.25 Open question – other reasons for learning English *153*
5.3 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS—SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE (AT UNIVERSITY) 154
5.31 Personal information *154*
5.32 Question 6, 7: experience at university; contrast with expectations (question 2) *155*
5.33 Question 8: students' attitudes and motivation as they finish their first year at university *161*
5.33a Responses classified as bearing on types of motivation 167
5.34 Open question – other reasons for learning English *176*
5.4 MOTIVATION OF JAPANESE FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS FOR LEARNING ENGLISH 177
5.5 DIFFERENCE IN QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE BY GENDER OF STUDENTS 179
5.6 SUMMARY 181

Chapter 6: Presentation and Analysis of Findings, First and Second Group Interviews and Individual Interviews 182
6.1 INTRODUCTION 182
6.2 PROCEDURE OF ANALYSIS 182
6.21 Transcription of tape-recorded interview 182
6.22 Categorizing 183
6.3 ANALYSIS OF FIRST GROUP INTERVIEW 183
6.31 Main categories for the first group interview 184
6.31a Previous experience 185
6.31b University English classes 186
6.31c English Learning outside university 187
6.31d Assessment of self as an English learner 188
6.31e Students' attitudes to English-speaking countries, people and culture 188
6.31f Japanese society as a stage for English language use 190
6.31g Characteristics of Japanese people 192
6.31h English-language education in general 194
6.31i Students' motivation 195
6.32 Summary of first group interview themes 196
6.33 Comments on first group interview 196
6.4 ANALYSIS OF SECOND GROUP INTERVIEW 197
6.41 Main categories for the second group interview 198
6.41a University English classes 199
6.41b English language learning as an individual 200
6.41c Japanese society as a stage for English language use 201
6.41d English-language education in general 201
6.41e Students' motivation 202
6.42 Summary of second group interview themes 203
6.43 Comments on second group interview 203
6.5 ANALYSIS OF INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS 204
6.51 Main categories for the individual interview of the female student 204
6.51a Motivation for learning English 204
6.51b Cultural difference 204
6.52 Main categories for the individual interview of the male student 205
6.52a Motivation for learning English 205
6.52b English-language education in Japan in general 206
6.52c Characteristics of Japanese people 207
6.53 Summary of individual interview themes 207
6.54 Comments of individual interviews 207
6.6 DIFFERENCE IN INTERVIEW PARTICIPATION BY GENDER OF STUDENTS 208
6.7 SUMMARY 209

Chapter 7: Conclusions, Considerations and Implications **211**
7.1 INTRODUCTION 211
7.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH 211
7.3 RESEARCH METHODS AND THE RESEARCHER 212
7.4 ANSWERING THE TEN SUBSIDIARY RESEARCH QUESTIONS 213
Part A: Before University *213*
Q1: What was the nature of students experience with learning English before university? . 213
Q2: What expectations do students have for university English as they enter university? ... 215
Q3: What relation is there between the answers to Q1 and Q2? (What relation is there between students' prior experience and their expectations for university English?) 216
Q4: What are students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they enter university? 217
Q5: What relation is there between the answers to Q1 and Q2 on the one hand, and Q4 on the other hand? (What relation is there between students' prior experience and their expectations for university English on one hand, and their attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they enter university on the other hand?) 219
Part B: At University *220*
Q6: What is the nature of students' experience with learning English at university? 220
Q7: How does students' experience with learning English at university (Q6) compare or contrast with their expectations (Q2)? 221
Q8: What are students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they finish their first year at university? 222
Part C: Changes during the first year of university *222*
Q9: Are there any changes in students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English, between their entering university (Q4) and finishing their first year at university (Q8)? 222
Q10: If there are changes (Q9), what possible explanations underlie them? 224
7.5 OVERALL CONCLUSION: 'WHAT ARE THE FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO AND MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING ENGLISH?' 227
7.51 Attitudes to and motivation for learning English *227*
7.52 Result clashes with the common view *229*
7.53 Implications *230*

Bibliography 233

Appendices 243
APPENDIX ONE – FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH TRANSLATION) 244
APPENDIX TWO – FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE (JAPANESE ORIGINAL) 249
APPENDIX THREE – SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH TRANSLATION).................................... 254
APPENDIX FOUR – SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE (JAPANESE ORIGINAL)... 258
APPENDIX FIVE– FIRST GROUP INTERVIEW (ENGLISH TRANSLATION).. 262
APPENDIX SIX – FIRST GROUP INTERVIEW (JAPANESE ORIGINAL)... 267
APPENDIX SEVEN – SECOND GROUP INTERVIEW (ENGLISH TRANSLATION)................................. 272
APPENDIX EIGHT – SECOND GROUP INTERVIEW (JAPANESE ORIGINAL) 276
APPENDIX NINE – INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS (ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS)...................................... 280
Part One – Female student.. *280*
Part Two – Male student... *281*
APPENDIX TEN – INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS (JAPANESE ORIGINALS) 282
Part One – Female student.. *282*
Part Two – Male student... *283*

Index of Figures

Figure 1: distinction between attitude and motivation 58

Figure 2: motivational components and constructs 67

Figure 3: interrelation of research questions 84

Figure 4: research schedule 95

Figure 5: extrinsic motivation: a dimension based on self-determination theory 112

Index of Tables

Table 1: Japan's mean TOEFL scores 4

Table 2: Japanese tertiary institutions (as of May 2000)........ 10

Table 3: passive student attitudes, average of responses (by country)........ 50

Table 4: passive student attitudes, average of responses (Japan vs. Europe and Asia) 51

Table 5: components of FLL motivation (from Dörnyei, 1998: 126)........ 69

Table 6: results, preliminary study on motivations for studying English 97

Table 7: Questions designed to determine personal information 104

Table 8: Questions designed to determine experience at high school........ 105

Table 9: Questions designed to determine expectations for English classes at university........ 107

Table 10: Questions designed to determine students' perception of English learning........ 107

Table 11: Questions designed to determine current attitudes to English........ 109

Table 12: Questions designed to determine motivation for learning and using English 111

Table 13: Questions regarding motivation listed by the variable they concern. 111

Table 14: Differences in content between first and second questionnaires........ 116

Table 15: Questions regarding experience at university (second questionnaire) 117

Table 16: gender balance of respondents........ 124

Table 17: age range of respondents 125

Table 18: experience of travel to English-speaking country (pre-university)........ 125

Table 19: duration of overseas experience........ 126

Table 20: experience with learning English at junior and senior high school 127

Table 21: degree of contentment with English education at junior and senior high school........ 129

Table 22: Correlation between contents and degree of contentment with English-language education at junior and senior high school........ 131

Table 23: experience with high school English and expectations for university English.......... 135

Table 24: expectations for results of studying English at university 137

Table 25: expectations for results of studying English at university 138

Table 26: English study outside of school, pre-university 139

Table 27: relation between experience overseas and extracurricular English study 140

Table 28: students' perception of themselves as learners pre-university 142

Table 29: reasons for difficulties in learning English pre-university 143

Table 30: students' perception of the status of English in Japanese society 144

Table 31: integrative motivation of students pre-university 147

Table 32: instrumental motivation of students pre-university.. 149

Table 33: intrinsic motivation of students pre-university 150

Table 34: extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation towards personal values) of students pre-university 152

Table 35: amotivation of students pre-university 153

Table 36: experience at university and degree of fit with expectations..................................... 156

Table 37: students' perception of what was achieved during first year (at university) 158

Table 38: comparison of expectation and accomplishment (at university)................................ 159

Table 39: students' perception of themselves as learners (at university) 160

Table 40: expectations vs. outcome for results of studying English at university 161

Table 41: English study outside of school (at university) 162

Table 42: English study outside of school (before university versus at university).................. 162

Table 43: students' perception of themselves as learners (at university) 163

Table 44: students' perception of themselves as learners (before vs. at university).................. 164

Table 45: reasons for difficulties in learning English (at university) 165

Table 46: reasons for difficulties in learning English (before versus at university).................. 166

Table 47: students' perception of the status of English in Japanese society (at university) 166

Table 48: students' perception of the status of English (before vs. at university) 167

Table 49: integrative motivation of students (at university) 168

Table 50: integrative motivation of students (pre-university versus at university) 169

Table 51: instrumental motivation of students (at university).. 170

Table 52: instrumental motivation of students (pre-university versus at university)............... 171

Table 53: intrinsic motivation of students (at university) 172

Table 54: intrinsic motivation of students (pre-university versus at university)....................... 173

Table 55: extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation towards personal values) of students (at university)... 174

Table 56: extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation towards personal values) of students (pre-university versus at university) 174

Table 57: amotivation of students (at university)... 175

Table 58: amotivation of students (pre-university versus at university).................................... 175

Table 59: ranking of importance of types of motivation as acknowledged by students 177

Table 60: ranking of variables of motivation (questionnaires one and two) 178

Acronyms

The following acronyms are used in the text:

2LL	Second Language Learning
ALT	Assistant Language Teacher
CBT	Computer Based Test
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELL	English Language Learning
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FLL	Foreign Language Learning
JET	Japan Exchange and Teaching (Programme)
L2	Second Language
TL	Target Language
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOIEC	Test of English for International Communication
SPSS	Statistic Package of Social Science for Windows
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance

Chapter 1: Climate of ELT and ELL at tertiary level

1.1 Introduction

More than ever before, the teaching and learning of English at universities in Japan faces a pressing need for innovative reform. Some universities are planning to change their English-language curricula, or even to establish new departments related to English learning. Although the details vary, these changes appear to be heading in the same direction: towards a more efficient teaching of practical English. However, most universities still seem unsure of the proper way to meet the need for reform. At this juncture, it is crucial to properly identify the problems that teachers and students are confronting, in order that reforms be appropriate and lead to more successful English teaching and learning ('English-language education').

One of the fundamental problems is a discrepancy between teachers' and students' views of English-language education, and particularly in teachers' ignorance about what their students actually want. In Japan, traditionally a hierarchical society, the distribution of evaluation questionnaires to the students at the end of a course is still uncommon. There are few opportunities for students' opinions to be heard on the subject of English-language education. Therefore, examining students' perception of, attitudes to, and motivation for learning English is an important task for teachers at universities intent on innovative reform of English-language education.

This chapter will discuss the present climate of Japanese society in relation to English-language education, focusing on the imperatives underlying the need for change in English-language education at universities.

1.2 Social changes driving English-language education reform

First, the drastic changes within Japanese society that occurred in the last decade, and are still continuing, should be focussed on as a strong factor pressuring universities into reforming their English-language teaching.

1.21 Japan facing demands of rapid internationalization

After World War II, reconstruction at an unprecedented rate led to the Japanese economic miracle in the 1970s and 1980s. By the early 1990s, the Japanese economy was second only to that of the USA. Soon after that, however, the so-called Japanese 'bubble' economy, supported mainly by the soaring price of real estate and the stock market, burst, and social surroundings have been rapidly changing since. In the face of the worst and most prolonged economic recession since World War II, the Japanese government led by Prime Minister Ryutaro Hashimoto adopted a financial market reform plan for a new system based on three clear principles: that trade should be fair, free, and global (Nikko Research Center Ltd, 1998). This led to the opening up of the Japanese financial market to foreign competition, causing a 'big bang' in the Japanese financial system as foreign companies sought mergers with or acquisitions of Japanese companies. This has happened now not only to the financial market, but to nearly all types of business in Japan, with even large flagship companies surrendering to foreign control (a high-profile example is in the automotive industry, where Renault has acquired a controlling stake in Nissan, Ford in Mazda, and DaimlerChrysler in Mitsubishi). Under these circumstances, Japanese industries have been exposed to more international business dealings and operations than ever. Internationalization has been discussed for some time, but is no longer merely a slogan – it is happening dramatically in real settings in Japan. In fact, a considerable number of such enterprises have begun to use

English as a common language among colleagues (see for example 'Foreign Managers bring dramatic change to corporate life', Japan Times, June 2001).

Concurrently, rapid and widespread computerization in recent years has changed society at an unprecedented rate and revolutionized communications technology. This technological transformation contributes to internationalization in Japan – common estimates suggest that approximately 80% of computer-based information is in English (see for example Herring 2002). Such dramatic transformations, not only in the business world but also in the private sector, have created a pressing demand for English as a language for communication on the global stage.

1.22 English the language of international communication

There is no doubt that English has been serving as an international language for some time all over the world. Troike (1977: 2) states that 'from a minor language in 1600, English has in less than four centuries come to be the leading language of international communication in the world today.' Phillipson (1992) puts it thus:

> English has a dominant position in science, technology, medicine, and computers; in research, books, periodicals, and software; in transnational business, trade, shipping, and aviation; in diplomacy and international organizations; in mass media entertainment, news agencies and journalism; in youth culture and sport; in education systems, as the most widely learnt foreign language… This non-exhaustive list of the domains in which English has a dominant, though not of course exclusive, place is indicative of the functional load carried by English. (1992: 6)

Crystal suggests that a total of 670 million people use English 'with a native or near-native command', and that if we look instead at people with a 'reasonable competence', the total number is up to 1,200 – 1,500 million (1997: 61). He also notes 'the speed with which that expansion has taken place since the 1950s. In 1950, the case for English was no more than plausible. Fifty years on, and the case is virtually unassailable' (1997: 63). Graddol holds that 375 million people speak English as their

first language, 375 million are ESL speakers, and 750 million are EFL speakers (this last a purely notional figure), and is confident that 'the number of the people who speak English as a second language will soon overtake numbers of people who speak English as a first language' (1998: 25). He also predicts that 'within the next 20 years, over two billion people will speak English at some level' (1998: 25).

1.23 English therefore an increasingly important skill in Japan

Given, then, that English is the language of international communication, providing students with appropriate proficiency in English is a pressing task for a Japan facing rapid internationalization. It is necessary to question whether the current university English-language education system is properly assisting students in gaining this proficiency. Relatedly, it is also necessary to examine how (or indeed *whether*) students are motivated to gain this proficiency.

1.24 Popular evaluation of the educational system using TOEFL and TOEIC scores

Since the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) started in 1964, Japan has scored consistently low points. The TOEFL website www.toefl.org (see particularly the *TOEFL Test and Score Data Summary*) yields the following examples:

Table 1: Japan's mean TOEFL scores

Year	Japan mean	Worldwide mean	Japan's rank (all nations)	Japan's rank (Asian nations)
1964	482	--	29th of 41	11th of 17
1997-1998	498	527	155th of 169	25th of 25 (last)
2002-2003	487 (PBT)	560	--	14th of 15 (ahead of Cambodia)
	186 (CBT)	214	142nd of 153	29th of 30 (ahead of North Korea)

('PBT' stands for 'Paper Based Test', and 'CBT' for 'Computer Based Test', a version of the TOEFL introduced in 1998 and growing in popularity since then. In the 2002 – 2003 period approximately 0.56 million people sat the new CBT, while only 0.12 sat the PBT.)

These figures are generally taken at face value, to confirm what is the general opinion in Japan – that Japanese people are poor learners of foreign languages in general, and of

English in particular. The same interpretation of the figures led to excitement in the press when Japan's mean score topped 500 for the first time (Japan scored 501 in 1998 – 1999). Similarly, these figures are widely taken to be damning of the English-language education system in Japan, showing that (in answer to the question raised in 1.23) universities and secondary schools are *not* properly assisting students in gaining proficiency.

Similar results hold true of the TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), where the vast majority of test-takers either have or are pursuing an undergraduate degree, meaning the results can be taken as a more direct comment on the tertiary and late secondary systems. In 1997 – 98 the mean score in Japan was 451, last of the 16 major participant countries. South Korea scored 480, the rest of Asia averaged 493, Africa 581, Europe 633 (The Chauncey Group International's *TOEIC Report of Test-Takers Worldwide, 1997 – 98*).

1.25 Careful evaluation of the system shows real problems

However, a number of factors other than 'universities and secondary schools' are relevant to the TOEFL and TOEIC score. Many countries offer English from much earlier in the school system, and though Japan is starting to do this now (see section 2.61), current test-takers are at a comparative disadvantage. Having finally started EFL study, Japanese students are at a further disadvantage compared to students of many other countries in that their native language is so radically different from English; they are likely to have little exposure to English in the course of daily life; and that Japan is firmly monolingual and second-language acquisition is an unaccustomed task. In this context, the secondary and tertiary systems could conceivably be properly assisting students to gain proficiency, but show comparatively poor results in international standardized tests due to various handicaps.

Most important to note, however, is the difference in numbers of test-takers. In 1997 – 98, while students from c.220 countries participated in TOEFL, over 19% of all TOEFL test-takers were Japanese. In the same period, 63% of regular TOEIC test-takers (1.4 million people worldwide) were Japanese – and a *further* 1.5 million Japanese and South Koreans took a new TOEIC test (for which background data was not collected). Taking the number of test-takers as a percentage of the population, Japan has generally fielded anything from twice to a hundred times as many test-takers as the various countries which have been used in comparison. We may conjecture that many countries field only a small elite, while in Japan a much wider range of people take the tests. Indeed, in Japan TOEIC in particular is nearly compulsory for anyone looking for work or promotion (even when that work has little directly to do with English). In this context, the Japanese performance in TOEIC and TOEFL is not as bad as often thought, and not so damning of the educational system (or the students).

However, even adjusting as much as possible for these commonly overlooked factors by looking only at other *Asian* countries and adjusting for population, Japanese performance in these tests is poor. In the 1997 – 98 TOEIC, South Korea actually fielded more test-takers by head of population than Japan, but (as noted above) scored a mean of 480 to Japan's 451. In the 2002 – 2003 TOEFL CBT, South Korea actually fielded more than *twice* as many test-takers by population as Japan, but scored a mean of 205 to Japan's mean of 186. Similar results hold for a number of other countries – Taiwan fielded 1.7 times as many test-takers by population as Japan, but scored a mean of 198.

Why students thus perform so poorly is now a controversial issue for a society under the pressure of internationalization. This failure to develop English skills (after six to ten years' striving – six years at school plus up to four years at university) is in stark contrast to the historical miracle development of the economy. Whether the

educational system offers appropriate English lessons to students, and whether students are satisfied with what is offered to them, needs to be given serious consideration.

1.3 Demographic change driving English–language education reform

Another factor relevant to the change in the English-language education climate at Japanese universities is a decrease in the college age population. The birth-rate has been falling since 1974; the population of 18-year-olds peaked in 1993 at 2.05 million and is projected to decline by over 40% to 1.21 million by 2009 (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology [MEXT] White Paper: 2003).

1.31 English in the entrance examination system

In Japan, success in entrance examinations is crucial, because entering a prestigious university all but guarantees the student a great future in terms of career, status and even marriage. This particular aspect of Japanese society is known as *gakureki-shakai*, a society organised by 'educational results' (Horsley & Buckley, 1990) – though in fact 'educational record' is closer to the Japanese. Under these circumstances, competition to enter the most prestigious universities is naturally fierce – so much so, in fact, that exam season is known as 'Examination Hell' or 'Examination War'.

This fierce competition to enter university has resulted in a system of cram schools or *juku,* which provide intensive training (often full time) for entrance examinations, particularly for high school students (in evenings and holidays) and students who at first try fail to gain university entrance.

Each university – indeed, each department within each university – sets its own entrance examination. In the case of public universities (which in 2001 accounted for 26% of universities with 27% of students – see table 2, p.10), there is a uniform

first-round qualifying examination called the *Center Shiken* (Center Exam). Which entrance examinations the student is entitled to sit are indexed to the grade obtained in this exam. This system, and the sheer competitiveness of entry, has resulted in a strict and explicit hierarchy of universities, and departments within and between universities.

English is one of the major components of entrance examinations for high schools and universities. Though universities set their own entrance examinations, these tests are invariably written achievement tests examining grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and translation. As Frost notes, '[m]ost of these questions are in the form of multiple choice requiring an encyclopedia-like knowledge of information that most Americans would consider quite trivial' (1991: 291), while speaking and listening comprehension are mostly ignored. This said, a few universities, including Tokyo National University (the most prestigious, and therefore arguably influential, university in Japan) have recently started giving applicants listening tests. However, this portion of the examinations is small and in most cases still experimental.

1.32 Students and teaching examination-oriented

In terms of the effect of this system on students, Paul notes of his experience of teaching in Japan that 'high school students often need English to pass entrance exams to university, but it's a particular kind of English, and to most of the students it doesn't really matter if they are able to use English after the examinations' (1998: 28). That is, most students in lower and upper secondary schools study English purely for these examinations.

In terms of the effect of this system on secondary education, 'the whole upper secondary school system became geared to a high performance in entrance examination scores to gain places at the more highly regarded universities' (Stephens, 1991: 130). That is, examination requirements are dominant factors which determine what should

be taught, and by which method.

> The examination is highly mechanical, requires ability in manipulating grammar rules and learning vocabulary, but makes little attempt to test use of the language. The washback effect on teaching at secondary level is destructive. Inevitably, teaching materials are geared to obtaining a good result in the university entrance examination, which reinforces traditional habits and discourages teachers from introducing more communicative activities (The British Council, 1997: 22).

The dominant method is unsurprisingly the Grammar Translation Method, whereby 'textbook compilers were mainly determined to codify the foreign language into frozen rules of morphology and syntax to be explained and eventually memorized. Oral work was reduced to minimum…' (Titone, 1968: 27). This method survives not only in Japan – Krashen gives it as one of the present-day teaching methods (1987: 126). It is overly simplistic to suggest that the dominance of this method has led to the current style of entrance examination, or that the current style of entrance examination has led to the dominance of the Grammar Translation Method; but it is apparent that the two encourage each other (see Seki, 1999).

Teachers thus face an incompatibility between the aspiration to introduce more communicative English and the duty to meet the requirements of the entrance examinations. Students, likewise, generally cannot find courses and materials appropriate to teaching practical English even if they are motivated to seek them.

Since most students at the upper secondary level are apparently motivated to learn English only as an academic subject or an aid to success in entrance examinations, it is generally thought that students quickly lose interest in learning English after entering university. As Berwick & Ross note, '[m]ost university language teachers in Japan lament the apparent lack of motivation and positive attitude toward language their students show shortly after their matriculation to university' (1989: 193). Matsumoto (1994) agrees:

> Once admitted into a university, students lose sight of their goals. They vaguely feel the 'real' society into which they will enter after graduation calls for their ability of practical English, but they are too busy with their majors and perhaps with part-time jobs as well. They endure English classes only to accumulate enough credits to graduate (1994: 210)

1.33 Effect of the shrinking pool of students

However, the decrease in the number of young people is now drastically easing the competition in the entrance examination. This demographic change will allow teachers more latitude to introduce communicative English, and students more latitude in goals.

The universities, which until 1992 had been benefiting from the continuous increase of eighteen-year-olds, are now suffering financially as enrolments decline.

Japanese tertiary educational institutions have included (since World War II) universities, junior colleges, and vocational institutes.

Table 2: Japanese tertiary institutions (as of May 2000)

(Age)	Institution	Number of institutions (students)		
		Total	Public	Private
22 – 18	University 4 years	649 (2,740,023)	171 (731,280)	478 (2,008,743)
18 – 15	Upper Secondary School 3 years	5,478 (4,165,434)	4,160 (2,939,119)	1,318 (1,226,315)
15 – 12	Lower Secondary School 3 years	11,209 (4,103,717)	10,529 (13,869,070)	680 (234,647)
12 – 6	Elementary School 6 years	24,106 (7,366,079)	23,934 (7,298,553)	172 (67,526)

(From Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2001: 11-12)

The financial difficulties caused by decreasing enrolments are predicted to affect private institutions, which outnumber public institutions, most directly. However, public institutions also will be suffering from cutbacks because the Japanese government has a new policy of making each institution responsible for its own management. In view of this situation, universities are compelled to consider some drastic changes in their curricula and teaching methods in order to better recruit students.

1.34 Industry also driving English-language education reform

Before the present recession, businesses took advantage of the highly competitive entrance examination system, 'tolerat[ing] the universities as a selection process which makes executive recruitment easy for them' (Stephens, 1991: 90). Under the lifelong employment system, which seems to be peculiar to Japanese enterprises, and has been recognized as a traction force for the Japanese economic miracle, 'industrial leaders believe that college graduates are much more effectively trained and socialized into good employees through strong in-service training programs conducted by the industry itself' (Kitamura, 1991: 307). Given that Japanese industries had never expected relevant training at universities, university students were free to consider the four years of university life as a 'moratorium' or 'a holiday camp'. However, the increase in foreign competition mentioned on page 2 has had a huge impact on traditional Japanese employment practice. Employers have realized 'the urgent need to recruit experienced and talented people who can compete internationally,' and 'come to expect colleges and universities to provide stronger education to students in areas relevant to their career needs' (Kitamura, 1991: 313). This pressure pushing universities to consider drastic reform is a special case of the general pressure brought to bear by internationalization.

Thus, universities cannot continue using their traditional curricula and teaching methods due to an increase of external pressures – rapid internationalization, and the decrease of the college-age population. The generally poor results of these traditional curricula and teaching methods – reflected in low scores in international proficiency tests and a general inability to communicate in English – need to be acknowledged. When considering these poor results, the characteristics of the Japanese people as well as of the Japanese language need to be taken into account.

1.4 Japan as a stage for English-language education

1.41 Japanese society: isolated and homogenous

The Japanese people arrived (from shores still unknown, despite sustained scholarly and archaeological effort) more than 2000 years ago, and had little contact with the outside world, remaining to this day a homogeneous and monolingual society. Partly because of its geographic advantage, i.e. being an isolated island country, Japan had never been occupied by a foreign country until World War II (1939 – 1945). Even as late as the end of 2000, foreigners accounted for only around 1.3 percent of the population of Japan overall. Around 95% of this 1.3 percent come from Asia or South America – and around 30% are actually former colonial migrants (returnee Brazilian Japanese, or Koreans and Chinese and their descendants who have lived in Japan since before 1945) and largely indistinguishable from Japanese (from Ministry of Justice, 2001). Native English-speaking foreigners are still very rare, even in Tokyo.

From sociological and anthropological viewpoints, the Japanese were an agricultural people. This type of society puts the most value on the harmony of the community, and groupism, group ego, and *amae* (dependency) – that is, a lack of individuality and independence in social action – are typical characteristics. Reinforced in the Japanese context by social homogeneity, 'the Japanese have been seen as group-oriented people who totally devote themselves to the organization to which they belong' (Hamaguchi, 1997: 41). While Japanese are often said to be lacking in autonomy and unique opinions, it is true that even when they do have such opinions, they are seldom expressed. Instead of revealing dissent or true underlying motives (*honne*), it is more harmonious to keep an official stance (*tatemae*), the proper maintenance and use of which is crucial to being a member of Japanese society.

The concepts of *honne* and *tatemae* will be revisited when considering the format of interview most appropriate for the Japanese context (see section 4.8).

1.42 Impact of cultural and linguistic homogeneity on EFL in Japan

Japan's homogenous and group-oriented culture can make foreign language learning (FLL) difficult – most people are reluctant to offer opinions, debate, or stand out for either making a mistake or being more capable than their peers, even in their mother tongue, let alone in a foreign language. In particular, Japan's *linguistic* homogeneity can make FLL difficult. Even today, there 'are few people in Japan who speak any language besides Japanese' (Kindaichi, 1978: 36), while (for example) in China many people are bilingual or polylingual from childhood, and even Korea (being a peninsula rather than an island) is somewhat familiar with the necessity and reality of other languages. Most Japanese people have their only real contact with a foreign language in school, and as a result, FLL study is more likely to be an academic exercise conducted in response to external pressure than a normal and accustomed extension of the need to communicate.

1.43 Japanese language: no clear relatives

The origin of the Japanese language, like that of the Japanese people, is very obscure. Indeed, Japanese is said to be 'the only major world language whose genetic affiliation to other language or language families has not been conclusively proven' (Shibatani, 1990: 94). Since Western linguists arrived in Japan during the Meiji period there has been much debate on the lineage of Japanese, with various theories connecting it with Ainu, Korean, Chinese, Tibeto-burman, Ural-Altaic, Altaic, Uralian, Mon-Khmer, and others. Among these theories, 'the most time-honoured, widely debated and perhaps persuasive are those that assign Japanese to the Altaic family and those that subgroup Japanese and Korean together within this family' (Shibatani, 1990: 95). However, that Japanese is

even an Altaic language is 'still very far from being proved' (Kindaichi, 1978: 31).

1.44 Impact of this linguistic distance on EFL in Japan

The fact that the Japanese language has no clear or close relation to any other language (let alone English) is unfortunate for Japanese learners of other languages. Although 'students are taking into the language classroom a body of highly sophisticated assumptions about language and how language works, based on their experience of their own language or languages' (Yamamoto-Wilson, 1997: 6), these assumptions are more likely to mislead than assist. TOEFL test results show clearly that students whose native language is related to English score higher points. Language carries its own culture, and when students share little of the culture of the target language (TL) group, learning is more difficult. It is therefore unsurprising that Japanese are well known by foreign and Japanese scholars alike as unsuccessful English-language learners. Kindaichi states that 'Japanese students are barely able to read a label on canned goods, even though they studied English in high school eight hours each week for five years' (1978: 34). Hayes comments that 'students, even after instruction in the language from 6 to 10 years, still cannot comprehend or compose more than the simplest English sentences and cannot read, write or speak with any kind of fluency' (1979: 366).

The homogeneous, monolingual society of Japan is not a favourable environment for learning English. This can be expected to impact on students' motivation.

1.5 The Need for Research

In the climate described above, where English-language education in Japan is crucially important and facing an urgent need for reform (see sections 1.2 and 1.3), and is facing challenges not anticipated by other EFL situations (see section 1.4), with apparently unmotivated students (see section 1.32), there is an urgent need for knowledge

regarding the attitude and motivation of these students. However, in the traditionally hierarchical society of Japan, such research is almost unheard of.

1.51 Provisional research question

The central question to be addressed in this thesis is then:

What are university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English?

1.52 Inquiry restricted to first-year students

At almost all universities in Japan, English is taught as a compulsory subject only to first-year students, usually in the form of one or two classes a week of so-called 'General English', which is not necessarily related to the student's major. After this, English becomes an elective subject, with entry restricted by numbers. In the third and fourth year, students (other than those majoring in English language or English literature) usually have no English classes. Hence, the questions above are restricted to the first-year university students.

1.6 Summary

Despite English being an increasingly important skill in a Japan facing the demands of internationalization, the education system for English-language is not performing adequately.

Until comparatively recently, the English-language education system was focussed on enabling students to do well in university entrance examinations, and students lost motivation upon completion of these exams. This is starting to change as the low birth-rate shrinks the available pool of students, and as industry pushes for an educative change in focus to produce students who can communicate in English.

However, even with the will to change, the way forward is not clear. Japan is not only geographically, linguistically, and culturally isolated (making it a unique EFL

stage), but also has a strong tradition of not asking or giving personal opinions, particularly of people low in the social hierarchy, such as students. Research into the attitudes and motivation of these students is necessary.

The following chapter will examine the history of English-language education in Japan, including government policy past and present, with a view to obtaining a better understanding of the present situation.

Chapter 2: Historical Background of English-language Education in Japan

2.1 Introduction

Chinese, from which Japanese adopted its writing system, was for centuries the only foreign language known in Japan. The learning of Chinese in Japan started in the 6th century AD amongst Buddhist monks and aristocrats, and enjoyed a long period of dominance as a foreign language without ever serving as a second language. When contact with European countries was first made in the 17th century, this unchallenged dominance faded, and Dutch was the most popular language learned in the Edo period (1600 – 1867) (see for example Takanashi & Takahashi, 1990: 2). English became the main foreign language with the Meiji Restoration (1867), which abolished feudalism and the 267-year long seclusion of the Edo period in a push to catch up with the West in terms of ideas and technology. Therefore the history of English learning is not very long, although English learning is now enjoying unprecedented popularity.

For a deeper understanding of English-language education in Japan, it is vitally important to have a sound grasp of its historical background, because many of today's controversial phenomena are rooted far back in this history.

2.2 Dawn of English-language education in Japan: late Edo period (1808 – 1867)

2.21 From first transitory contact in 1600

It is believed that the first encounter with the English language in Japanese history was when an English pilot, William Adams (later named Miura Anjin after his naturalization as a Japanese citizen), accidentally drifted ashore in 1600. Though England and Japan subsequently commenced trade, this only lasted for about ten years.

No formal English-language education system was established from this incidental trade relationship, because of the Tokugawa shogunate's strict isolationist policy. (The main aim of this 'closed country' policy was to limit religious influence from the West; the government had already suffered isolated rebellions from local lords converted to Christianity.) Similarly, Adams' role introducing information on the West was confined to his individual efforts; another two hundred and fifty years had to pass before English teaching officially began in Japan.

2.22 Dutch dominant foreign language

During this period of national isolation under the Tokugawa shogunate (1600 – 1867), only the Netherlands, Spain, and Portugal were allowed trade links with Japan. Ships were permitted only in Nagasaki (in Kyushu, the southern island of Japan), and crew were allowed ashore only in a specially reserved compound which was sealed off from the main town. The Netherlands was the main trading partner because of its religious neutrality, and Japanese people acquired information about the West through the Dutch.

Even then, of the four societal classes (from highest to lowest, *samurai*, farmers, craftsmen, and merchants) only the samurai were allowed to learn Dutch. Up to the second half of the nineteenth century, there were some two hundred clan-supported educational institutes (plus *Shoheiko,* a central Confucian academy under the direct control of the shogunate government), but these were again only for *samurai* (Nakauchi, 1995: 19).

2.23 Start of English-language education prompted by British attack on Dutch in Japan

In 1808, a British ship, the 'Phaeton', entered Nagasaki and attacked the offices of the Dutch merchants. The Tokugawa shogunate had some interpreters and translators for

Dutch, but none for English, and consequently struggled to solve the problem caused by the British ship. While the district chief magistrate took responsibility for the 'Phaeton' incident and committed *hara-kiri*, the shogunate recognized the need for English language and forced its officers, who were learning Dutch, to study English as well.

As Takanashi & Takahashi (1990) argue, the fact that the start of English learning in Japan was not a free and spontaneous one, but rather one imposed by an external power, is very symbolic, because it has been the characteristic of Japanese ELL up to the present.

2.24 Western pressure ends isolationist Tokugawa shogunate

In 1853 and 1854, American 'Black Ships' (navy steamers) arrived in Japan, and pressured the Tokugawa shogunate to open its ports. A number of such visits ensured the end of the isolationist policy (Japan signed a Treaty of Amity and Commerce with the United States in 1858), and ultimately of the shogunate itself, ending a reign of 267 years.

The pressure from the Western world, especially from the United States, resulted in a sudden increase in demand for English – 'at the time, the main reason for learning English was for national defence' (Takanashi & Ohmura, 1975: 15). In 1855 the Tokugawa shogunate established (and opened to the public) *Yogakusha*, the first formal institute expressly for the teaching of western languages. Dutch was still the main language, but English was officially included in the curriculum.

Following the 1858 treaty, the Japanese ship *Kairinmaru* made Japan's first visit across the Pacific Ocean to the United States. One of the passengers, Yukichi Fukuzawa, played a big role after his return to Japan, as a founder of English-language education at the end of the Edo period and the beginning of the Meiji period.

2.3 Meiji (1867–1911) and Taisho (1912–1925) periods

In the Edo period, Western FLL started with Dutch education mainly for information on medicine and astronomy. This was followed with English-language education for the purpose of protecting the country from Western threats, and gradually English replaced Dutch as the major western language in Japan. After the long period of isolation ending with the Meiji restoration (1867), there was an urgent need to catch up with the West in terms not only of social and cultural heritage, but particularly in terms of technology and industry. For this, English language was essential.

2.31 Promoter of English-language education Yukichi Fukuzawa

One of the most active and influential figures in this area was Yukichi Fukuzawa, an outstanding evaluator and interpreter of Western civilization, who argued strongly for the importance of English-language education immediately after the Meiji restoration.

Starting his career as a scholar of Dutch in 1854, he visited the new port of Yokohama, which had been cautiously opened to foreign trade by the government. 'Fukuzawa decided there and then that he had to learn English if he were ever going to help his country face the enormous challenge confronting it in its new opening to the world' (Yasukawa, 1989: 17), and switched to learning English in what was to prove the start of a remarkable career. As one of the few Japanese who could understand English, he was chosen as a member of the first Japanese diplomatic mission to the United States (in 1860, just before the Meiji restoration) on board the *Kairinmaru*. Going on to visit Europe in 1862, and re-visit the United States in 1867, he was one of the first Japanese exposed to Western culture and ideas.

In 1866 Fukuzawa published the first book of a two-volume set based on his experiences, entitled *Seiyo Jijo (Western Affairs)*, providing ordinary Japanese people

with their first introduction to Western ways. 'Before the publication of *Seiyo Jijo*, the general Japanese public had no way of learning about Western people or institutions and culture' (Nakayama, 1985: 3). Some 250,000 copies were sold, a huge success considering the population of Japan in those days (approximately 37 million) and the low literacy rate (Beauchamp & Rubinger, 1989: 58). This popularity reflected a general eagerness amongst the populace to learn about Western culture.

With the financial success afforded by these high sales, Fukuzawa's private Dutch studies school was transformed into an English school and became (in 1868) *Keio Gijuku* (a name taken from the previous imperial era) (Yasukawa, 1989: 4). This school played a vital role in educating many of the Japanese teachers of English who were needed when formal English-language education was introduced into lower and upper secondary schools.

2.32 Meiji government promotes English as language of technology

The Meiji government, established in 1868, 'was very eager to invite foreign teachers to Japan as a means of promoting the policy of introducing Western culture' (Aso & Amano, 1978: 14). By 1872, so-called *oyatoi* teachers, recruited directly from their home countries to teach various subjects at higher educational institutes, included 119 from Britain, 50 from France, and 16 from the United States (Torii, 1974: 52). At the same time Japanese students were sent abroad to study, their numbers reaching 281 by September of 1871, including 107 students to Britain, 98 to the United States, 41 to Prussia, and 14 to France (Torii, 1974: 52). These two programmes accounted for 32% of the government education budget in 1873 (Beauchamp & Rubinger, 1989: 41), showing the Meiji government's eagerness to acquire Western technological knowledge.

The government programme to promote foreign education dealt primarily with the United Kingdom and the United States, and it was no surprise when the *Chugakko*

Kyousokutaiko (General Guidelines for Secondary Schools) issued by the Ministry of Education in 1884 required English to be taught in junior high school along with Japanese and Chinese (Takanashi & Takahashi, 1990: 3). Two years later, the updated Guidelines specified that English was to be given priority over German and French. Thus, English became the dominant foreign language at the very beginning of the Meiji period.

2.33 English briefly the language of instruction

The *oyatoi* teachers and lecturers in higher educational institutes gave their classes on Western technology and culture in English, though medicine was taught in German (Takanashi & Ohmura, 1975: 6). English was not only an object of study, but also the medium of instruction. This continued until around 1889 when the Meiji government promulgated its first constitution, and English started to lose its special status.

There were several reasons for this change. Firstly, it was believed that Japan had successfully absorbed the necessary parts of Western culture, and was now in a position to move on to establish its own new, blended, culture. Secondly, and reinforcing this new cultural confidence, military victories against China (1894) and Russia (1904) gave Japan a huge morale boost and represented entry into the club of international powers. Thirdly, employing foreign teachers was hugely expensive, and the Meiji government replaced native teachers with Japanese teachers to reduce its budget. Lastly, nationalism was on the rise. There was a strong reaction against what was perceived as a blind devotion to Western ways, and 'the Minister of Education, Kowashi Inoue, insisted that education in Japan should be carried out in Japanese' (Takanashi & Takahashi, 1990: 4).

2.34 English becomes a purely academic subject

As English lost its status as a vehicle of teaching in higher educational institutes, it started to become a more academic subject. As a requirement for entry to upper secondary school and university, it was one of the most important subjects taught, and even in lower secondary school students had as many as seven English classes a week.

However, despite retaining this importance, English was now being taught as an academic subject by non-native (i.e. Japanese) teachers, with preparing students for the entrance examination as the explicit goal. Consequently, academic abilities, such as reading and writing, were stressed over communicative abilities such as speaking and listening. This was a crucial turning point for English teaching in schools, and many of the problems plaguing English-language education today find their roots around this time.

2.35 Shift from native English teachers to Japanese English teachers

At the start of the new government-controlled public education system in the early Meiji period, two distinct teaching systems were adopted, first named in the 1870 Tokyo University Regulations as *Seisoku* or Regular and *Hensoku* or Irregular (Takanashi & Ohmura, 1975: 162). Students were required to take both the *Seisoku* course, where all subjects, including languages, were taught by foreign teachers, and the *Hensoku* course, where all subjects were taught by Japanese teachers. These two terms subsequently came to be used exclusively to refer to English teaching methods.

Nitobe, who had studied at a university in the United States, and was known as 'the leader of the liberal education movement during the period referred to as Taisho Democracy or Taisho humanism' (Takeda, 1989: 105), described these methods in a 1929 newspaper article 'Foreign Languages in Japan' (*Eibun Osaka Mainichi* English ed.):

In studying English, there are two methods in vogue, known as *Seisoku* (the

> Regular) and *Hensoku* (the Irregular). The Regular method, which in its main conception is identical with the so-called "Direct" or "Reformed" method in the English system of teaching modern studies, teaches the correct reading of English words with proper accents, emphasis, etc, and so leads a pupil to understand them without translating them into Japanese…But the Irregular method will require a longer explanation (republished in Nitobe, 1970: 446).

He pointed out a variety of problems with the *Hensoku* method, but also noted merits:

> It must be said to its praise that students who are trained in this way have usually much more accurate and precise comprehension of what they read than those who are taught to read parrot-like one sentence after another without thinking fully of the meaning. Not unusually does the Regular method turn out "a reading machine, always wound up and going", and emitting correct English sounds, but mastering nothing worth the knowing (1970: 447).

As foreign teachers began leaving Japan (for the reasons given above in section 2.33), it became difficult to continue the *Seisoku* method of teaching, and a gradual shift to the *Hensoku* method ensued. The ideas and methods of the *Hensoku* thus came to be rooted deeply in English-language education in Japan.

2.36 Debates on whether to make English an elective or minor subject

In the latter half of the Meiji period, reading was stressed more than any of the other skills. Speaking was neglected, because there were almost no social settings where Japanese people had the need to speak English. Naturally enough in such a situation, learners even at school level were left wondering why they had to learn English at all. And indeed there were constant disputes on this issue, mostly between educators.

One group argued that since even after five years' of English in lower and upper secondary schools (lower secondary schools generally had seven to ten English classes a week), students generally could not speak or write a simple letter, compulsory English-language education was simply a waste of students' time (Fukui, 1969: 322; Takanashi & Ohmura, 1975: 188).

The second group argued that since English was vital to understanding other countries and peoples, and the study of English would give students insight into their

own language and advantages in their future careers, English must be taught as one of the major subjects (Takanashi & Ohmura, 1975: 227-230).

This argument continued through the Taisho period (1912–1926), which lasted only fourteen years and brought no remarkable changes, and into the Showa period.

2.4 Showa period until the end of World War II (1927–1944)

2.41 Harold Palmer and the attempted reform of English-language education

Around the beginning of the Showa period the government established the Institute for Research in English Teaching (1923), and appointed the American teacher Harold E. Palmer as the first chief administrator. Palmer, dedicated to English teaching in Japan, experimented and researched vigorously for the following fifteen years, attempting to determine and establish a more efficient teaching method.

In his first report to the Ministry of Education, he emphasized the importance of speaking, repeated practice, and habit formation – drills to ensure 'automatism' in the acquisition of English for communication – and of utilitarian English (Takanashi & Ohmura, 1975: 223, 253). He outlined some remarkable improvements, and his new 'Oral Method' was widely accepted as ideal by many teachers throughout Japan. Rowlinson lists Palmer's six basic principles as follows: '1. ears before eyes; 2. reception before reproduction; 3. oral repetition before reading (he means reading aloud); 4. immediate memory before prolonged memory (proficiency in the 'just-heard' is most important); 5. chorus work before individualized work; 6. drill work before free work.' (1994: 13).

His theory and recommendations inspired experiments, discussions, and movements to improve the method of English teaching in Japan. However, despite fairly widespread acceptance of his theories, his recommendations were not widely

implemented. Chief amongst the reasons for this was a simple shortage of capable teachers, but vigorous and vocal opposition from conservative teachers supporting the traditional methods also played a part.

2.42 Nationalist movements denounce English-language education during World War II

When World War II broke out in 1939, nationalistic movements began denouncing the teaching of English, the language of enemy countries. Nationalist opinion became dominant and English language teaching in schools became controversial, eventually halting by order of the various local boards of education. This, however, did not mean interest in English language or Western writings had been wiped out – throughout World War II, approximately twenty thousand English books were imported into Japan every year through neutral countries (Minakawa, 1969: 334). National policy and hostilities aside, the study of English language and literature remained popular with a certain number of Japanese people.

2.5 Showa period after World War II (1945-1988)

2.51 Sudden need for communicative English during Allied occupation

After World War II ended in 1945, Japan was occupied and ruled by the Allied Forces, centrally the U.S. Occupation Army led by General McArthur. There was a sudden need for communicative English, and a corresponding demand for practical English in schools. With society in turmoil, the situation was similar to that at the beginning of the Meiji period.

In March 1947, the new system of 6-3-3-4 (six years at primary school, three years at junior high school, three years at senior high school, and four years at university) was introduced by the Fundamentals of Education Act. Although English was designated an optional subject, it was significantly included at the lower secondary level, a part of

compulsory education.

2.52 Debates on proper focus of English-language education: utilitarian or cultural

As Japan's post-war rehabilitation progressed, new movements rose in English teaching. These included the introduction of American English into schools, and the use of audiovisual aids. As the immediate need for practical English to communicate with the occupying Allies faded in the middle of the 1950s, there was a renewed call for English teaching to have a pragmatic focus – for English to be of use to society in its economic development. As Beauchamp (1991) comments:

> Education policy during the 1960s and much of the 1970s was consciously designed to foster economic development. Indeed, there is little doubt that since the middle of the 1950s the interests of industry have been extremely influential in shaping educational policy (1991: 36).

In the language adopted at the time, the call was for English to have a *utilitarian* rather than a *cultural* focus.

The term 'cultural' here, being opposed to 'utilitarian', is not directly related to the culture of Anglophone societies – rather, a cultural focus is very close to an academic focus. Suggestions that English teaching should be cultural in this sense carried the implication that learning of English was appropriately an intellectual activity, contributing to self-development and character, like learning any other academic subject.

In order to further the utilitarian cause, in 1956 Japanese industry invited C.C. Fries, W.F. Twaddell, and A.S. Hornby to Japan for the Conference of English Education Experts (Fukui, 1969: 341). Hornby, considered (with Palmer, section 2.41) one of the great pioneers of ELT, made Japan a testing ground for a variety of ELT innovations, including the first monolingual EFL dictionary in 1942 (eventually to become the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*). Fries, an American linguist working in the

behaviourist tradition, made several more visits over the following four years, advocating an oral approach and introduced new techniques such as pattern practice and contrast. These methods were at first enthusiastically embraced by some teachers and accepted as an ideal model for teaching practical (utilitarian) English in Japanese schools, but the limitations of the method (particularly in the Japanese context, with a strong traditionalist faction and few teachers who were properly trained in the method) became apparent, and enthusiasm for the oral approach subsided.

The argument over whether the English taught in Japan should be utilitarian or cultural (in the sense outlined above) has continued in various forms since the middle of the Meiji period. (At the beginning of Meiji period, and the end of World War II, the urgent need for basic communicative practical English made 'utilitarian' the winner.)

The most controversial submission to this ongoing debate was made by lawmaker Wataru Hiraizumi, member of the leading Liberal Democratic Party and Vice-Chairman of the Intercultural Committee. His 1974 article 'Current Situation of foreign language education and some directions for improvement – a tentative plan' (republished in the journal PHP Voice, May 1979) was critical of the state of English teaching in schools and argued that utilitarian English, practical English as a vehicle of communication, should be stressed. Hiraizumi even suggested a detailed reform of the education system for English-language, and because of his high profile as a politician, his article touched off a heated debate.

The counter-argument, defending cultural English against the proposed dominance of utilitarian English in schools, was made mainly by teachers and was strongly supported in academic and educational circles. Professor Watanabe (Sophia University), a leading representative of this view, held that the purpose of learning English is to cultivate the learner's mind, providing an opportunity for the learner to

realize the value of their own mother tongue and culture (Takanashi & Takahashi, 1990: 8). As a result of such opposition, Hiraizumi's tentative plan was not implemented, though this does not mean it was forgotten.

2.53 'Course of Study' guidelines for English-language education in secondary schools

Even as this debate continued, English teaching in lower secondary schools was stabilized in 1958 by the Ministry of Education's *Gakushushidoyoryo* ('Course of Study', or National Curriculum Guidelines). These detailed and officially binding guidelines, specifying the required minimum vocabulary and phrases, standardized the teaching of English in lower secondary schools. There were a variety of responses from teachers, but the guidelines gradually came into general use.

Similar guidelines were simultaneously issued for upper secondary schools, but these had less influence on actual teaching than in the lower secondary case. Actual teaching, as has always been the case in Japan (excepting the beginning of the Meiji period and immediately after World War II), is aimed at preparing students for their university entrance examinations. Where the guidelines differ from the examination requirements, it is the examination requirements that win. Ironically, English teaching in upper secondary school has cherished old-fashioned traditions.

Survey and comparison of past Ministry of Education Course of Study Guidelines, reflecting the changes of government policy for English-language education in secondary schools, can be found in section 2.71 below.

2.6 Heisei period (1989–present)

The severe economic recession which hit Japan at the beginning of the Heisei period has greatly changed the social climate, and thereby (as outlined in sections 1.2 and 1.3) had a great effect on English-language education.

2.61 Current English–language education: elementary and secondary school

In Japan all students are required to complete six years at elementary school and three years at lower secondary school. Some 95.5 percent continue on to a further three years at upper secondary school. The main higher educational institutes are junior colleges which generally operate on the basis of two-year courses, and colleges or universities which operate on the basis of four-year courses (see table 2, page 10).

Until 2002, English was first taught to 12 year-old lower secondary school students, with a minimum of three classes per week. In upper secondary schools the number of English classes varies, but is generally from four to six per week. Given that 95.5% of those graduating from compulsory education continue on to upper secondary schools, most Japanese have learned English for at least six years.

In 1999, the government made English-language education in lower and upper secondary schools compulsory (see section 2.71), and also suddenly announced that, starting in 2002, English could be taught in elementary schools. This has proved controversial, as the Ministry of Education has decided not to provide English-language training to primary school teachers, due to 'a lack of financial and human resources' (Shinohara, Ministry of Education spokesperson, in 'Teachers to get no training in Japan', English Language Gazette, August 1999). In addition, though the idea has been broadly welcomed as a step in the right direction, educators have been confused by the lack of clear guidelines; 'whether or not to teach English, and how and how much to teach … depends on the school' (Shinohara, 1999). English teaching in a number of elementary schools started on an experimental basis in 2002 and 2003.

2.62 Current English–language education: higher education

In higher education, as outlined briefly in section 1.52, English is generally taught as a compulsory subject only to first-year students, in the form of one or two classes a week of

so-called 'General English'. After this, English becomes an elective subject, with entry restricted by numbers. In the third and fourth year, students (other than those majoring in English language or English literature) usually have no English classes. The number of English classes, and indeed the number of students who can gain entry to the elective courses, is quite limited.

Compounding this problem, what English classes there are, are often inefficient. The British Council (1997) describes, quite correctly, a conventional university English class:

> There are around fifty students in the class, which is totally teacher-oriented and passive in character. There is little focus on improving active communication skills or developing speaking and listening abilities. The aims of the English course in the eyes of most Japanese lecturers are to impart a knowledge of Western culture and to deepen the knowledge of self by the study of English literature. Translation is normally used for this purpose since Japanese university teachers of English have themselves been educated this way and have had few opportunities to study abroad… A combination of questionable methodology, the lack of any coherent course structure, and an absence of any defined communicative aims have inevitably resulted in a poor level of spoken English among university students. (British Council, 1997: 23).

2.63 Perception of current Japanese university students

The current perception of Japanese university students – in the society at large, amongst their teachers, and amongst students themselves – is of a largely unmotivated group enjoying four years of leisure between the examination hell of high school and the rigours of work (or restrictions of marriage, depending on the gender of the student).

A science professor at a prestigious Japanese university describes (Akimitsu, 2001) the majority of contemporary university students as having lost their aim in life – asked what they want to be, students reply with unrealistic dreams rather than considered ambitions (a significant number of students every year reply that they like space and want to work at NASA). Further, students generally study at university purely for credit (rather than out of interest in the subject), often visiting professors to ask how many

credits are required for graduation or plead for credit. Students feel that the content of university courses is largely irrelevant to their future job, and that graduating after four years of minimum effort (the 'Leisure Land' approach), rather than learning, is the most appropriate goal.

A medical professor notes (Fukunaga, 1997) that after over thirteen years teaching Japanese university students, his impression is that most are 'gentle, submissive and sweet' – which, he immediately notes, could as well be written 'childish, passive and helpless'.

Students' descriptions of themselves, collected by their lecturer (Kurihara, 2004), reveal that the major topics amongst students are TV, mobile phones, fashion brands, cars, university credits, and jobs. Students make an effort to be different by dyeing and styling their hair and paying great attention to fashion, but thereby manage only to place themselves in the majority (of brown-haired, fashion-branded students with the latest mobile phone). Students are likewise aware that after having university entrance as the aim of their studies all through high school, having once gained entrance, they lose both the aim of study and the will to study.

2.7 Government policy on English–language education

From time to time the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology issues 'Course of Study' (National Curriculum) guidelines, providing general guidance on class content and time to be spent on different subjects, for teachers in lower and upper secondary schools. The contents and changes in these guidelines are a useful guide to government policy regarding English-language education.

In addition, the government-run JET programme (Japan Exchange and Teaching programme, providing native English-speaking teachers to schools – see section 2.72)

and recent changes in government policy (especially moves to introduce students to English earlier) will be examined.

2.71 Changes of policy in Course of Study guidelines

In 1947, directly after World War II, the government promulgated the Fundamental Education Law, 'setting out educational principles on the basis of pacifism and democracy' (Nakauchi, 1995: 31), and the School Education Law, setting the framework of a new school system. Along with these laws, the Ministry of Education issued the first 'Course of Study'. However, this guideline, and the revised version issued five years later in 1952, was merely a suggestion with no official force. It was in 1958 that the Ministry of Education first announced a Course of Study with binding force. Since then, it has been revised three times: in 1969, 1989, and 1999.

In the first binding Course of Study (1958), English was categorized as an optional subject for lower secondary schools, and it was not until the 1999 Course of Study that English became compulsory. However, none of the Course of Study Guideline overall objectives actually names English specifically – the normal phrase is 'a foreign language'. However, even when nominally an optional subject, English was to all intents and purposes compulsory, since it was one of the major subjects in the entrance examinations at both upper secondary and tertiary level. The Course Of Study guidelines, after a three-line objective regarding only 'a foreign language', continue with a long and detailed section titled 'English' and going so far as to list required vocabulary. Though until 1999 there was a theoretical possibility that students could be learning French or German instead of English, in reality a minimum of three classes a week were allocated to English.

2.71a Course of Study guidelines, 1958

Under the 1958 Course of Study guidelines, there were three overall objectives for

foreign language education in lower secondary school:

(1) to develop students' basic abilities to listen to and speak a foreign language by familiarizing them with its sounds;

(2) to develop students' basic abilities to read and write a foreign language by familiarizing them with its basic usage;

(3) to develop students' basic abilities to understand the daily life, customs, and way of thinking of the TL society.

As for vocabulary, 1100 to 1300 words were learned over the three years at lower secondary school. The same 1958 guideline objectives for upper secondary schools:

(1) to develop students' abilities to listen to and speak a foreign language by learning from its spoken form;

(2) to develop students' abilities to read and write a foreign language by learning its basic usage;

(3) to develop an ability to understand the people and the society in which they live through their language.

The three years of upper secondary school brought the total vocabulary to about 4600 words.

2.71b Course of Study guidelines, 1989

In 1989, the overall objectives for lower secondary schools were:

(1) to develop students' basic abilities to understand a foreign language and express themselves in it;

(2) to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it;

(3) to deepen interest in language and culture, cultivating basic international understanding.

The vocabulary requirement dropped slightly to about 1000 words, learned over the three years at lower secondary school. For upper secondary schools:

(1) to develop students' abilities to understand a foreign language and express themselves in it;

(2) to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it;

(3) to heighten interest in language and culture, deepening international understanding.

The three years of upper secondary school brought total vocabulary to about 2900.

2.71c Comparison of Course of Study guidelines, 1958 and 1989

The word ‘communication’ was first used in the overall objectives of both lower and upper secondary schools in 1989, representing some shift in government emphasis from academic to practical English.

Another immediately noticeable difference is the drastic reduction in prescribed vocabulary – nearly 20% for the lower secondary level, and nearly 40% for the upper secondary level. This reduction in the memorization burden is another reflection of the shift in government emphasis from academic to practical English – a large vocabulary was required for the entrance examination, but is not necessary for practical communicative English.

Another noteworthy point is the first appearance of the term *kokusairikai* (translated above as ‘international understanding’) in the 1989 version. While of course a similar idea was implicit in the 1958 version, the explicit use of such a clear single term (and catchphrase) to describe the aim was an important step, and represented a newfound focus and determination. The issue of international understanding will be discussed in section 2.73.

2.71d Course of Study guidelines, 1999

In the latest Course of Study, issued in 1999, the government's focus is explicitly on fostering communication skills in, and a positive attitude to communication in, a foreign language. For the first time, it is noted that in reality English is widely used as an international means of communication, and is therefore considered the appropriate ‘foreign language’. ‘Other foreign languages’ receive only a short note, in under a hundredth of the space devoted to English, to the effect that where other languages are studied *in addition to* English, a similar set of objectives apply.

The overall objective for lower secondary schools is:

(1) to deepen interest in a foreign language and its culture;

(2) to foster a positive attitude towards communicating in it;

(3) to foster students' basic abilities to communicate in it in the real world by listening or speaking.

The vocabulary requirement dropped again to about 900 words to be learned over the three years at lower secondary school. For upper secondary schools:

(1) to deepen interest in a foreign language and its culture through the TL;

(2) to foster a positive attitude towards communicating in it;

(3) to develop students' abilities in practical communication in order to understand information and others' intentions, and express themselves in it.

The three years of upper secondary school are to bring total vocabulary to about 2200.

2.71e Comparison of Course of Study guidelines, 1989 and 1999

The changes during this (short, ten-year) period are not drastic. The most noticeable change is an increased emphasis on communication. Lower secondary schools are to foster an ability to communicate 'in the real society' – listening and speaking are explicitly singled out.

There is a similar change in guidelines for upper secondary schools, with 'practical communication' singled out and further explained to involve understanding information and others' intentions in the foreign language.

Guidelines for both levels declare, for the first time, that communication in practical and real settings is an aim of learning a foreign language. Also, at both levels, there is a shift from the aim to merely 'deepen interest in language and culture' to deepening an interest in a *foreign* language and *its* culture – in the case of upper secondary schools, this is to be achieved *through* the TL.

The trend of decreasing the number of words which students have to learn is

continuing: a ten percent drop for lower secondary schools, and a 25 percent drop for upper secondary schools.

It is worth noting, however, that while government policy aims explicitly at enhancing communicative abilities, the reality in actual educational settings is not a simple reflection of these policies. This is mainly because higher education entrance examinations are still extremely important, and still require a traditional teaching method centered around grammar, translation, and memorizing vocabulary.

2.72 JET Programme brings native English speakers into high school classrooms

In 1987 the government started a new scheme called the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Programme with the aim (1) to improve foreign language education, and (2) for local internationalization. The programme is conducted by local authorities with the cooperation of CLAIR (Council of Local Authorities for International Relations) and the Ministries of Home Affairs, Education, and Foreign Affairs (see for example Shimazu 1997: 213).

Under this scheme, young people from overseas are placed in lower or upper secondary schools as AETs (Assistant English Teachers, though this title was later changed to ALT or Assistant Language Teacher), or in prefectures, towns and cities as coordinators for international relations. In 1987, the first year of the scheme, 848 young people were invited from four English-speaking countries (the US, the UK, Australia and New Zealand). In 2002, the number of JET participants was up to 6273 people from around twenty countries, around 95% of these English teachers (USA 43%; UK 21%; Canada 16 %; Australia 7%; New Zealand 6%; Ireland 2%) (Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan website).

Introducing native English-speaking teachers into the classroom has unsurprisingly had a large impact. As Shimazu(1997) summarizes:

> …in terms of foreign language education, it is certain that JET participants are having an impact on students and Japanese teachers of foreign language alike. Team-teaching lessons with the JET which focus on conversation and communication have caused quite a stir in a country whose language education has consisted mainly of grammar and examination preparations. It is a valuable experience for those Japanese nervous even at the sight of foreigner to be able to converse with a native speaker from an early age. The chance to speak in a foreign language can only bring out in the students an eagerness to learn that language. In this respect, the JET Programme has been a great influence in foreign language education in secondary schools throughout Japan (Shimazu, 1997: 213)

Several problems are reported by schools hosting a JET ALT. One is a simple lack of understanding; another a lack of team teaching skills on the part of Japanese teachers. Also cited is Japanese teachers' antagonism towards ALTs – friction between Japanese teachers who are adherents to traditional teaching methods and ALTs who try to adopt communicative methods. Indeed, some conservative teachers view ALT's communicative teaching methods as a virus that could harm the intellectual development of students and traditional cultural virtues (McConnell, 2000). However, as a whole, the impact of the JET programme has been both enormous and enormously successful.

2.73 *Kokusaika* (internationalisation) and *Kokusairikai* (international understanding)

Internationalization (*kokusaika*) has been a popular economic, political and cultural slogan in Japan, and has had an important role in shaping English-language education in Japan (this was alluded to in section 1.2, and throughout this chapter). *Kokusairikai* (international understanding), which is almost synonymous with *ibunkarikai* (intercultural understanding), is also strongly related to English learning. The terms *Kokusaika* and *Kokusairikai* appeared in the 1989 and 1999 versions of the Course of Study guidelines, and their promotion is the aim of the JET programme. Therefore it is crucial to give some consideration to these concepts in relation to English-language education.

Kubota suggests that '*Kokusaika* aims to understand people and cultures in the international communities through various social, cultural and educational

opportunities. It also aims to transform social and institutional conventions to adapt to the international demands' (Kubota, 2000: 16). *Kokusaika* in this sense requires English, as the international language (see section 1.22).

As used in Japan, '*kokusaika'* always implies two related concepts: one, to belong to the international world (this is the literal meaning of *kokusaika*); the other, to express and explain emphatically Japanese points of view in the world through English-based communication while maintaining Japanese identity. This is what the Course of Study objectives for lower and upper secondary schools mean by developing students 'abilities to express themselves' or 'communicate … by speaking' in the TL. In a similar way, *Kokusairikai*, one of the major underlying aims of English-language education and the Course of Study guidelines, carries a connotation of awareness of Japanese culture and Japanese identity by understanding other cultures through English. Indeed, the Course of Study guidelines explicitly stipulate that teaching materials for lower and higher secondary school English courses should enhance a student's awareness of his or her Japaneseness in the international community.

Kokusaika and *kokusairikai* are the two major concepts used by the Japanese government in explaining the need for, and the aims of, English-language education. However, as McConnell (2000) argues from his experience as an ALT in the JET programme, *kokusairikai* implies not diminishing national boundaries between individuals, but improving understanding between groups which will always be fundamentally different. McConnell further suggests that *kokusairikai* reinforces cultural nationalism by constructing a clear cultural boundary between Japan and other cultures. It is certainly true that the Japanese government promotes English-language education with the explicit aim of heightening awareness of Japanese identity, cultures, and traditional ways of thinking, and that this attitude sometimes fosters a nationalistic

way of looking at English-language education – learning how to understand Them, and explain Us to Them.

2.74 New measures in English-language education

In 2000, a policy advisory panel to the Prime Minister recommended that Japan adopt English as a second language ('National News Briefs', Japan Times, 20 January 2000). The panel is not an official part of the government, but is very influential in Japanese society. As the first time the term 'English as a second language' appeared in an even quasi-official context, the report ('Japan's Goals in the 21st Century') was epoch-making for English Education policy in Japan.

After the sudden death of Prime Minister Obuchi in May 2000, this movement seems to have lost momentum. However, the idea has been passed on to the new administration. The central government itself has established a primary school (in Gunma Prefecture, north of Tokyo) that from 2005 will start teaching most subjects in English – and applicants already outnumber places three-to-one, showing how eager parents are to internationalize their students (*Eigotokukou ni ninki*, *Special English-education school popular, Nihonkeizai* Newspaper, 20 October 2003). More generally, a few primary schools in Tokyo and a neighbouring prefecture have started teaching English as a formal (but experimental) subject (discussed in section 2.61).

These unprecedented measures, in a context where English-language education is of ever-increasing importance, are of interest not only to educators, but also for Japan itself as a nation on the international stage.

2.8 Summary

For around 250 years Dutch was the main foreign language in Japan – English became necessary around 1867 when Japan's isolationist policy ended and Japan raced to catch

up with the West, sending students overseas and inviting foreign teachers to Japan. English was briefly the language of instruction, but became a purely academic subject with the rise of nationalism and the drop in the education budget (and a grammar/reading oriented subject with the departure of many of the English speakers). English education continued in this fashion until it was halted entirely during World War II.

In 1947, during the Allied occupation, English was introduced into lower high schools; and shortly thereafter into high school entrance exams, making it effectively compulsory. Despite periodic debates over reforms to the system, the lack of teachers able to communicate effectively in English (and the presence of a strong traditionalist grammar-translation method bloc) guaranteed that change was limited.

It is only recently that policy has started to change. In 1987 the JET Programme started, bringing 'assistant language teachers' in from overseas; and in 1989 there was a reduction in examinable vocabulary, in favour of 'communication' and 'international understanding'. This shift continued in 1999, with communication 'in the real society' named as an aim, and English formally made a compulsory subject. It is an open question as to the degree to which these policy changes are reflected in actual classrooms, particularly as actual teaching tends to reflect the demands of entrance exams.

Now that the general context of English-language education in Japan has been described, the following chapter will examine the theoretical background of attitude and motivation, and how this theory is taken to apply to foreign language learning in general and English-language education in Japan in particular.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Background of Attitude and Motivation

3.1 Introduction – the importance of affective variables

This chapter will present the theoretical background of attitude and motivation as it relates to English-language learning.

Gardner & MacIntyre (1992: 211) categorize the major attributes which influence how well students learn a foreign language into three parts:

(1) cognitive variables including intelligence, language aptitude, language learning strategies, previous language training and experience;

(2) affective variables including attitude, motivation, language anxiety, feelings of self-confidence about language, personality attributes and learning styles;

(3) miscellaneous category which would include age and socio-cultural experiences.

However, the boundary between cognitive variables and affective variables is not clear, and some recent research points to strong links between the two. For example, Bacon & Finnemann (1990) discuss how the willingness or unwillingness to employ learning strategies is strongly affected by affective variables, such as attitude, motivation and anxiety. Gardner & MacIntyre write that 'language learning strategies clearly have a motivational basis' and that 'the use of language learning strategies requires that the individual is first motivated to learn the second language' (1992: 219). In the research of learning strategy use among 1200 university students conducted by Oxford & Nyikos (1989), motivation was the best correlative of strategy use out of 'background' variables, including sex, years of study, degree programme, self-rated proficiency, and motivation.

That is to say, affective variables have an influence over cognitive variables; it could even be said that they are in a way the *basic* variables influencing how well students learn a foreign language. For example, Dörnyei assures us that motivation is prior to other variables in learning a foreign language, claiming that '[m]otivation

provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 … all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent' (1998: 117). Finally he declares that '[w]ithout sufficient motivation, even individuals with most remarkable ability cannot accomplish long-term goals' (ibid: 117).

Particularly when considering English-language education at the tertiary level, when students are relatively autonomous, affective variables are thus expected to be greatly determinative of success in learning English. It is therefore crucial to investigate these affective variables in the Japanese context.

3.2 Attitude

The term 'attitude' is commonly used in everyday conversation – this shows not only that it is, as Baker comments, 'part of the terminology system of many individuals' (1992: 9), but also shows that attitude plays an important role in various (if not *all*) aspects of our lives, including our level of success in first and second language learning.

3.21 Definition of 'Attitude'

Social psychologists Krech, Crutchfield & Ballachey define attitudes as 'enduring systems of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action techniques with respect to social objects' (1962: 29). Rokeach also takes endurance to be characteristic, defining attitude to be 'a relatively enduring organisation of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner' (1979: 105).

Ajzen, focussing more on attitudes as explaining human behaviour, holds that 'an attitude is a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event' (1988: 4). Likewise, Baker describes attitude as 'a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour' (1992: 10).

Educational psychologist Klausmeier similarly holds that attitudes 'are learned, emotionally toned predispositions to behave in a consistent way toward persons, objects, and ideas. Attitudes have both an affective component and an informational component' (1985: 403). This learning need not be conscious or consciously directed – similarly, the attitude itself need not be conscious.

In broad agreement with these definitions, attitudes will be here taken as enduring evaluative constructs that exert a directive influence on behaviour – that is, a lack of neutrality in evaluating an object, a psychological tendency to be for or against an object. These constructs have both affective (I *like* the taste of green tea) and informational components (I *believe that* green tea is good for me) combining into an attitude (I am pro green tea, and *ceteris paribus* will buy and drink it).

Attitudes are internal dispositions that cannot be directly observed, but (since they exert a directive influence on behaviour) can be inferred from external, habitual ways of behaviour (see for example Ajzen, 1988; Baker, 1992). They are then used when explaining behaviour – people act in accordance with their attitudes. (Indeed, a similar process of inference is arguably followed to determine ones' own subconscious attitudes.) Inferring attitudes is made yet more difficult by the fact that people may hold multiple and contradictory attitudes towards the same object (or the same object under different descriptions).

3.21a Problems with determining individual attitudes in the Japanese context

However, it must be noted, especially in the Japanese context, that the 'behaviour' here may be that of a group rather than that of an individual. Entire cultures may make 'evaluations'; 'psychological tendencies' may be that of a whole society. Indeed, in Japan especially, the perceived attitudes of the group often have priority over the attitudes of the individual in influencing behaviour. With maintenance of social cohesiveness the

chief imperative, individual behaviour is not always an indicator of individual attitudes.

The terms *honne* (dissent or true underlying motives) and *tatemae* (official stance) introduced in section 1.41 can be understood in terms of individual and group attitudes respectively. The form used by Japanese people speaking in public is almost always *tatemae*, which always springs from the perceived attitudes or feelings of the group. This often contrasts with *honne*, that is, the true attitude or feeling of the individual.

An extreme example of this contrast can be found in the *kamikaze* or suicide warriors of World War II, when mothers encouraged their sons to lay down their lives for the Emperor, instead of saying that they wanted their sons to come back safely. Their sons also declared that they are willing to die for the emperor, and even when dying in battle, cried out, *Tennoheika Bannzai* ('Long reign the Emperor'). Only after the war, as the private letters and diaries of the suicide warriors came to light, did any evidence of true feelings (*honne*) differing from this *tatemae* emerge.

Even in Japan today, the ability to distinguish between *honne* and *tatemae*, and to use each in the appropriate setting and way, 'is regarded as a measure of maturity' (Hendry, 1995: 46). McConnell (2000), working as an assistant teacher teaching English to Japanese secondary school students under the JET programme (see section 2.72) reports many experiences with *honne* and *tatemae*, noting that:

> In effect, there are two social orders operating in Japanese bureaucracy. One is the formal level of universal principle, which in Japan is referred to as *tatemae*. The other is informal level, or *honne*, influenced by the realities of particular situations and relationships (2000: 160).

As Baker notes, 'observation of external behaviour may produce mis-categorisation and wrongful explanation. Such behaviour may be consciously or unconsciously designed to disguise or conceal inner attitudes' (1992: 15). This is clearly the case in Japan, and very careful observation (keeping the duality of *honne* and *tatemae* in mind)

is required to assess attitudes.

3.21b Changing attitudes

While being 'enduring' is one of the characteristics of attitudes (see section 3.21 above), it is surely vital to determine how something strongly determinative of academic achievement can alter – from a negative to a positive attitude, and vice versa.

One obvious entry into this field is through Klausmeier's comment that attitudes 'have both an affective component and an informational component' (1985: 403). Alterations to the informational component – that is, gaining new information about the object in question – can alter attitudes. Indeed, Klausmeier holds that 'people's attitudes are less permanent than our understanding of concepts and principles' (1985: 377).

In foreign language learning, Gass & Selinker (2001) discuss the changes of attitudes over time in terms of the difference of the social settings as follows;

> In the type of Learning situation studied in most detail by Gardner (Anglophone Canadians in a bilingual setting), it is unlikely that attitudes toward Francophones would change much, because there is so much contact between the two groups already that whatever attitudes exist have been firmly implanted. It is much easier to imagine children who have virtually no exposure to other cultures changing their attitudes toward speakers of other language after learning more about the literature and culture of the speakers of that language (2001: 355).

Brown suggests that 'negative attitudes can be changed, often by exposure to reality – for example, by encounters with actual persons from other cultures' (1994: 169).

In Japan, where the vast majority of people have little or no direct contact with the culture or members of the English-speaking world, it is therefore probable that there is considerable scope for change in learner attitudes.

3.22 Attitudes in foreign language education

3.22a Attitudes play important role in FLL

In educational psychology, attitudes are considered strongly determinative of academic achievement (this is of course simply a special case of the conclusion reached in section

3.1 above, that 'affective variables are thus expected to be greatly determinative of success in learning English'). For example, Klausmeier notes that 'attitudes influence how well students learn and how they behave' (1985: 375) and goes on to give an example – high school students with positive attitudes toward mathematics take optional courses in mathematics, whereas those with negative attitudes take only the required courses. Furthermore, he insists on the importance of teachers' attitudes towards students in facilitating learning. Finocchiaro suggests even more broadly that 'the attitudes of students, teachers, community members, peers, and others with whom the student comes into contact' all are causal factors for motivation (1989: 48).

The term 'attitude' in foreign language learning is generally used to refer to the attitude of the learners towards the TL society (Lightbown & Spada, 1999: 56; Littlewood, 1984: 55; McLaughlin, 1987: 126; Brown, 1994: 168). This attitude towards the target society is 'a factor of learners attitudes toward their own native culture, their degree of ethnocentrism, and the extent to which they prefer their own language over the one they are learning as a second language' (Brown, 1994: 168). In terms that concern us here, then, we are interested in Japanese students' attitude towards Japanese culture, their degree of ethnocentrism, and the extent to which they prefer Japanese over English.

Attitudes, as enduring or persistent, are particularly important ('determinative of academic achievement') in foreign language education, because learning a foreign language requires such long-term endeavour. Attitudes, of both the learner and other people in the learners' social environment, play a crucial role in determining the degree and persistence of the learners' motivation.

This crucial role manifests at many levels, from the decisions of individual students regarding optional classes, through to nationwide policy decisions. As Lewis

(1981) writes:

> Any policy for language, especially in the system of education, has to take account of the attitude of those likely to be affected. In the long run, no policy will succeed which does not do one of three things: conform to the expressed attitudes of those involved; persuade those who express negative attitudes about rightness of the policy; or seek to remove the causes of the disagreement. In any case knowledge about attitudes is fundamental to the formulation of a policy as well as to success in its implementation (1981: 262).

Given the current strong pressures to make English-language education more efficient, then, the examination of Japanese people's attitudes to English learning is vital to the fashioning of successful policy, whether that policy is at the level of educational institutions or of government.

3.22b Wide variety of attitudes relevant to FLL

The phrase 'language attitudes' is, as Baker (1992) states, 'an umbrella term'. The question is which attitudes should be highlighted in a specific language situation for specific research. Language attitudes might be researched in terms of language teaching, language learning, language communities, language itself, parents' language attitudes, or yet other aspects. Baker (1992), coming to his extensive studies on language attitudes from his interest in bilingualism and the conservation of minority languages, lists various attitudes of interest to FLL research:

- attitude to language variation, dialect and speech style
- attitude to learning a new language
- attitude to a specific minority language (e.g. Irish)
- attitude to language groups, communities and minorities
- attitude to language lessons
- attitude to the uses of a specific language
- attitude of parents to language learning
- attitude to language preference (Baker, 1992: 29)

Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991), examining a variety of research on attitudes in 2LL and FLL, identify the following areas:

(1) Parents: parents' attitudes towards the target language community affect not only children's attitudes but also achievement

(2) Peers: the attitudes of peers affects learners' acquisition of a second language

(3) Learning situation: the learners' attitudes towards the learning situation affect their degree of success

(4) Teachers: teachers' attitudes towards learners affect the quality and quantity of the learning which takes place

(5) Ethnicity: ethnicity can determine attitudes and behaviour toward members of other groups, and these in turn might affect achievement (1991: 178-180).

With so many relevant or possibly relevant attitudes to consider in the course of researching 'attitudes to and motivation for learning English' (see section 1.51), it is necessary to clearly determine which sort of attitudes will be focussed upon. Which attitudes are relevant is related to the social context where foreign language learning occurs – this is so particularly in Japan, where most learners have almost no direct contact with the TL society and the classroom is almost the only place learners directly encounter the TL (as suggested in 3.21b above).

3.23 Empirical research into attitudes to learning English

Very little research has been undertaken on Japanese students' attitudes to learning English. However, there are some studies into Asian attitudes, which involve Japan as one Asian country; and a Japanese study of the role of attitudes in language acquisition.

3.23a Asian students: obedient and unquestioning in the language classroom?

Littlewood, a native English teacher with experience in Hong Kong, carried out some research designed to determine whether the common preconception that Asian students 'see the teacher as an authority figure, and as a fount of all knowledge which they will need to acquire' (2000: 31) has any basis in fact.

His sample included 2307 Asian students studying at senior secondary and tertiary level in a variety of Asian countries, including Brunei, mainland China, Hong

Kong, South Korea, Malaysia, Thailand, Vietnam, and Japan (212 people). For comparison, Littlewood included 349 students from three European countries: Spain, Germany and Finland.

Each table gives the average response for each country on a scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree); the higher the average response is, the more (and the more strongly) students are adopting the unquestioning and obedient classroom attitudes often thought to be characteristic of Asian students,.

Table 3: passive student attitudes, average of responses (by country)

Question 1: In the classroom I see the teacher as somebody whose authority should not be questioned.

Vietnam	Mainland China	Finland	South Korea	Malaysia	**Japan**	Germany	Hong Kong	Thailand	Spain	Brunei
2.27	2.29	2.39	2.41	2.42	**2.52**	2.56	2.58	2.61	2.76	3.00

Question 2: I see knowledge as something that the teacher should pass on to me rather than something that I should discover myself.

Finland	Vietnam	Mainland China	South Korea	Germany	Spain	**Japan**	Thailand	Malaysia	Brunei	Hong Kong
1.77	1.95	1.99	2.04	2.25	2.62	**2.72**	2.73	2.74	2.86	2.94

Question 3: I expect the teacher (rather than me myself) to be responsible for evaluating how much I have learnt.

Finland	Germany	Vietnam	**Japan**	Mainland China	Spain	South Korea	Brunei	Malaysia	Thailand	Hong Kong
2.54	2.54	2.67	**2.74**	2.87	3.08	3.10	3.28	3.25	3.38	3.61

(From Littlewood, 2000: 33. Shown here in ascending order of average response.)

This result challenges the traditional (and still widely held) view of the Asian educational situation, whereby as a result of the long cultural tradition of unconditional obedience to authority, teachers are taken as a fount of knowledge rather than as a facilitator. The European versus Asian results can be summarized thus:

Table 4: passive student attitudes, average of responses (Japan vs. Europe and Asia)

	European Countries	Asian Countries	**Japan**
Question 1 (Should not question teacher's authority)	2.53	2.46	**2.52**
Question 2 (My learning should be passive)	2.13	2.51	**2.72**
Question 3 (Expect teacher to evaluate my progress)	2.72	3.11	**2.74**

For questions 1 and 3, the average of Japanese responses is very close to the average response across European countries, and somewhat further from the average response across Asian countries. Only for question 2 does the average of Japanese responses differ interestingly from that of European countries (indeed, it is above even the average response across Asian countries).

Littlewood writes that the 'results suggest that, if Asian students do indeed adopt the passive classroom attitudes that are often claimed, this is more likely to be a consequence of the educational contexts that have been or are now provided for them, than of any inherent dispositions of the students themselves' (Littlewood, 2000: 33). That is to say, Asian students may believe that they *should* be able to question the teacher's authority (Question 1), believe that they *should* engage in active learning (Question 2), and *wish* (if not quite *expect*) to evaluate their own progress (Question 3), all while being caught in a very different classroom situation.

Littlewood also identifies a tendency for Asian students to 'enjoy activities as part of groups in which they were all working towards common goals' (using the same system of answers as above, overall average 3.93; 4.00 in Asia, 3.75 in Europe). Students likewise feel 'that their own success will benefit other people as well as themselves' (overall average 3.92; 4.03 in Asia, 3.60 in Europe) (2000: 34). Such collectiveness is often pointed out as a characteristic of Japanese society.

Such results seem to suggest that students' attitudes are changing away from the traditional unconditional obedience to authorities, yet their traditional value of

collectiveness is remaining. Recognizing such changes in Japanese students' attitudes, and how these attitudes impact FLL, may help lead to more successful English teaching.

3.23b One Japanese girl's attitudes to foreign languages in the U.S.

Nakachi's (1983) analytical observation of a nineteen-year-old Japanese girl who had been raised in the U.S. for fourteen and a half years, except for two short-term stays in Japan, is an interesting study of the role of attitudes in language acquisition.

As the subject had had to learn English and Spanish, as well as Japanese, Nakachi was able to examine the effect of attitudes on the acquisition of each respective language. The subject had a very positive attitude towards the English-speaking community, including her neighbourhood, whose residents were predominantly upper-middle-class Caucasians, and also she had parental encouragement to learn English. As a result, she learned English successfully. In contrast, she was not a good learner of Spanish, which was a requirement at secondary school. She had been neither exposed nor oriented to the Spanish-speaking society, and none of her family had ever learned Spanish.

Nakachi concluded that appropriate attitudes and orientation can sustain the motivation to learn a second language and favourably affect the learner's proficiency in the language. Further, learning is at its most effective when such orientation and attitudes are supported, encouraged and shared by the learner's family, teacher, and others in the linguistic-cultural community.

However, it is important to keep in mind that both researcher and subject were in the U.S. As Larsen-Freeman & Long suggest, the 'effect of attitudes might be much stronger in such a context where there is much more of an opportunity for contact between learners and TL speakers than in a foreign language context where the opportunities are more limited' (1991: 177). That is, attitudes may not have such a strong effect in the Japanese context, where most students have very limited

opportunities for direct contact with English speakers.

Nakachi also makes the more general observation that Japanese who live in the U.S. 'have little integrative impulse into the target society', commenting that '[e]ven in an English-speaking community, the Japanese stay together and do things among themselves' (1983: 71). Cohesiveness and the fear of losing their Japanese identity seem to prevent them from seeking assimilation, and this does not produce a favourable attitude to learning English. We are again confronted with the need for research into attitudes specific to the Japanese context.

3.24 Social distance, geographic distance, psychological distance and linguistic distance

Schumann discusses the effect of attitude on 2LL in terms of the social distance and psychological distance between the learner and the TL community (1976).

Social distance is related to social factors – whether the 2LL group is politically, culturally, technically or economically dominant, non-dominant or subordinate in relation to the TL community. He shows that 'the greater the social distance between the two groups, the more difficult it is for the members of 2LL group to acquire the language of the TL group' (Schumann, 1976a: 153). He offers the positive example of American Jewish immigrants to Israel. As negative examples, he mentions Americans living in Riyadh in Saudi Arabia, Navajo Indians living in the Southwest reservation, and first generation immigrants to the United States from all over the world. As all of these are 2LL situations, they are not directly relevant to the Japanese FLL context.

However, all of the negative examples cited by Schumann suggest that ethnic or group cohesiveness is another factor affecting social distance – high cohesion within the group often equates to insularity against (social distance from) non-group members. This is what Nakachi recognised among Japanese people living in the U.S. (see section 3.23b above) – the groupism innate in the homogeneous society of Japan militates

against FLL, whether at home or abroad.

In addition to social distance, the geographic isolation of Japan constitutes geographic distance, which prevents direct contact with the TL. For most Japanese people, the TL society does not seem to be a real entity. Seki (2000) asked 26 native English-speakers teaching English at universities in Japan how geographic distance affected Japanese English-language education – most of them recognized it as a hindrance, and commented that Japanese culture was until recently quite insular and Japanese students have only recently had reason to use any foreign languages.

In fact, Japanese people generally contact the TL society only indirectly – through the media, English-language movies, music, and fashions so on. In such cases, Schumann (1976b) suggests, perception of the TL society is more a matter of individual response, and a concept of psychological distance (distance, created by affective factors, between the learner as an individual and the TL society) is more relevant than that of social distance. Schumann suggests that psychological distance is also more relevant '[a]s the classification of the 2LL group in either the good or bad language learning situations becomes less determinant' (1976b: 401). That is, in the absence of a strong default expectation that a given learner will or will not learn the TL, and/or where there is little direct society-to-society contact, 'distance' from the TL is largely down to the individual (psychological distance) rather than the society (social distance). (In Japan, the perceived difficulty of learning English means that learners are not really expected to ever be able to communicate freely in English, and there is little direct contact with the TL society; so, on Schumann's model, psychological distance may be more explanatorily useful than social distance.)

Lastly, linguistic distance should not be overlooked. As previously mentioned (see sections 1.43 and 1.44), Japanese language is the only major world language whose

genetic affiliation to other language is not proven. Curteis comments on the enormous difference between Japanese and English, and notes some features of Japanese which are not present in English. For example, there is no countable/uncountable distinction; no system of articles; and (with a few qualifications) no plural forms of nouns (1993: 6). Curteis concludes that these differences work as 'a great deal of interference' for learners (1993: 9).

Given the important role of attitudes in FLL, the issue of how the social, geographic, psychological, and linguistic distances of Japanese from English impacts on the attitudes of Japanese learners towards learning English requires further examination.

3.3 Motivation

As mentioned in section 3.1, motivation is considered a key factor in the successful acquisition of second and foreign languages, and a great deal of research has been conducted on the issue as a result. Most of this research, however, has concerned 2LL situations in the West. In order to determine whether or not it is valid to apply the conclusions of this research to the Japanese situation, with its unique features and problems (see section 1.4), careful research is required.

This section will examine first the nature of motivation in general, and then the role of motivation in 2LL and FLL in particular. This will be followed by a discussion of some relevant empirical research into motivation.

3.31 Definition of 'Motivation'

Many theories of motivation have been put forward over the years, because it is thought of as the key to understanding behaviour.

Klausmeier (1985) classifies the theories of motivation which prevailed in the 20th

century into three families; psychoanalytic theories, association theories, and humanistic theories. Psychoanalytic theories (Freudian psychoanalysis, for example) are focussed on abnormal behaviour as well as normal behaviour. Association theories view motivation as a stimulus-response mechanism, and are therefore focussed on the environment as determining behaviour, rather than on individual choice and determination. In contrast, humanistic theories place greater emphasis on the normal life and experience of the individual.

Humanistic theorists intend not so much to manipulate human behaviour as to understand it. Because humanistic theories are concerned with the normal aspects of human behaviour, they seem to attract broader interest. Maslow, one of the main proponents of humanistic theory, proposes (1970) that motivation itself implies need-satisfying behaviour, with the hierarchy of needs-motives as follows; 1) physiological needs (the lowest rank in his hierarchy); followed by 2) safety needs, 3) belongingness and love needs, 4) esteem needs, 5) self-actualization needs, 6) desires to know and understand, and 7) aesthetic needs. Higher level needs come into effect (cause, or explain) only when lower-level needs have been gratified. Maslow suggests a kind of cut-off for 'higher-level', around level five, self-actualization needs. Self-actualization 'refers to people's desire for self-fulfilment, namely, the tendency for them to become actualized in what they are potentially' (Maslow, 1970: 22). Rivers (1983) interprets Maslow's theory as follows;

> … that all human beings have a hierarchy of needs that must be satisfied before they can reach the stage where the achievement of their potential as individuals becomes their chief concern- the stage where they seek to develop their powers and increase their knowledge and experience. (1994: 148)

Rivers argues that Maslow's hierarchical needs theory can be adapted to 2LL, especially to bilingual settings. When language students are not performing to their

teachers expectations, 'the reasons may be traceable to unsatisfied lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs' (Rivers, 1983: 148).

It seems conceivable that the order of Maslow's hierarchical needs could differ between individuals and contexts. Also, there appear to be some counterexamples or exceptions to the hierarchy – people who exhibit at least some aspects of self-actualization despite having unsatisfied lower-level needs. Hungry artists, philosophers in the trenches – in some cases, being hungry or in danger seems to fuel higher-level needs-motives. In reply, it seems that Maslow might accept these as exceptions while retaining a useful generalisation; or argue that professional or creative brilliance is not the same thing as self-actualization – in other words, that people can be driven by adversity to excel in specific fields, without becoming 'actualized in what they are potentially' in a full, happy, rounded sense.

At any rate, a broadly similar form of humanistic theory has been widely accepted in education 'to identify the ungratified psychological needs of students which may be preventing them from seeking to gratify the growth needs, thereby causing discipline problems, personal problems, or both' (Klausmeier, 1985: 220).

3.31a Distinction between attitude and motivation

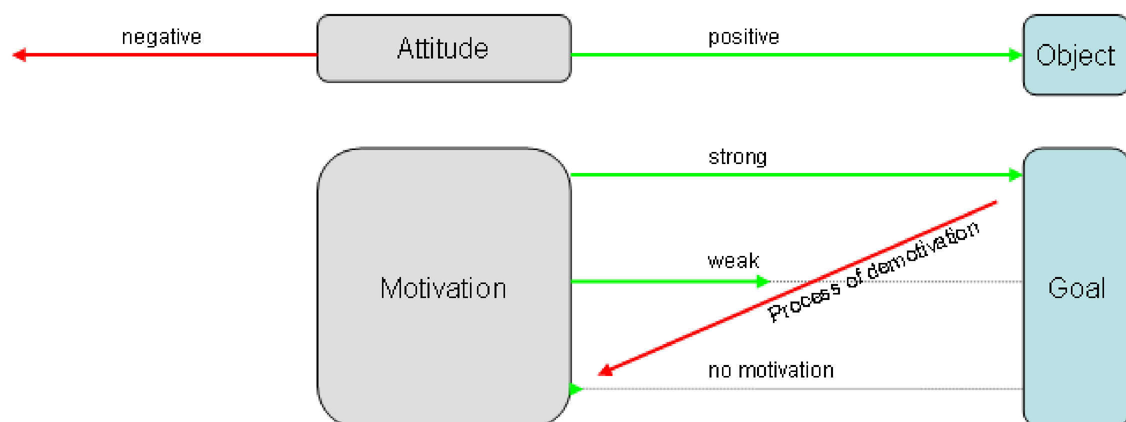
Baker, discussing the distinction between 'attitude' and 'motive' in foreign language education, notes that these two terms 'often appear without discussion of the extent of over-lap and difference' (1992: 14). Gardner & Lambert (1972) define 'motivation' as the second-language learner's overall goal and orientation, and 'attitude' as the learner's persistence in striving to the goal. However, 'motivation' and 'attitude' are not thereby clearly delineated from one another, in that 'the learner's motivation for language study would be determined by his attitudes and readiness to identify and by his orientation to the whole process of learning a foreign language' (1972: 132).

Indeed, as Mitchell and Myles note, '[r]esearch on L2 language attitudes has largely been conducted within the framework of broader research on motivation, of which attitudes form one part' (1998: 19). Ellis discusses the difficulty of separating attitudes and motivation, noting that both are only derived from the behaviour of language learners, and are never directly observed. Ellis goes on to say that '[i]t is clear that there is no general agreement about what precisely "motivation" or "attitudes" consist of, nor of the relationship between the two' (1985: 117).

However, this said, it is widely accepted that attitudes are object specific, and motivation has particular actions as its goals (Newcomb, 1950; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Baker, 1992). Johnstone, for example, wrote that '[a]ttitudes have objects as their points of reference, e.g. a positive attitude to school, a negative attitude to mathematics' and continues that '[m]otivation has goals rather than objectives as its point of reference' (1989: 120).

Therefore, individuals are assessed on whether they have negative or positive attitudes to a certain object. On the other hand, motivation is either present (at some strength) or absent, rather than negative or positive.

Figure 1: distinction between attitude and motivation



In the case of English-language education in Japan, the relationship between

attitudes and motivation is particularly complex. Many high school students are strongly motivated to learn English – to succeed in the university entrance examinations and enter a prestigious university. However, students often also have negative attitudes towards English learning because of the grammar-based approach (which is, however, appropriate to exam-oriented study).

The grammar-based approach is the same as that used by Bashlsen in 1905 to study French, a method described by him as ‘a barren waste of insipid sentence translation, committing words to memory, translating sentences, drilling irregular verbs, later memorising, repeating, and applying grammatical rules with their exceptions’ (quoted in Krashen, 1987: 9). Faced with this style of class, Japanese students are unlikely to have positive attitudes to English learning, but ironically are strongly motivated to learn English in order to enter a prestigious university.

3.32 Motivation in foreign language learning

3.32a Dichotomy theory (social psychological model) of motivation

Given the widespread acceptance that motivation is a key to success in mastering a foreign language, it is no surprise that a substantial body of research into motivation and both 2LL and FLL exists. The social psychological approach and extensive experimentation of Gardner & Lambert (1959, 1972) won them particular favour with linguists. They identify two types of motivation; instrumental motivation or ‘a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language’, and integrative motivation or ‘a desire to be representative members of the other language community’ (Gardner & Lambert, 1972: 14).

In their first study (1959), a twelve-year study of English-speaking high school students who were studying French in Montreal, Gardner & Lambert used a measure of motivational intensity similar to Jones’ (1950) index of interest in learning a language.

In this research, they found that students with integrative motivation were more successful in learning a second language that those with instrumental motivation. The students' parents' attitudes also affected their motivation. That is, the students integratively oriented to learn French had 'the parents who also were integrative in outlook and sympathetic to the French community' (Gardner & Lambert, 1972: 5). Results such as these led the researchers to conclude that integrative motivation can last longer and create more positive results than instrumental motivation, because the former is more deeply concerned with the personality of the learner.

A later study by Gardner & Lambert in America, prompted by the question of 'how far one could generalize the results of Canadian-based studies and how relevant the theory suggested would be in other settings' (Gardner & Lambert, 1972: 132), produced somewhat more complex results. Data from substantial questionnaires (with more than fifty separate tests or indices included in the battery) collected in Louisiana, Maine and Connecticut proved that the students' motivation stemmed from a distinctive attitudinal basis in each social context: in Louisiana, parental support and encouragement enhanced students' motivation; in Maine, the students' identification with their French teacher underlay their motivation; and in Connecticut, students were integratively oriented toward the language-learning process and realization of the usefulness of knowing the language.

Similar research in the Philippines (Gardner & Santos, 1970) was conducted on senior high school students in a suburb of Manila, using a questionnaire addressing various attitude and motivation variables, together with a test of English achievement. (For this study Gardner and Lambert shifted attention from French to English, the second national language of the Philippines.) In this case however, the results showed that instrumental motivation was providing a stronger drive for English learning than

integrative motivation. In the Philippines English has enormous instrumental value, and students who were instrumentally oriented to English learning, and who were supported by their parents in this regard, performed with conspicuous success. Gardner concludes that instrumental motivation is extremely effective to those who feel it urgent to master a foreign language for getting a job and promotion. That is, instrumental motivation is particularly effective when the expected advantage is significant. Where no such significant expected advantage is present, integrative motivation is a better predictor of success.

Gardner & Lambert's identification of these two types of motivation in language learning offered an impetus to the study of language motivation that had previously been lacking. However, the social settings chosen for Gardner & Lambert's research are mainly 2LL contexts, rather than FLL contexts like Japan. In Japan, English has no real role within the society itself, and is 'taught in the educational system because of the benefits it brings from outside the home country' (Cook, 1996: 139) – Gardner & Lambert's term 'integrative' has hardly any application in its original sense in the Japan context – which might seem to suggest that all Japanese students must be, if motivated at all, instrumentally motivated.

Considerations such as this raise several questions for the simple dichotomous classification of motivation. For example: Are the two types of motivation mutually exclusive? Is there a further type which mixes the two types? Are two types of motivation enough to explain all possible motives?

A survey of young people in Europe conducted by the EC Commission in 1987 presents the following interesting results: 29 percent wanted to learn more languages for their career; and 14 percent for living, working, and studying in the country of the TL. The motivation of these two groups can be described as instrumental motivation and

integrative motivation respectively. However, 51 percent of respondents were motivated by 'personal interest' – which does not seem to fit with either instrumental or integrative motivation.

Likewise, Oxford & Shearin argue that 'the current theory might not cover all possible kinds of L2 learning motivation' (1994: 12). They asked 218 American high school students to write an essay explaining their motivation for studying Japanese. Only one third of answers fitted well into either instrumental or integrative motivation; Oxford & Shearin analyzed the remainder into twenty distinguishable motivation categories, including for example receiving intellectual stimulation, seeking personal challenge, and enjoying the elitism of taking a difficult language, showing off to friends.

3.32b Critical expansions to the dichotomy theory

In view of research such as that canvassed above, it is clear that the dichotomy theory of motivation needs to be expanded into a more pluralistic theory. Indeed, Gardner & Lambert (1972) themselves suggest the possibility of 'manipulative' or 'intellectual' motivation in addition to instrumental and integrative motivation.

In this way, after a long period of dominance for the dichotomy theory of motivation, a number of critical treatments and expansions have emerged (see for example Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). They attempt to expand the theoretical framework of motivation by adapting motivational concepts drawn from other research areas – as 'other psychological perspectives [than the social psychological one the dichotomy theory is based in] may yield fresh insights for rethinking L2 learning motivation' (Oxford & Shearin, 1994: 12). This new framework allows that:

> Motivation is best explained as a complex and dynamic process with room for several intervening variables. Secondly, we also advocate the exploration of other motivational theories as a way of expanding the motivation construct but recognise

> that such endeavour is of no value in the absence of pertinent empirical research (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994: 366).

Such treatments hold the promise of being able not only to account for empirical data such as that discussed above, but also to expand the theory to cover situations other than the traditional focus, 2LL – a wider and more universal application of the motivational components and constructs to language learning situations including essentially monolingual situations like Japan.

Gardner defines motivation to learn a second language as 'the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity' (1985: 10). In this definition he offers three components of motivation; 1) effort expended to learn the material, 2) desire to learn the material, and 3) favourable attitudes associated with learning and material. Desire and favourable attitudes must co-exist with effort to explain motivation.

Tremblay & Gardner (1995) expand the concept of motivational components and offer new motivational components implied in motivational behaviour (which can be observed from outside) and motivational antecedents (which cannot be perceived by an external observer). They postulate that for assessing motivational behaviour, effort, attention, and persistence should be used as measurements. Motivational antecedents, on the other hand, include various components referring to characteristics of individuals which affect language learning motivation, which include expectancy and self-efficacy, valence, causal attributions, and goal setting.

Expectancy and *self-efficacy* refer to an individual's belief that he / she has the capability to reach a certain level of performance or achievement – similar to self-confidence, which is said to be the most important determinant of motivation to learn and use the L2 in a multicultural setting (Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). The difference between self-efficacy and self-confidence is that the latter does not include

anxiety. *Valence* is defined as desire and attractiveness towards the task (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995: 508). This has a great influence on the learner's motivation; if the learner does not perceive value in his/her performance, he/she will not be strongly motivated. *Causal attributions* are classified into two; internal attributes such as ability and effort usually perceived within the individual, and external attributes such as luck and task difficulty perceived outside the individual (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995: 508). These attributes experienced in past events are thought to determine the future behaviour. In *goal setting* theory it is suggested that in 'the context of language learning one could hypothesise that individuals who assign themselves specific and difficult goals are better learners than individuals who do not have such goals' (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995: 508). Similarly, learners with specific and challenging goals are hypothesised to persist longer in their task than those with easy and ambiguous goals.

3.32c Self-determination theory of motivation

Since the learning of second and foreign language is strongly bound to the learners' social dispositions towards the speech community in question, it is natural that much research on motivation in 2LL originally came from social psychology. A significant body of research shows that the desire for contact and identification with members of the TL is observed only in specific socio-cultural contexts. Clément & Kruidenier (1983) carried out research in both multilingual and monolingual contexts (French and English high school students of Spanish, English, and French), and found integrative orientation only in the multilingual contexts where there was a clearly dominant group. Such research suggests that integrative motivation is social-context bounded and has no universal application. Results such as these have prompted a movement, since the late 1980s, to expand the theoretical framework of language learning motivation from a social psychological view to an educational psychology point of view (see section 3.32b above).

Among the resulting alternative motivational models, the application of Deci & Ryan's (1985) Self-Determination Theory to the study of L2 motivation made by Noels, Clément & Pelletier (1999) is worthy of note.

The self-determination approach identifies two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. 'Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation to perform an activity simply for the pleasure and satisfaction that accompany the action', and 'is considered to be highly self-determined in the sense that the reason for doing activity is linked solely to the individual's positive feelings while performing the task' (Noels *et al.* 1999: 24). Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, implies a lack of self-determination, which leads to the behaviours performed not because of inherent interest but because of extrinsic stimuli. In brief, extrinsic motivation is 'based on rewards extrinsic to the activity itself' (Noels, Pelletier & Vallerand, 2000: 60). The third basic classification offered by Deci & Ryan is amotivation, or a lack of any kind of motivation. This differs from demotivation, which refers to a loss of motivation rather than the state of lacking any motivation.

However, the revision to the dichotomy theory does not stop at the identification of amotivation: extrinsic motivations are classified into four levels and intrinsic motivations are classified into three levels. For extrinsic motivation these are: (Vallerand *et al.*, 1992; Vallerand, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2000)

1. External regulation, where behaviour is externally controlled, to satisfy an external demand or obtain a reward

2. Introjected regulation, where the person has internalized the pressure to behave but not fully identified with the personal importance of the behaviour (focussing on approval from self or others)

3. Identified regulation, where the person has identified with the personal importance of the behaviour

4. Integrated regulation, where identified regulations are fully assimilated to the self (where extrinsic motivation is most self-regulated)

For intrinsic motivation these further classifications are: (Vallerand, 1997)

1. IM-Knowledge, where motivation is linked to the feeling associated with exploring new ideas and developing knowledge

2. IM-Accomplishment, where motivation is linked to the sensations related to attempting to master a task or achieve a goal

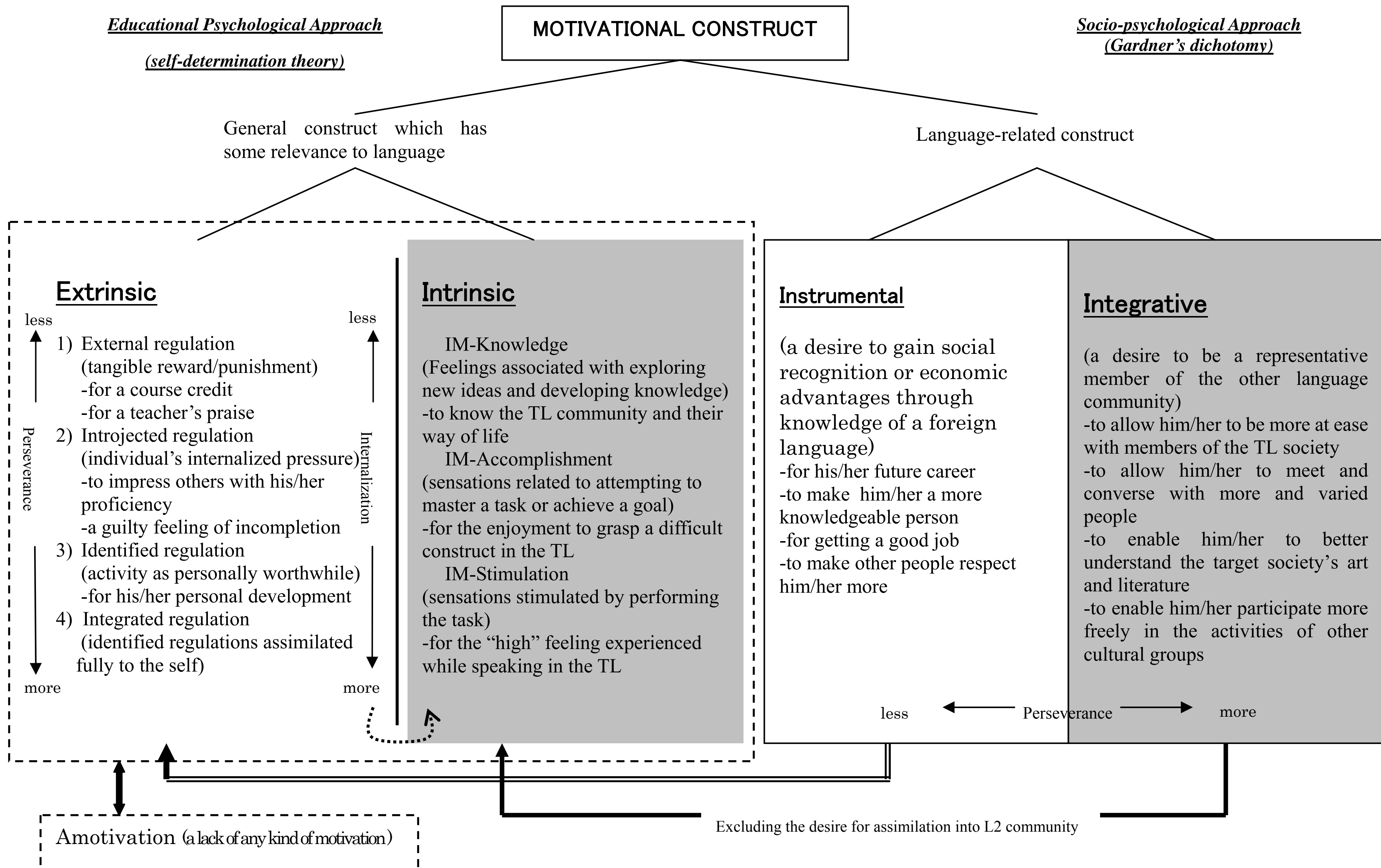
3. IM-Stimulation, where motivation is linked to the sensations stimulated by performing the task.

These new motivational components and constructs based on self-determination theory do not exclude other previously discussed motivational components and constructs – rather, they overlap with them and expand the frame of motivational components and constructs. Motivations, individuated with reference to their goal, are classified into one of either extrinsic or intrinsic (on the self-determination theory) *and* one of either instrumental or integrative (under Gardner *et al.'s* dichotomy theory). The self-determination theory is source focused in the sense that this classification depends on the source of the stimulus or pressure (as inside or outside the self). Gardner *et al.'s* dichotomy theory is goal focused in the sense that this classification depends on the nature of the goal (as utilitarian or related to assimilation).

As Johnstone (2001: 157) argues, 'the motivational study by Noels, Pelletier & Vallerand adopts a general rather than an L2-specific starting point in the form of self-determination theory.' This enables the theoretical framework to more naturally cover FLL contexts like Japan, where students have little social contact with the TL community.

The following figure shows the relations between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation vs. instrumental and integrative motivation.

Figure 2: motivational components and constructs



3.32d Dörnyei's model of motivation

In line with the new approach to motivation research, Dörnyei (1998) creates a new theoretical framework of motivation based on the idea that motivation is the prime element for learning a L2:

> Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent (Dörnyei, 1998: 117).

Dörnyei *et al.* (Dörnyei, Clément & Noels, 1994) extend the general framework of L2 motivation through a study on Hungarian learners who study English in a school context and usually do not communicate with members of the L2 community in their social context. The theoretical framework has three levels; 1) language, 2) learner, and 3) learning situation. Dörnyei (1994) explains these three levels in relation to the established concepts of motivation for L2 learning as follows:

> Three levels coincide with three basic constituents of the L2 learning process (the L2, the L2 learner, and the L2 learning environment) and also reflect the three different aspects of language … (the social dimension, the personal dimension, and the educational subject matter dimension) (Dörnyei, 1994: 273).

The characteristic of Dörnyei's classification of motivational components is his focus on the learning situation. He thinks that learners who have little normal contact with the TL (as is the case in Hungary and Japan) depend more on educational settings. Dörnyei's model of formation of L2 motivation seems to successfully extend and cover almost all the motivational components identified by earlier researchers:

Table 5: components of FLL motivation (from Dörnyei, 1998: 126)

Level	Components
LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence *Language Use Anxiety *Perceived L2 Competence *Casual Attributions *Self-Efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	
Course-Specific Motivational Components	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
Teacher-Specific Motivational Components	Affiliative Drive Authority Type Direct Socialization of Motivation *Modelling *Task Presentation *Feedback
Group-Specific Motivational Components	Goal-orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

The 'language level' covers Gardner *et al.*'s social psychological model, the 'learner level' covers learners' individual differences, and the 'learning situation level' covers formal educational settings and also relates to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These three levels include and expand upon both the social psychological model and the educational psychological model, creating a new comprehensive motivational model.

Dörnyei *et al.* hereby furnish a new dimension to the components of motivation theoretical framework – as a more open or flexible framework, this model allows that differing contexts for 2LL/FLL may generate a variety of components of motivation. This opens a new field to many researchers, especially those who are dealing with social contexts where there is no direct contact with the TL community.

3.32e Important relationship between type and strength of motivation

Ely (1986) signals the importance of examining the *strength* of motivation, as this

mediates the effect of motivational type on language learning outcomes. He conducted research into the relations between motivation type and motivation strength with first year university students of Spanish in northern California. In his questionnaire he put three motivation clusters: integrative, instrumental, requirement (related to fulfilling the university requirement or studying a foreign language as a requirement for the student's major). He demonstrated that instrumental and integrative motivations are strongly related to strength of motivation but requirement motivation is not related to it. In this way, it is important to discover 'which reasons for language study predict the greatest motivational strength in a particular population' (Ely, 1986: 28). For example, when implementing a language requirement for a major or a degree programme, the learners' overall attitudes towards foreign/second language study should be carefully considered.

3.32f 'Motivation' of not only students but also national/educational systems

Most scholars accept that a modified form of the Grammar-Translation Method (see, for example, section 1.32) is the prominent method in Japan. One exception is Law (1995), who after experience teaching English in Japan, proposed an interesting interpretation of the Japanese way of teaching English.

Law suggests that the public purposes and aims associated with the national education system take precedence over the personal motives and objectives of individual learners and teachers. On this view, the present situation of ELL has been formed by government policy, that is, the motives of the authorities. He notes three motives or 'non-communicative purposes' (Law, 1995: 217): to teach English as 1) a classical language, 2) an inverted image of Japanese, and 3) a set of arbitrary rules. These give the framework for ELL in Japan, and while the outcome (the current ELL situation) looks superficially similar to the Grammar-Translation Method, it is in fact an

indigenous Japanese method substantially different from Grammar-Translation. On this view, English in Japan has not always been taught as a language of international communication.

Law's comments might provide some insight into the research of Japanese students' motivation to English. It is worth examining to what extent Japanese students are affected by these ideologies.

3.32g Theory of motivation in FLL: summary

While there are many more theoretical frameworks for motivation, either generally or regarding language learning in particular, most correspond closely in structure to one of those discussed above, though often with different terminology.

Overall, the study of language learning motivation, which initially focussed on social psychological aspects (Gardner *et al.*), is now shifting to wider and more differential characteristics of individuals as well as towards educational contexts, that is, the classroom. Substantial research areas in this field remain unexplored.

A clear analysis of the components of language learning motivation is essential in the formulation of questions investigating the motivation of language learning students.

3.33 Anxiety

Anxiety is often identified as one of the important elements influencing acquisition of foreign languages.

3.33a Definition of 'Anxiety'

In psychology, anxiety is generally classified into trait anxiety, state anxiety and situation-specific anxiety. *Trait anxiety*, which is related to a stable part of an individual's personality, can be defined as a more permanent disposition to be anxious, which Ellis (1994: 479-480) notes 'is perhaps viewed as an aspect of personality'. *State anxiety* is 'an apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a

response to definite situation' connected to specific events or situation. *Situation-specific anxiety* is related to apprehension aroused at specific situations and events, during for example public speaking, class participation, or examinations (Ellis, 1994: 480). In a way, state anxiety is a combination of trait and situation-specific anxiety. Ehrman suggests that 'it may be a good way to treat all anxiety about learning as if it were state anxiety' because 'in this way, both you [the teacher] and the student can perceive the anxiety as manageable, not inevitable' (1996: 148).

Debilitating and facilitating anxiety are other types of anxiety which need to be considered. Debilitating anxiety, 'which is the more common interpretation of *anxiety*, is considered to be detrimental to performance' (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989: 252). On the other hand, 'facilitating anxiety mobilizes resources to accomplish a task' (Ehrman, 1996: 148) and 'motivates learners to fight the new learning task, prompting them to make extra efforts to overcome their feelings of anxiety' (Ellis, 1994: 482). Williams (1991: 21) suggests that the distinction between these two types of anxiety may correspond to the intensity of the anxiety, with a low-anxiety state having a facilitating function and a high-anxiety state a debilitating effect.

In foreign and second language learning, anxiety (in addition to attitudes and motivation) has been shown by various researchers to be an important affective variable which influences language achievement (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1989, 1991, 1994; Spolsky, 1989; Ehrman, 1996).

3.33b Language anxiety

Horwitz & Horwitz *et al.* (1986) view the following varieties of anxiety as having a deleterious effect on second-language acquisition,

1. Communication apprehension: occurs when students have immature 2L communication skills, although they have mature thoughts and ideas

2. Social-evaluative anxiety (fear of negative evaluation): occurs when students feel that they are not able to make the proper social impression because they are not sure of themselves and what they are saying

3. Test anxiety; which is apprehension over academic evaluation.

Tobias (1986) focuses on the effects of anxiety in instructional settings. He classifies learning in the classroom situation into three stages: input stage, processing stage, and output stage. At input stage, 'anxiety may cause attention deficits and poor initial processing of information', such that 'people with higher anxiety seem easily distracted from task because time is divided between the processing of emotion-related and task-related cognition' (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989: 255). At the processing stage, anxiety involves the apprehension experienced when cognitive operations are performed on the subject matter, such as difficulty of materials presented and the level of materials. At the output stage, anxiety 'encompasses the worry experienced when students are required to demonstrate their ability to produce previously learned material' (Onwuegbuzie *et al.*, 2000: 90).

A significant amount of research has also been done into the relationship between language anxiety and achievement. Results, however, are mixed:

> It should be noted, however, that not all the studies in their review produced significant correlations between anxiety and achievement. In fact, studies of learner anxiety have often produced even more mixed results (Ellis, 1994: 482).

That is, some researchers have found no significant correlation (see for example Young, 1986), while other results suggest that language anxiety is negatively correlated with performance quality and measures of performance in the 2L (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz *et al.*, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991).

While results are in this way mixed, and less attention has been paid to language anxiety in relation to other elements of FLL more central to the current research, such as attitudes and motivation, there 'is sufficient evidence to show that anxiety is an

important factor in L2 acquisition' (Ellis, 1994: 483). It is therefore worth examining the role of anxiety in the wider landscape of FLL. The present research will, to some extent, examine students' anxiety.

3.34 Learning Strategy

Since the seventies, the main current of research in 2L/FL learning and teaching has been on learners' characteristics and their social settings to find out the possible effects of these elements on their TL acquisition. In recent years research has placed more stress on the importance of learners' cognitive ability. Part of this movement has been to study learning strategies through 'a concern for identifying the characteristics of effective learners' (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 3). Likewise, researchers have been interested in the relation between language learning strategy and motivation.

3.34a Definition of 'Language Learning Strategy'

While admitting that the concept of 'strategy' is a difficult one to tie down, Ellis defines language learning strategy as 'a strategy consisting of mental or behavioural activity related to some specific stage in the overall process of language acquisition or language use' (1994: 529). On the same theme, Wenden uses the term 'learner strategies' to refer to language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a 2L (1987: 6). Cohen, in turn, understands 'learner strategies' as 'those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of formation about that language' (1998: 4). Gass suggests, rather more simply, that 'learner strategies' refer to what learners do to be a successful language learner, since successful language learners sometimes do different things from poor language learners (2001: 364).

3.34b Learning strategy and the present research

These various attempts to define learning strategies present some problems. Are these strategies mental or behavioural activities? Are they to be seen as conscious (intentional) or sometimes unconscious? Some researchers make a distinction between 'strategies' and 'tactics' according to whether they are conscious or subconscious, and behavioural or mental (see for example Seliger 1984; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 45).

Much recent research pays more attention to cognitive strategies, those which are 'for associating new information with existing information in long-term memory and for forming and revising internal mental models' (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989: 291).

Rubin's (1981) classification of learning strategies into (1) strategies that directly affect learning and (2) processes that contribute indirectly to learning is very useful. The first category covers cognitive strategies. The second one is subdivided into two: (2a) creates opportunities for practice, and (2b) production tricks. (2a) in particular is very important for Japanese students – without any contact with English in normal society, it is crucial to create opportunities – and this is surely connected to their attitudes and motivation. Strategies to create opportunities for practice might include, for example, seeking out situations with native speakers of the TL, initiating conversations in the TL with fellow students, spending time in a language lab, and listening to TV programmes in the TL.

Some of the questions in the questionnaires will relate to these learning strategy issues.

3.35 Empirical research into FLL motivation in Japan

Traditionally, the theoretical framework for motivation in FLL has tended to be the same as for 2LL. This implies, for example, that learners are considered to have opportunities to learn and use the language out of the classroom. As Crookes & Schmidt

(1991) comment:

> We see SL learning as an extended process, often taking place both inside and outside the classroom over a number of years; and above all, as one in which the learner takes an active role at many levels of the process. (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991: 483)

This – that learning is generally taken to occur not only inside but also outside the classroom – is one of the main reasons why motivation is considered so important in FLL. While in recent years, with the progress of globalisation in Japan, there are admittedly more and more opportunities to use English in real social contexts, people can easily live their entire life in this insular country without having to speak any language other than Japanese (see also section 1.42). It is perhaps surprising that Japan – advanced nation, importing/exporting powerhouse, with 18 million Japanese tourists travelling overseas in 2000 alone –is able to sustain such a largely monolingual and homogeneous society even now. Oxford (1994: 513) suggests that '[s]ituational characteristics – particularly the differences between foreign and second language settings – are extremely important in influencing language learning strategy use'. Japan, with its unusual social characteristics, should be regarded as an extreme FLL situation.

In Japan, the amount of research on students' motivation for learning English is remarkably small, compared with a mass of research conducted overseas, mainly in North America. One of the reasons is that in Japan, education traditionally functions as a top-down system (as mentioned in section 1.1). Whatever students themselves think *ought* to be the case in educational contexts (see section 3.23a), they generally have a passive attitude and depend on authority figures to tell them what to do – it is uncommon for them to be asked their needs or feelings in the classroom. However, this has started to change recently as Japan, confronted with the reality of internationalisation, searches for a way to teach English more effectively.

Some of the more interesting pieces of language learning motivation research

conducted with Japanese university students – the focus of the current research – will be presented at this stage as background on the present English-language education situation at Japanese universities.

3.35a Studies suggesting that students are 'personally' or integratively motivated

Benson (1991) concludes that integrative and personal reasons for learning English were preferred over instrumental ones.

His research, taking responses from 311 university freshmen, involved a new category, alongside instrumental and integrative motivation, called 'personal motivation'. Being 'personally motivated' to learn English suggests, for example, pleasure at being able to read English, and enjoyment of entertainment in English (similar to Deci's intrinsic motivation – see section 3.32c). Benson also suggests that, since Gardner & Lambert's original concept of integrative motivation as used in the Canadian context (see section 3.32a) is not applicable to the Japanese social milieu, 'a more appropriate rendering of "integrative" in the EFL context would be that it represents, on the part of the learner, a desire to become bilingual and bicultural, through the addition of another language and culture to their own' (Benson, 1991: 35).

Benson's results showed a clear rejection of instrumental motivation, but only cautious support for integrative and personal motivation. He argues that the rejection of instrumental motivation implies that students do not regard English as playing a vital role in everyday life, either present or future.

The social climate in Japan has been rapidly changing since the time Benson conducted his research in 1991. With the social milieu having a strong effect on motivation (see for example section 3.32a, Gardner's comment that instrumental motivation is extremely effective to those who feel it urgent to master a foreign language for getting a job and promotion), it is likely that Benson's research would yield different

results if repeated now.

However, a later study by Teweles (1996) showed that, compared to Chinese students, Japanese students are inclined toward integrative motivation. This comparative research on motivational differences between 40 Japanese first-and second-year university students and 40 Chinese counterparts suggested that Chinese students show a slight leaning toward instrumental motivation and Japanese students are rather inclined toward integrative motivation. Teweles attributes this result to the different approaches to English of Japanese and Chinese universities: Chinese universities have English courses for more specific occupational needs (for example, English for business, tour guides, interpreters) while Japanese universities offer general English. He comments:

> With the opening of its doors to other cultures and purveyors of different ideas about language learning, non-native speaking instructors in China are better able to emphasise communicative aspects of the target language and development in practical skill areas. Japan is also trying to diversify its foreign language methodology, but the heavy dosage of juken eigo (English for testing purpose) and associated grammar/translation-centred instruction that most secondary students get during their formative years has made the switch to a more communicative approach difficult. (Teweles, 1996: 223)

The more obvious goal (instrumental motivation) for Japanese students is therefore the (university entrance) test. Once the university entrance tests are over, this motivation suddenly disappears – a theme which recurs in other pieces of research below.

3.35b Studies suggesting that students are primarily instrumentally motivated

Berwick & Ross (1989) concentrate on 90 first-year university students' motivation in learning English. As discussed previously (see especially sections 1.31 and 1.32), entrance examinations to Japanese universities are so competitive that the period is known as 'examination hell' (Vogel, 1971 uses 'Infernal Entrance Examination' as a chapter title), and secondary school English-language education is geared to success in

entering prestigious universities. The problem is that after achieving what feels like the final goal and entering university, exam-worn survivors may no longer motivated.

It is in this context that Berwick & Ross note that 'the intensity of motivation to learn English hits a peak in the last year of high school' (1989: 206), and that 'most university language teachers in Japan lament the apparent lack of motivation and positive attitudes toward learning their students show shortly after matriculation to university' (Berwick & Ross, 1989: 193).

With results collected from the same students at the beginning and end of their first year of university, Berwick & Ross observe the development of motivation which is related to students' perceptions of their prospective uses for the language. They conclude that Japanese students are instrumentally motivated.

This conclusion allows Berwick & Ross to make sense of the (*prima facie* surprising, given the generally low motivation of university students) fact that there are more private English language schools for adults in Japan than in any other nation in the world. A certain period of time and experience affects learner's feelings and beliefs regarding the usefulness of English – presumably, learners realise that there are other worthwhile goals in learning English than entering university (for example, it is useful in their career, for travel) and their (instrumental) motivation is revived.

Sawaki's (1997) study of 57 English major university students inquires after learners' language orientations, strength of motivation and their relationships with other variables of interest, using a 39-item self-report questionnaire developed from a descriptive survey conducted beforehand. (Sawaki made a descriptive pre-survey for motivation because traditional notions of motivation, coming from 2LL, are not appropriate for the EFL situation in Japan.) Her conclusions agree with Berwick & Ross' earlier study in suggesting the prominence of instrumental reasons in the EFL context.

An even more recent study by Yashima (2000), concerning the orientation and motivation of 389 Japanese university students majoring in informatics, agrees with Berwick & Ross and Sawaki in emphasising the importance of instrumental orientation, and also indicates the significance of culturally and interactionally driven orientations. Yashima suggests that qualitative analyses using interviews, in addition to the quantitative research she conducted, are required in order to gain a further understanding of students' motivation.

3.4 Summary

The affective variables of attitude and motivation are expected to be greatly determinative of success in learning a foreign language.

The most important attitude is usually considered to be that of the learner towards the TL society, though there are many other relevant attitudes (those, for example, of the learner, the learners peers, teachers, and parents). The relevance of some of these, and much of the extant research regarding them, is limited in the Japanese context, which is FLL rather than 2LL (most people have no direct contact with the TL society).

Given the important role of attitudes in FLL, it is important in this time of policy-change and educational reform to determine learners' attitudes towards English-speaking society. However, attitudes can be difficult to determine, as (especially in Japan) the perceived attitudes of the group can have a stronger influence on behaviour than the actual attitudes of the individual; also, with little extant research in the field, Japanese attitudes to English learning are something of an unknown.

Similar comments apply to the motivation of Japanese EFL learners, though recent pluralistic treatments of motivation appear able to accommodate even extreme FLL situations like that found in Japan. However, research on Japanese university

students' motivation for English learning canvassed above reached different conclusions, variously identifying 'instrumental motivation' and 'integrative motivation' as students' main motivation. This shows that there is still considerable room for future research.

The broad theoretical frameworks (for attitude, motivation, and also anxiety and learning strategy) which have been discussed in the present chapter will be drawn on in order to assist in the design of the prototype questionnaire and to guide the analysis of results.

Chapter 4: Research

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapters described the past and present situations of English-language education in Japan, and presented some problems emerging from that milieu. This chapter will present the questions to be investigated, and an overview of the research method to be used in that investigation.

4.2 Research Question; ten subsidiary questions

The overall question addressed in this research is:

> **What are first-year university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English?**

This overall question is split into ten individually more manageable questions as follows:

A: Before University

1) What was the nature of students experience with learning English before university?
2) What expectations do students have for university English as they enter university?
3) What relation is there between the answers to Q1 and Q2? (What relation is there between students' prior experience and their expectations for university English?)
4) What are students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they enter university?
5) What relation is there between the answers to Q1 and Q2 on the one hand, and Q4 on the other hand? (What relation is there between students' prior experience and their expectations for university English on one hand, and their attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they enter university on the other hand?)

B: At University

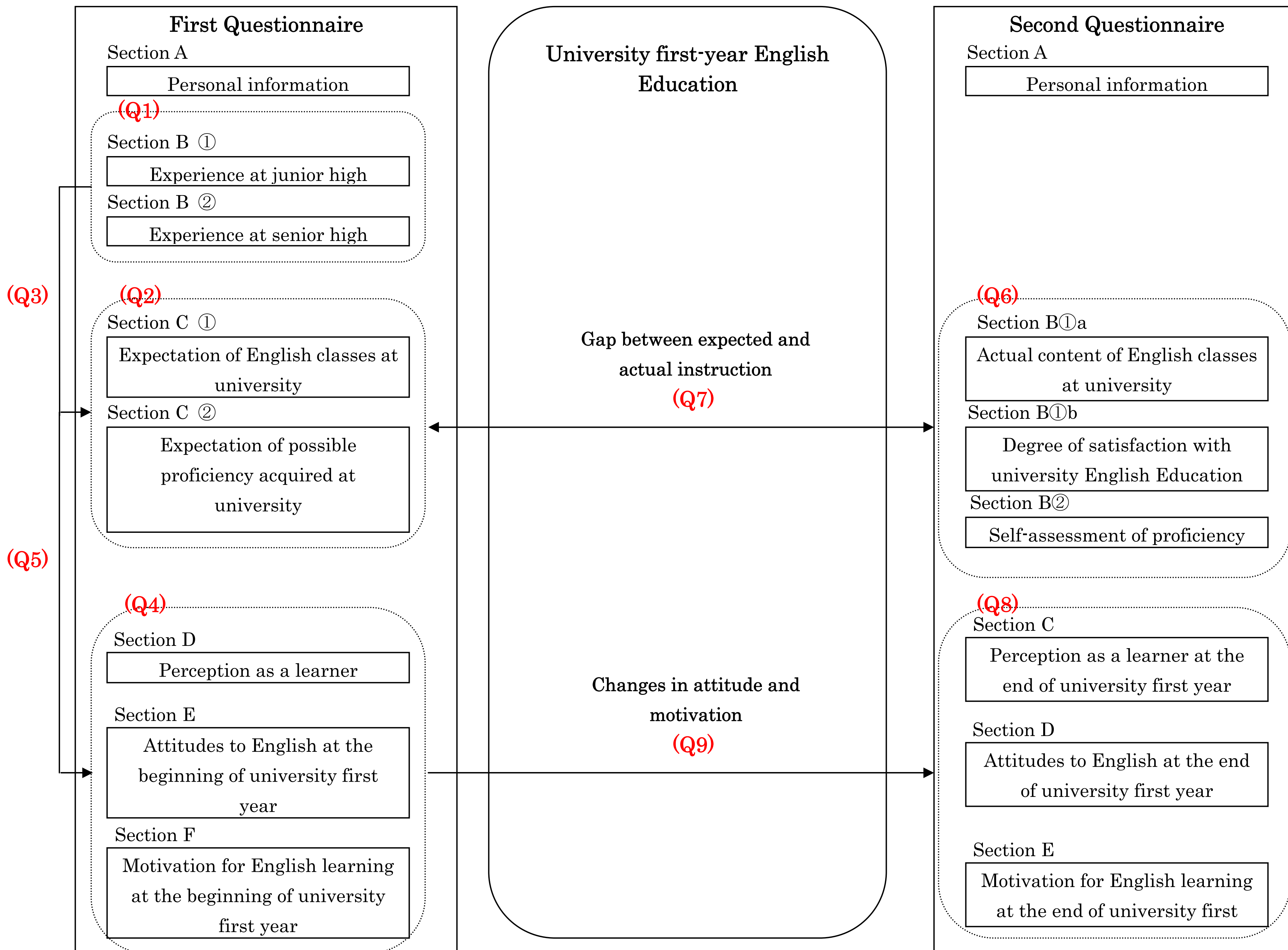
6) What is the nature of students' experience with learning English at university?
7) How does students' experience with learning English at university (Q6) compare or contrast with their expectations (Q2)?
8) What are students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they finish their first year at university?

C: Changes during the first year of university

9) Are there any changes in students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English, between their entering university (Q4) and finishing their first year at university (Q8)?
10) If there are changes (Q9), what possible explanations underlie them?

Answering these ten subsidiary questions require the adoption of an *ex post facto* perspective. This 'from what is done afterwards' research starts with the observation of dependent variables (here, attitude and motivation) after the independent variables have already occurred (see for example the discussion in Cohen & Manion, 1994). This approach is particularly suitable in social and educational contexts, involving the 'researcher … examining retrospectively the effects of a naturally occurring event on a subsequent outcome with a view to establishing a causal link between them' (Cohen & Manion, 1994: 147).

The shape of the *ex post facto* research is illustrated in figure 4: research schedule (page 95), and figure 3: interrelation of research questions (following page). Figure 3 shows a map of the process of analysis of the first and second questionnaires, by displaying the relations between them and the corresponding subsidiary research questions (shown in red as Q1, Q2 …).


First Questionnaire
Section A
Personal information
(Q1)
Section B ①
Experience at junior high
Section B ②
Experience at senior high
(Q3)
(Q2)
Section C ①
Expectation of English classes at university
Section C ②
Expectation of possible proficiency acquired at university
(Q5)
(Q4)
Section D
Perception as a learner
Section E
Attitudes to English at the beginning of university first year
Section F
Motivation for English learning at the beginning of university first year
University first-year English Education
Gap between expected and actual instruction
(Q7)
Changes in attitude and motivation
(Q9)
Second Questionnaire
Section A
Personal information
(Q6)
Section B①a
Actual content of English classes at university
Section B①b
Degree of satisfaction with university English Education
Section B②
Self-assessment of proficiency
(Q8)
Section C
Perception as a learner at the end of university first year
Section D
Attitudes to English at the end of university first year
Section E
Motivation for English learning at the end of university first

4.21 Restriction of Research in the Japanese context

There are several considerations which need to be kept in mind when such research is actually conducted in the Japanese context.

Firstly, research directed at teachers or students at real educational sites is a comparatively unusual activity in Japan, compared with Western countries. This is because, as mentioned before, in the Japanese hierarchical society almost every policy has been formulated entirely or largely in a top-down manner. The role of the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture as a policy maker is crucial, since Japanese public schools and universities are not based on a self-supporting accounting system like that in the U.K., but rely heavily on the government budget. Private schools and universities are less dependent, but most of them follow government policy in order to obtain as much government subsidy as possible. Research into real-life classroom problems has not been encouraged in this atmosphere, even though such research is urgently needed to inform appropriate policy decisions. Even now, hardly any research is conducted on-site in educational settings.

Secondly, the non-expression of opinions is a characteristic fostered by the long history of a homogeneous society in Japan. Nakane (1978), for example, argues that there is a traditional Japanese attitude whereby even slight difference among individuals is not tolerated, leading to social sanctions against individuals who behave differently from the rest of society (1978: 106). She describes Japanese society as *Tate Shakai* (*Vertical Society*), where all societal relations are vertical, though latent and never overt in daily life (1978: 115). Her remarks suggest that Japan is a tightly woven society, where collectivity often takes priority over individuality. As Araki concludes (1973: 95), the Japanese always act in conformity not with their self-determination, but heteronomously or in accordance with external laws. In a similar vein, Marlow notes that 'Westerners trying to do business here complain that it's impossible to get decisions

made. The Japanese negotiate for months without saying yes or no ... Decisions emerge out of group inertia. Japan manages to be both rigidly hierarchical and enigmatically lateral' (Sunday Times Magazine, 9 Sept 2001: 61). These social structures have produced *tatemae* and *honne*, and people almost always express only *tatemae.* This makes it difficult to find out people's true feelings by conducting research.

Thirdly, under these social circumstances, it is almost impossible to ask other lecturers to distribute the questionnaires to their students, because in *Tate Shakai* lecturers feel bound to discuss the request with the person above them; and then that person will feel likewise bound, and so on, in an endless discussion progressing slowly up the hierarchy. Other lecturers are quite sensitive and nervous regarding this kind of activity, so unfortunately the samples are restricted to students who are students of the researcher at the time of the present research. While this places a limitation on how general the conclusions of this research can be taken to be, there are no obvious reasons to believe the three universities surveyed to be unrepresentative, and the results obtained here should be considered a solid base for further broader research.

4.3 Research Method

Data collection methods must of course be appropriate to the subject and aim of the research. McDonough & McDonough (1997: 95) give the following list (in no particular order) of methods typically used for research into English language teaching:

- Questionnaires
- Interviews
- Observation (direct and recorded)
- Field notes, diaries, documents
- Experiments
- Think-aloud
- Numerical analysis

Which method and associated techniques should be chosen 'will depend on many factors, often of a very practical nature' (McDonough & McDonough, 1997: 95).

There are also broader differences in possible research methods to consider.

4.31 Quantitative vs. Qualitative

The supposed binary distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is the most well known distinction in research methodology.

Quantitative research is 'obtrusive and controlled, objective, generalisable, outcome oriented, and assumes the existence of "facts" which are somehow external to and independent of the observer or researcher' (Nunan, 1997: 3). It 'employs categories, viewpoints and models as precisely defined by the researcher in advance as possible, and numerical or directly quantifiable data are collected to determine the relationship between these categories, to test the research hypotheses and to enhance the aggregation of knowledge' (Dörnyei, 2001: 192).

In qualitative research, on the other hand, 'all knowledge is relative, and there is a subjective element to all knowledge and research, and holistic, ungeneralisable studies are justifiable' (Nunan, 1997: 3). It 'focuses on the participants' rather than the researcher's interpretations and priorities, without setting out to test preconceived hypotheses; this means that analytic categories tend to be defined during, rather than prior to, the process of the research' (Dörnyei, 2001: 193).

There are ample arguments that this binary distinction is too simplistic and that quantitative and qualitative research in fact cannot be so crisply distinguished. However, and without wishing to be drawn too far into the debate, it is apparent that the different approaches to research methodology described above represent substantially different possible approaches – though these may be better characterized as the extremes of a continuum than a mutually exclusive and exhaustive distinction. In this case, it is possible that the best methodology be found not at either extreme but in a compromise of these complementary ideals.

In the case of motivation research for foreign language studies, the approach has traditionally been quantitative; for example, collecting data by means of questionnaires

employing rating scales like the Likert scale. However, education research has recently moved increasingly towards adopting qualitative techniques, in part because of problems isolating appropriate variables, whether of the dependent, independent, or intervening variety. Motivation research likewise concerns multiple variables, many of which cannot be described or predicted ahead of time, often with a complex interrelationship – motivations and attitudes are complex multifaceted aspects of individuals rooted in conscious and unconscious beliefs and emotions. It therefore seems that motivation research for foreign languages should follow in adopting more qualitative methods – qualitative research can be expected to provide a wealth of data and knowledge which quantitative research cannot provide.

However, as noted above, adopting more qualitative methods does not imply discarding quantitative methods, for the ideals of each approach may complement those of the other. We may, for example, embark on a qualitative subjective study which focuses primarily on the participants' interpretations, but with a view to developing analytic categories generalisable to other relevantly similar situations and models independent of the researcher. Indeed, as Dörnyei states, the 'combination of qualitative and quantitative methods might be particularly fruitful direction for future motivation research' (Dörnyei, 2001: 194).

4.32 Positivist vs. Interpretivist

There is a similar opposition, likewise relevant to research methodology, which is often discussed in terms of the attitude of the researcher: as positivist, or interpretivist.

Positivists hold that social phenomena are to be explained by way of scientific description. They view the material world as the only reality, and the scientific method as the (only) objective, value-free way to gain knowledge about this reality.

> First, the methodological procedures of natural science may be directly applied to the social sciences. Positivism here implies a particular stance concerning the social scientist as an observer of social reality. Second, the end-product of

> investigations by social scientists can be formulated in terms parallel to those of natural science. This means that analyses must be expressed in "law" or "law-like" generalizations of the same kind that have been established in relation to natural phenomena. Positivism here involves a definitive view of social scientists as analysts or interpreters of their subject matter. Positivism may be characterized by its claim that science provides us with the clearest possible idea of knowledge. (Cohen & Manion, 1994: 12)

That is, the positivist 'researcher is essentially attempting to replicate the conditions of natural science by controlling variables' (Crow, 2000: 75). Such an attitude fits well with the methodology of using questionnaires which adopt a rating system, or allow answers limited to a certain specified scale (such as the Likert scale) – researchers can control variables by posing pre-designed questions and statements, and obtain research results in the form of numerical data apt for statistical and scientific analysis.

Interpretivists, on the other hand, hold that 'truth' in the positivist sense is a chimera, and that 'objective' observation is impossible – that observation must involve interpretation, and this is dependent on the perspective adopted by the observer. Each individual perceives, understands, experiences, and makes meaning of reality in different ways. While some interpretivists take this attitude to its philosophical extreme, it also finds expression in much milder forms, such as a research methodology which is sensitive to the researcher as interpreting individual and aims to understand the subjective world of human experience:

> The aim of attending carefully to the details, complexity, and situated meanings of everyday life world can be achieved through variety of methods. Although we may feel professionally compelled to use a special language for these procedures (e.g., participant observation, informant interviewing, archival research), at best, all interpretive inquiries watch, listen, ask, record, and examine. How those activities might best be defined and employed depends on the inquirer's purpose for doing the inquiry (Schwandt, 1998: 222).

Presented as a challenge to positivism, the interpretivist seeks to understand the universe as a living organism rather than a mechanism; questions the idea of objective truth; and acknowledges the human capacity for subjectivity. Interpretivists criticise even physical scientists on these grounds, but their criticisms strike home particularly

in the social sciences, where the objects of study are influenced by so many factors, and are incapable of being isolated and controlled in experimental laboratory settings. As mentioned in section 4.31 above, human behaviour in general (and attitudes and motivation in particular) are prime examples of such complex, elusive objects of study. The interpretivist is thus led to reject the positivist view that 'human behaviour is governed by general laws and characterized by underlying regularities. Moreover, this leads to a concept that the social world can only be understood from the standpoint of the individuals who are part of the ongoing action being investigated' (Cohen & Manion, 1994: 26).

Dörnyei offers a list of methods for qualitative or interpretive research in second or foreign language studies: 1) *observations* recorded in field notes, journal and diary entries, 2) *interviews* recorded on audio or video cassette, and 3) *authentic documents of communicative behaviour* (e.g. recorded speech samples, written texts) (2001: 193).

The decision of which methods to use should be made after a careful consideration of which methods will bring the most useful data to the questions posed in the research – this hinges critically on the issue of which methods are realistically feasible in the research context.

4.33 Subjectivity and Reflexivity

The issues of subjectivity and reflexivity in research are interwoven with the issues discussed above, and the important role they have in research (and therefore research methodology) has been more fully recognised in recent years.

Social scientists often claim that subjectivity is unavoidably a feature of research, but that many researchers are unconscious of their subjectivity. If it is an unavoidable feature, it is of course important for researchers to be aware of the subjectivity throughout the research – as Peshkin comments, 'researchers should be meaningfully attentive to their own subjectivity' (1988: 17). Peshkin (1988) expresses his positive

attitude towards this subjectivity as follows:

> I decided that subjectivity can be seen as virtuous, for it is the basis of researchers' making a distinctive contribution, one that results from the unique configuration of their personal qualities joined to the data they have collected. (Peshkin, 1988: 18)

Allan (1995) describes the recent acknowledgement of subjectivity in research as follows:

> Subjectivity is now an accepted (and welcomed) part of qualitative research and instead of pursuing the heuristic of quasi-objectivity, the attention of most researchers has turned to finding effective ways of managing their inevitable subjectivity (1995: 67).

Where this management is successful, the implication is that researchers will thereby be able to collect more meaningful data.

Reflexivity has likewise recently come to attention, particularly amongst researchers in the social sciences, as something which proper awareness and management of can help make research more worthwhile. Reflexivity involves the self and reflection – perhaps of the self and others in a kind of metaphorical mirror. Research which is reflexive in a negative sense offers results which purport to offer 'truth' while merely indicating the preconceptions, interests and limits of the researcher. However, research by an appropriately reflexive researcher explicitly presents the preconceptions, interests and limits of the researcher, thus giving (as much as is possible) the power of interpretation to the readers. Essentially, then, reflexivity in research involves an understanding of bias and subjectivity.

McDonough & McDonough refer to reflexivity as 'the view of the mutual interdependence between social settings and the accounts given of them, where everyone involved is a part of the construction' (1997: 115).

Schon argues in his book *Reflective Practitioner* (1983) that it is important to deal with the unique and the particular by an explicit reflection-in-action, not by a professional's tacit knowing-in-action which in reality cannot deal with the unique and the particular – commenting that 'when someone reflects-in-action, he becomes a

researcher in the practice context' (1983: 68). There is a close similarity between the reflective practitioner (reflecting-in-action and therefore becoming a researcher in the practice context, to become a better practitioner) and the reflexive researcher (reflecting on their own bias and subjectivity to become a better researcher).

Marcus names subjectivity as one of the basic elements of reflexivity, stating 'the baseline form of reflexivity is associated with the self-critique and personal quest, playing on the subjective, the experiential, and the idea of empathy' (1998: 395).

There is no doubt that reflexivity is closely related to subjectivity. However, this does not imply that objectivity and reflexivity are mutually exclusive – most latter-day positivists would presumably allow that appropriate reflexive awareness can help objectivity. Marcus (1998), discussing Bourdieu's view that objectivity and reflexivity are compatible, that the process of producing an objective form of reflexivity never involving a romantic subjective fantasy, suggests that:

> The objective, critical treatment of the contexts that produce objectifying modes of thought (reason) is indeed a valuable form of reflexivity with many possibilities regarding how to expand/reconstruct the ethnographic research projects. (Marcus, 1998: 398)

Ultimately, subjectivity and reflexivity are clearly tightly interwoven into both positivist and interpretivist approaches. This suggests that in order to obtain meaningful research results, one approach is not sufficient. Researchers should take multifaceted approaches.

In the present research, the researcher has several selves, including researcher, teacher, a senior Japanese in a different generation to the respondents, and a Japanese with a relatively Western view. All respondents are students of the researcher, and all research (two questionnaires and interviews) is conducted in the presence of the researcher. As McDonough & McDonough mention, 'teacher researchers are strongly aware of the reflexive relationship between the roles of teacher and researcher' (1997:

70). Being particularly deeply involved in the context, it is crucial to remain aware of and manage subjectivity, 'not to conquer it, in order to produce a sanitized version of the research process, but to remain sensitive to how the different selves interact with the process of data gathering' (Allan, 1995: 66).

4.34 Research methods for the present research

In view of the research question (see section 4.2), and after due consideration of the various research methods available (see section 4.3) and of the Japanese context itself as a theatre for research (see section 4.21), questionnaire and interview have been chosen as the most appropriate research methods. The predominant methodological attitude of questionnaire and interview are positivist and interpretivist respectively.

The primary purpose, to identify Japanese university first-year students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English, requires the investigation of a relatively large number of students' perceptions of English. For this purpose, the questionnaire is the most appropriate method – primarily for logistical reasons, due to the large number of students, but also because using a questionnaire allows shy students largely unused to voicing their own opinions to respond without embarrassment and in anonymity. Since attitude and motivation change over time, and the research is explicitly concerned to capture the difference between expectation and experience for the first year of university (see section 4.2, Q7), and any changes to attitude and motivation during that year (Q9), a cross-sectional survey is insufficient. Two questionnaires, one in April at the beginning of the first term, and the other in February at the end of the first academic year, will be given to the same students. These two questionnaires will be the main tool in providing an answer to the research questions.

In addition, between the two questionnaires, two types of interviews (group and individual) will be conducted to explore more deeply some of the issues raised in the answers to the first questionnaire and to discuss any changes in motivation or attitude.

The advantage of using two methods is that 'interviews can provide depth of explanation within a particular context, while questionnaires paint a broad though possibly superficial picture' (Drever, 1995: 8).

The reason for having two types of interview, one with a group and the other with an individual, is related to the distinctively Japanese *tatemae* and *honne* (discussed briefly in section 1.41). We might expect some difference between the two interviews: of *tatemae* or official comment made in a group, versus *honne* or true individual opinion.

4.4 Research schedule

The first questionnaire was conducted in April 2002 during the first English class of the university year at three different universities.

The first group interview, with a group of ten students (five male and five female, selected randomly from the university which offered the biggest sample), was held at the end of June 2002, four months after the first questionnaire.

The two students, one male and one female, who were quietest during the group interview were interviewed individually in October 2002.

The second group interview, with the same group of ten students as the first group interview, was held in December 2002.

Finally, the second questionnaire, with the same group of students as responded to the first questionnaire, was conducted in the last class of the first year, in February 2003.

The figure on the following page shows how these various questionnaires and interviews are related to each other and contribute to the overall result.

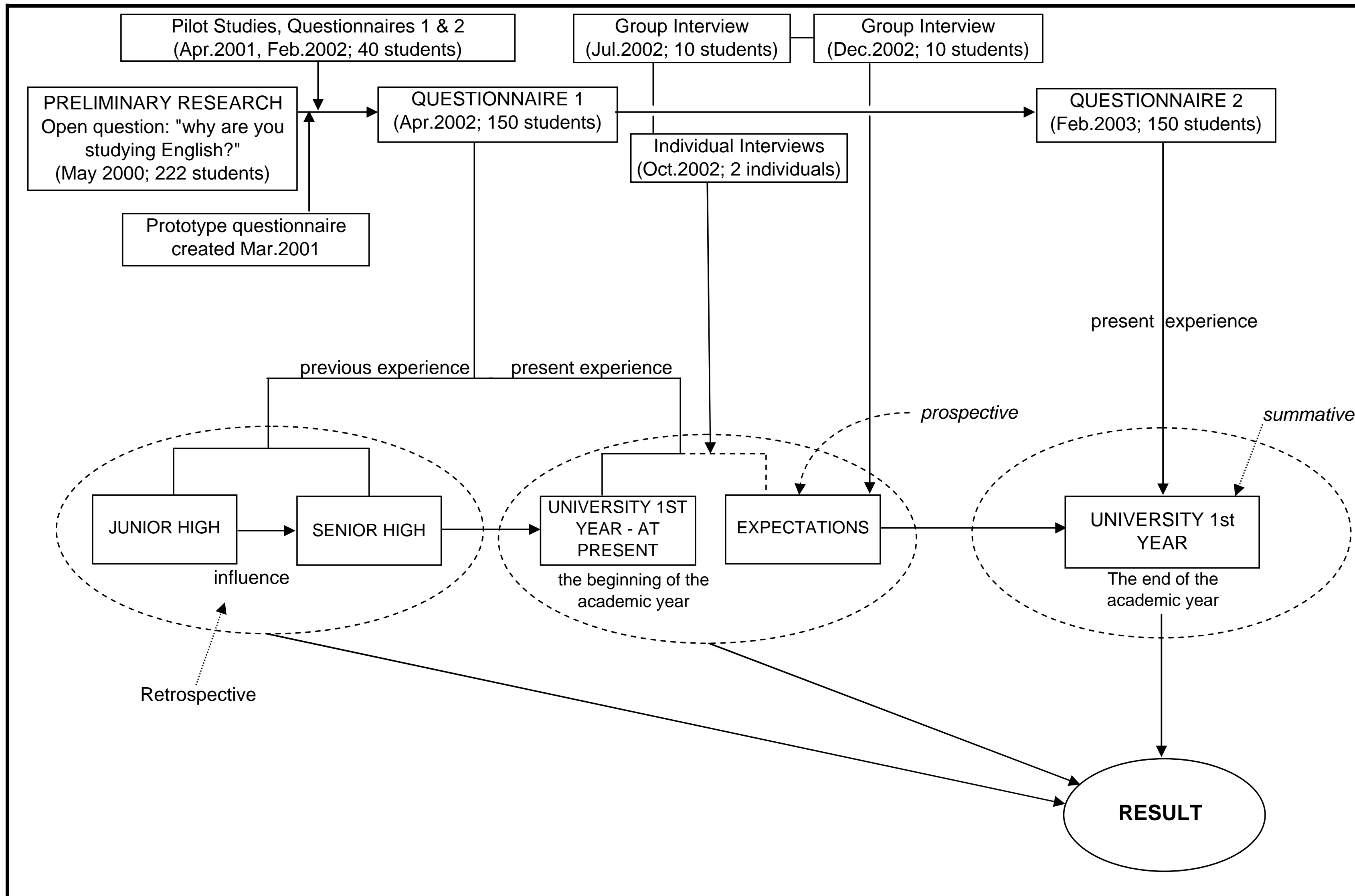


Figure 4: research schedule

4.5 First Questionnaire

The first questionnaire is intended to determine students' opinions regarding their experiences in English-language education (at school and otherwise), their expectations for university English classes, and their attitudes to and motivation for English learning as they start university – these to be later contrasted (through the second questionnaire) with actual experiences at, and attitudes and motivation subsequent to, university. To these ends, the questionnaire is designed to cover a wide range.

4.51 Preliminary study for questionnaire

An exploratory study was carried out before constructing the questionnaire proper, asking students to indicate all of their reasons for studying English. As Ely suggests, 'such a survey, it was felt, would make it possible to discover types of motivation other than those derived from an *a priori* theoretical framework' (1986: 28). Results were collated to indicate motivational clusters specific to Japanese students, to expand and localise, correct and complement those derived from the prior theoretical framework. Factoring in these clusters when formulating the questionnaire helps keep the questionnaire maximally relevant to Japanese students.

The sample for the preliminary study, made in 2000, was of 222 first year university students from three Tokyo universities, referred to here as Universities A, B, and D. Universities A and B were used in the actual research, while University C substituted for University D in the main study (2001 – 2002). The 222 preliminary study students consisted of 42 students (34 male, 8 female) from University A, 135 students (66 male, 69 female) from University B, and 45 students (41 male, 4 female) from University D.

Students were asked to write as many reasons as they could think of in reply to the question 'why are you studying English?' Answers (translated and sometimes

paraphrased) are summarized below in order of frequency:

Table 6: results, preliminary study on motivations for studying English

1) In order to communicate with foreign people. (number of responses: 49)
2) Because it is a compulsory subject. (43)
3) Because it is an international language. (39)
4) In order to get a better job later on. (27)
5) In order to work in a foreign country. (26)
6) a: Because I vaguely think it will be useful in the future. (21)
   b: Because it is essential for global business today. (21)
7) a: I have been forced to do so from the start, but never thought of why. (16)
   b: In order to gain credit. (16)
8) a: In order to know different cultures and lives. (13)
   b: Because speaking English is cool. (13)
9) In order to broaden my horizons. (11)
10) In order to enjoy movies and TV without Japanese subtitles. (10)
11) a: In order to use a computer; especially for information through the Internet. (9)
    b: Because I want to make friends all over the world. (9)
12) a: In order to appreciate Western music more. (7)
    b: Because I want to live in a foreign country. (7)
    c: Because learning English is important for my personal development, just like learning other subjects. (7)
13) Because English is essential in the new 21st century. (6)
14) Because I want to study abroad. (5)
15) a: In order to express my opinion (in a foreign country) (4)
    b: In order to become a member of the international world. (4)
    c: For the 'high' that I experience while speaking English. (4)
16) a: Because English has invaded Japan and the Japanese media and become important in Japanese daily life. (3)
    b: In order to read books and references in English. (3)
    c: In order to increase self-reliance. (3)
17) a: Because opportunities to go abroad are increasing, I want to be ready for that. (2)
    b: In order to get a high score in TOEFL and TOEIC. (2)
    c: In order to make foreign people understand Japan more. (2)
    d: Because I wish to have an international marriage. (2)
    e: Because my father advised me to study English for the future. (2)
    f: Because my sister/ brother is studying abroad now. (2)
18) a: In order to write essays/dissertations in English. (1)
    b: Because I have many foreign friends. (1)
    c: In order to cooperate with foreign people for international affairs. (1)
    d: Because learning English gives me insight into my own language. (1)
    e: Because knowing different cultures through English eventually helps me to establish my identity. (1)
    f: Because I admire the U.S. (1)
    g: Because I have foreign relatives. (1)

The preliminary study results hold few surprises – students want to communicate with foreign people whether overseas or in Japan, for work or cultural reasons. While some

students think English is cool, or enjoy speaking it, relatively high numbers of students gave no reasons at all (returned blank paper, or admitted to having never thought of their motivations) or admitted they studying English only because it was compulsory, or to gain credit. Though many of these reasons are discussed by empirical research conducted in countries other than Japan, some are related to the specifically Japanese context, and link back to earlier discussions (for example, unmotivated student responses: 2, 7a, 7b; recent internationalization and English-language media presence in Japan: 3, 6b, 10, 11, 12a, 13, 15b, 16a, 16b, 17a.; insular country: 8a, 17c).

These results in particular are useful as reference in the construction of the questionnaire.

4.52 Sample for the main research

The actual research sample is of 150 first-year students. The 150 students consisted of 81 students (62 male, 19 female) from University A, 39 students (33 male, 6 female) from University B, and 30 students (all female) from University C, a women's college.

Recalling the strict hierarchy of universities described in section 1.31, it is worthwhile to briefly describe these three universities. All three have in common their long history (established in around 1900) and location (Tokyo).

University A (c.52,000 students) is one of the highest in the hierarchical rank, with high achieving students coming from all over Japan. Further, the sample was drawn from the political science department, the most difficult department to enter in the university.

University B (c.20,000 students) is located roughly in the middle of the hierarchical rank, and concentrates on subjects related to agriculture. The sample was drawn from the Faculty of International Agriculture and Food Studies.

Universities A and B are both co-educational, though the majority of students are male.

University C (c.8,000 students) is also located roughly in the middle of the hierarchical rank, and was founded as a rare educational institute for girls (the daughters of aristocrats), to later become a university. The sample was drawn from the liberal art department.

All students in the sample are, for reasons outlined in section 4.21, students of the researcher. None of them is majoring in English language or English literature, but like almost all first-year university students, they take English classes as a compulsory subject, using textbooks selected without reference to their major. A further result of this restriction of the sample is that the sample size is not large – though 'surprisingly, there are no firm rules about sample size' (Munn & Drever, 1990: 14).

All research methods have some comparative weakness or other. However, the deleterious effects of the weakness of the chosen research methods may be minimized where the researcher is alert to the advantages and disadvantages of the method, and always keeps the aim of the data collection in mind. In the present research, the sample size is not large and the questionnaire will be delivered in class in the presence of the researcher. We may first note the advantages of the present research:

1) High return rate: as the questionnaire is administered and collected by the researcher on site, a 100% return rate is virtually assured. This contrasts favourably with questionnaires delivered by mail, as is often necessary with a large sample, which can have a problem with non-response.

2) Presence of researcher: students can ask questions if they have any problems in responding to the questionnaire. This again contrasts favourably with questionnaires distributed to many remote respondents.

3) Relevance of questions: because of the small sample, and the comparatively wide preliminary study, the questions cover only issues relevant to the respondents, who can therefore be expected to give more careful, meaningful answers.

On the other hand, there are some disadvantages:

1) Presence of the teacher: especially where the researcher is the teacher of the respondents, the presence of the researcher might represent some pressure or stress. However, this effect was minimized by keeping the returned questionnaires anonymous. Further, students were clearly told before receiving

the questionnaire that this has nothing with their academic results.

2) Small sample size: the reliability and strength of results drawn from small samples can be low. But as Drever points out, '…with small numbers …you would not rely on statistics to strengthen your conclusions, perhaps using some interviews to check your interpretation of your data' (1993: 14). The interviews held between the first and second questionnaires will in this way serve to strengthen the results.

4.53 Question and response type

Most of the questionnaire answers are given as a Likert scale, where respondents are asked to rate a series of statements by having them mark numbered categories (Likert, 1932). The remaining questions (in Part A) concern gender, age, and experience of staying in foreign countries (included as possible correlates of students' expectation, motivation, and attitudes), and require either written responses or the marking of un-scaled responses.

In the present questionnaire, students are presented with 93 statements and asked to rate (in accordance with five point Likert scales) their varying degrees of:

- Agreement: strongly agree - 5, agree - 4, neutral - 3, disagree - 2, strongly disagree - 1
- Frequency: very often - 5, often - 4, sometimes - 3, seldom - 2, never - 1
- Experience and expectation: very much - 5, much - 4, some - 3, not much - 2, little or none - 1

A five-point Likert scale, rather than a three or seven-point scale, is the most appropriate since a three-point scale cannot convey enough information, while a seven-point scale is too time-consuming. Particularly as students complete the questionnaire in the classroom in front of the teacher-researcher, they are very serious in choosing their answer for each question, and if presented with a seven-point scale, struggle to seriously and meaningfully distinguish between such finely separated answers.

More generally, a five-point Likert scale is used here because it builds in 'a degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response, whilst still generating numbers' (Cohen,

Manion & Morrison, 2000: 253) apt for statistical analysis. On the other hand, the main disadvantage is that the 'mid point is difficult to interpret (no opinion because the question is not relevant or because the respondent is not interested?)' (McDonough & McDonough, 1997: 176).

4.54 Question wording

A questionnaire in this way highly structured and closed (where 'the range of possible responses in determined by the researcher' – Nunan, 1997: 143) requires particularly careful design and attention to the wording of the questions. Munn & Drever (1990) suggest that, when drafting questions, a researcher should keep in mind that the questionnaire must be: attractive to look at, brief, easy to understand, and reasonably quick to complete (1993: 19). It is for example important to avoid ambiguity, imprecision and assumption (Bell, 1993: 77). As Burton comments, '[k]eeping it simple is the key' (2000: 337) – the language must be familiar to all respondents, avoiding academic terminology or jargon. McDonough & McDonough (1997: 177) cover these issues with a list of points to avoid:

- *leading* questions which suggest there is one desirable or desired answer
- *highbrow* questions, using portentous long words which are liable to be misunderstood
- *complex* questions with many subparts
- *irritating* questions or instructions, asking for example for responses in several category boxes at once.
- *negative* questions, especially double negative

In the case of research concerning English (and written up in English) but carried out in Japan, there is the further issue of *which* language to use in phrasing questions. Clearly, however, as the Japanese respondents are generally not capable of reading and understand questions written in English, as a special case of the need to keep language familiar to all respondents, the questions must be in Japanese.

There is also the further issue of whether the questionnaire should be first written in English, or first written in Japanese. It is in practice sometimes impossible to translate one language into the other perfectly – Japanese characteristically contains certain types of indirect expressions, including frequent use of double negative, and it can be difficult to produce an appropriately natural and clear text from an English original. These factors suggest that the questionnaire should be written first in Japanese for the convenience of the respondents.

However, there is a way of making sure that the English and Japanese versions of the questionnaire convey almost the same meaning. As McDonough & McDonough (1997) comment in the course of a discussion of translating an original questionnaire into the respondents' mother tongue(s), 'it is useful to have an independent person translate back into the original language as a check on the comparability of the translated version' (1997: 178). To this end, the questionnaires were written in Japanese with reference to the Japanese answers to the preliminary study, and then translated into English independently by two translators, one a native speaker of English and one a native speaker of Japanese. Since the translated (English) version of the questionnaire was never presented to students, the situation being opposite to that concerning McDonough & McDonough above, translators were told to sacrifice style or naturalness of expression for faithfulness to the original. These English translations were again translated back into Japanese by two independent translators.

The versions translated back into Japanese from the English translation agreed very closely in meaning with the Japanese original, with only minor differences in style or clarity, suggesting that the English translation was satisfactory. This is testament also to the clarity and simplicity of the Japanese original.

4.55 Questionnaire: structure and variables

Variables of motivation in language-learning research are categorized into *dependent*

variables and *independent variables*. Nunan explains that 'the variable that the experimenter expects to influence the other is called the independent variable …The variable upon which the independent variable is acting is called the dependent variable' (1997: 25). Seliger & Shohamy (1989) describe the difference thus:

> The predictor variable is called the *independent variable*, while the variable about which predictions are made is called *the dependent variable. In other words,* variations in the independent variable predict corresponding changes in the dependent variables (the predicted). Another way to describe the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable is to state that the independent variable is that factor or phenomenon which the investigator manipulates in order to see what effect any changes will have. The dependent variable is the means by which any changes are measured (1989: 89).

The first questionnaire consists of 98 questions in six sections (Section A to Section F) in order to accomplish five purposes:

- Purpose 1: To gauge students' background of personal factors (Section A), and experience at junior high school and senior high school (Section B).
- Purpose 2: To gauge students' expectations for English classes at university (Section C).
- Purpose 3: To gauge students' perception of themselves as language learners (Section D).
- Purpose 4: To gauge students' current attitudes to English (Section E).
- Purpose 5: To gauge students' current motivation for learning and using English (Section F).

The independent variables in the first questionnaire include:

1) Gender
2) Age
3) Students' experience of visiting English-speaking countries
4) Students' experiences of English prior to university, at junior high school
5) Students' experiences of English prior to university, at senior high school

And the dependent variables in the first questionnaire are:

1) Students' expectations for English lessons at university at the start of their university career
2) Students' perception of themselves as a language learner.
3) Students' attitudes to English at the start of their university career
4) Students' motivation for learning English at the start of their university career

The numbers of the questions, arranged in accordance with these purposes and variables, are as shown in the following tables:

4.55a Section A: Contextual factors, personal (Purpose 1)

Table 7: Questions designed to determine personal information

Variables of background of personal factors	Question Nos.	No.
1. Gender	1	1
2. Age	2	1
3. Prior visits to English-speaking countries	3, 4, 5	3
	Subtotal	5

These contextual factors (independent variables) are taken as possible correlates of students' attitudes, motivation, expectations, and perception of self as a learner. In looking for correlations, it is important to ask after any experience of leaving the unique, isolated, and culturally homogenous culture of Japan to visit a radically different English-speaking country.

4.55b Section B: Contextual factors, experience at high school (Purpose 1)

The intention of Section B is to probe students' prior experiences to build up a picture of the influences which have shaped their current attitudes and motivation. This section is subdivided into two parts; experiences at junior high school and at senior high school.

Table 8: Questions designed to determine experience at high school

Variables of experience at Junior High School: provision factors	Question Nos.	No.
1. Amount of grammar-teaching	6	1
2. Amount of listening to English	7	1
3. Amount of speaking in English	8	1
4. Amount of reading in English	9	1
5. Amount of writing in English	10	1
6. Amount of group work	11	1
7. Amount of rote learning	12	1
8. Amount of creative work	13	1
9. Amount of study of English-speaking countries' culture	14	1
10. Amount of contact with native-speakers of English	15	1
11. Amount of English learning in *Juku*	16	1
Variables of experience at junior high school: processes and outcomes		
12. Level of interest in English	17	1
13. Development of capacity to use English	18	1
14. Quality of instruction	19	1
15. Preparation for senior high school	20	1
Variables of experience at senior high school: provision factors		
16. Amount of grammar-teaching	21	1
17. Amount of listening to English	22	1
18. Amount of speaking in English	23	1
19. Amount of reading in English	24	1
20. Amount of writing in English	25	1
21. Amount of group work	26	1
22. Amount of role learning	27	1
23. Amount of creative work	28	1
24. Amount of study of English-speaking countries' culture	29	1
25. Amount of contact with native-speakers of English	30	1
26. Amount of English learning in *Juku*	31	1
Variables of Experience at senior high school: processes and outcomes		
27. Level of interest in English	32	1
28. Development of capacity to use English	33	1
29. Quality of instruction	34	1
30. Preparation for further study at university	35	1
Subtotal		**30**

In recent years there has been an intended switch of emphasis in junior high schools, as seen in the shifts in government policy outlined in section 2.71d. On paper, this shift is a move away from conventional teaching (focussed on rote learning, grammar, and vocabulary) and towards an approach which incorporates at least some features of communicative teaching (focusing more on listening and speaking), including the

provision of more native English-speaking teachers under the JET scheme (see section 2.72). The questions in the first half of Section B seek to check this on paper shift against the actual experience of students, and determine what they perceive to be happening in the classroom.

It is also important to determine the students experience in *juku* or cram school, which often represents a substantial part of school-age education. Students may attend two to four hours of classes, several nights a week after school – students heading home laden with textbooks and workbooks at around 10 p.m. are a common sight in Japan (Hendry, 1995: 103). *Juku* classes are focussed tightly on entrance examination requirements (to senior high school or university, depending on the age of the students) and include English, *Kokugo* (*national language*, i.e. Japanese), and mathematics.

The second part of Section B focuses on experiences of English-language education in senior high school. The questions exactly parallel those asked in the first part of Section B regarding junior high school.

Students generally spend three years at senior high school, from age 16-18. Curricula in senior high schools are much more autonomous than at junior high schools – since primary and junior high school are compulsory, there is more government involvement, including determining the number of classes and the choice of textbooks. Senior high school English classes focus on English for university entrance examinations.

4.55c Section C: Expectations for English classes at university (Purpose 2)

Table 9: Questions designed to determine expectations for English classes at university

Variables of expectations of English in first year of university at start of first year: Provision factors	Question Nos.	No.
1. Amount of grammar-teaching	36	1
2. Amount of listening to English	37	1
3. Amount of speaking in English	38	1
4. Amount of reading in English	39	1
5. Amount of writing in English	40	1
6. Amount of group work	41	1
7. Amount of rote learning	42	1
8. Amount of creative work	43	1
9. Amount of study of English-speaking countries' culture	44	1
10. Amount of contact with native-speakers of English	45	1
11. Amount of excitement from English lessons	46	1
Variables of expectations of English in first year of university at start of first year: Processes and outcomes		
12. Ability to read references	47	1
13. Ability to write essays	48	1
14. Ability to give presentations	49	1
15. Ability to study aboard	50	1
16. Ability to communicate fluently in English	51	1
17. A good knowledge of English grammar and structure	52	1
18. Capability of using English in a future job.	53	1
19. A good knowledge of English-speaking cultures and people	54	1
20. A low sense of self-efficacy	55	1
21. A lack of expectation	56	1
	Subtotal	21

Finding out to what extent their previous experiences at junior and senior high school affect students expectations (before these expectations are influenced by actual experience of university English), and to what extent their expectations are related to their motivation and attitudes as they finish the first year, will provide a whole map to understand first year university students' motivation and attitudes.

4.55d Section D: Self-perception as a learner (Purpose 4)

Table 10: Questions designed to determine students' perception of English learning

Variables of self-perception	Question Nos.	No.
[Cognitive strategies]		

1. Learning strategy for reading English	57	1
2. Learning strategy for writing English	58	1
3. Learning strategy for studying English	59, 60	2
4. Learning strategy for speaking English	61	1
[Affective variables]		
5. Self-efficacy	62	1
6. Persistence	63	1
7.Confidence on entering the English language classroom	64	1
8. Anxiety in using English	65	1
Subtotal		9

Questions (Q57-61) are posed to ask what strategy the students adopt as an individual learner out of the classroom. In Japan, where it is still possible to lead one's entire life without directly encountering a foreign language outside the classroom, the creation of opportunities for learning English by learners is very important (see section 3.34b).

Some of the questions in this section are based on Rubin's (1981) suggestions that learners create situations with native speakers, and spend time (for example) in the language lab or listening to TV. It will be interesting to ascertain to what extent the use of such strategies is related to attitudes and motivation.

A variety of affective variables which are thought to influence how well a learner will learn a second language are asked after – including self-efficacy, persistence and anxiety. Self-efficacy, which Dörnyei refers to as being akin to self-confidence and as always being task-specific, is a significant motivational subsystem. Some empirical research (Bandura, 1993: 118; Dörnyei, 1994: 280) has shown that self-efficacy has a clear relation with the motivation indices. It is worth examining how students rate their attainment of English proficiency in terms of the standards they set for themselves.

Questions 64 and 65 for anxiety are adopted from Gardner *et al.*'s Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB, in Gardner 1985), in which they offer the two general measures for language anxiety, 1) classroom anxiety, and 2) use anxiety. Gardner & MacIntyre (1993), discussing French anxiety rather than English anxiety, explain these two scales as follows:

> The former scale [French class anxiety] refers to anxiety aroused specifically in the language class, while the latter (French use anxiety) refers to feelings of anxiety that individuals experience in any context of anxiety where they are called upon to speak the target language (1993: 2).

4.55e Section E: Current attitudes to English (Purpose 1)

Table 11: Questions designed to determine current attitudes to English

Attitude variables	Question Nos.	No.
1. Attitudes to difficulties of English language	66	1
2. Attitudes to geographic distance from the TL society	67	1
3. Attitudes to cultural distance from the TL society	68	1
4. Attitudes to the status of English in Japanese context	69, 70, 71	3
5. Attitudes to English as a second language	72	1
6. Attitudes to foreign languages in Japan	73	1
7. Attitudes to parents in respect of English Education	74	1
Subtotal		9

Question 66, 67, and 68 are important because the (perceived) distance from the TL and culture is related to the attitude taken towards learning that TL (see section 3.24). This is particularly relevant in insular Japan, and especially today, as globalism and new communications technologies (see section 1.21) enable people to easily share information and glimpse aspects of each others culture.

Question 69, 70, and 71 concern attitudes to English in relation to Japanese culture and society. These issues are of obvious importance, given comments like:

> The inward nature of the Japanese, the periods of ethnocentricity, ultranationalism and xenophobia all augur against the teaching of English. It may very well be that the Japanese do not want to learn English or, for that matter, any foreign language, as the bilingual and those have spent any time abroad are 'deviant' in the Japanese eye, not to be entirely trusted … [they] may be 'contaminated' and no longer 'pure Japanese' (Hayes 1979: 372).

The phenomenon Hayes refers to here is very real, and there are indications that it is not purely historical; Hinenoya & Gatbonton, for example, in recent work discussing what happens to Japanese children returning to Japanese schools after a long stay overseas, note that 'many returnee children were encouraged by their teachers and peers to become Japanese and to speak English with a Japanese accent in choral recitation in class' (2000: 228).

Question 72 focuses on students' attitudes to the adoption of English as a second language, a controversial issue raised (see section 2.74). Question 73 focuses on students' attitudes to foreign languages other than English, especially the languages of neighbouring countries. Question 74 focuses on the parents' attitudes to their children learning English.

4.55f Section F: Motivation for learning and using English (Purpose 2)

The questions in this section are centred on motivating factors and motivations

1) raised in answer to the preliminary study (see section 4.51)
2) adopted from previous research, centrally Noels, Clément & Pelletier's (2000) *Language Learning Orientations Scale-Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation Subscales* (Q89, Q92, Q94, Q96, Q97) and Gardner's (1985) *Attitude/Motivation Test Battery* (Q75, Q76, Q77, Q78, Q82, Q85), which are internationally validated instruments for measuring motivational variables.

Adopting questions and themes from previous research is of course not simply a process of acceptance and blind repetition – as Burton (2000) notes:

> It is quite possible that you may not wish to design all your own questions but rather replicate some that were used in other research. This approach is fine but you should take a critical view towards using another researcher's questions rather than accepting that they provide good measures. If you intend to apply questions which have been used previously but in a different setting, they may prove not to be as productive as you first thought. It is always a good idea to include some questions of your own in any event (2000: 344).

With this in mind, some questions which proved productive in similar research are reproduced or adapted – while other questions are original and designed to more closely fit the Japanese context.

These questions are shown below grouped into the components of motivation discussed in Chapter 3 (see especially figure 2, page 67).

Table 12: Questions designed to determine motivation for learning and using English

Components of motivation	Question Nos.	No.
1. Integrative motivation	75, 76, 78, 85, 95	5
2. Instrumental motivation	77, 81, 82, 83, 90, 91, 98	7
3. Intrinsic motivation	79, 86, 87, 93, 94, 97,	6
4. Extrinsic motivation	80, 84, 88, 89	4
5. Amotivation	92, 96	2
	Subtotal	24

Table 13: Questions regarding motivation listed by the variable they concern.

Variables of motivation	Question No.
[Integrative motivation]	
1. For communication with varied people in the world	75
2. For better understanding of English-speaking countries	76
3. For assimilation into English-speaking societies	78
4. To enjoy foreign culture	85
5. To be a member of their own society	95
[Instrumental motivation]	
6. For the future job	77
7. To study abroad	81
8. To travel abroad	82
9. To gain a high score in a English proficiency test	83
10. For computer use	90
11. To work overseas	91
12. To express their own country more to the world	98
[Intrinsic motivation]	
13. To enhance own identity	79
14. To make it easier to learn other language	86
15. Admiration for fluent Japanese speaker of English	87
16. To understand their own language more	93
17. To experience a 'high' feeling in speaking English	94
18. For the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English	97
[Extrinsic motivation: integrated regulation towards personal values]	
19. For the convenience of daily life	80
20. To widen horizons	84
21. As an international language	88
22. For personal development	89
[Amotivation]	
23. No motivation to learn English	92, 96

As illustrated in Figure 2, some intrinsic motivation variables overlap integrative motivation variables, and so on for instrumental and extrinsic variables. Variables categorized as relevant to intrinsic motivation could often be also categorized as

relevant to integrative motivation, and even intrinsic and extrinsic motivation variables have a shared border (see Figure 2, 'motivational components and constructs', page 67). For example, Q90 'For computer use' (see number 10 in table 13 above) could be classified under extrinsic motivation or instrumental motivation. However, in the Japanese context, being classified into instrumental motivation is more appropriate, because for computer use English proficiency is necessary. A significant proportion of software and computer manuals in Japan are available in English only, and even where Japanese versions are available, much of the English is simply transliterated into Japanese script rather than translated (for example, 'menu' to *menyuu*, 'copy' to *kopii*). Also, as indicated before (see section 1.21), some 80% of information available through the internet is in English – and the two together play an important role in job hunting. Hence, 'for computer use' in the Japanese context is more appropriately categorized as an instance of instrumental motivation. In the same way, in this paper, each variable is classified according to its core concept for categorization.

The four items for extrinsic motivation are taken from internationally validated instruments for measuring this construct (Language Learning Orientations Scales-Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales, or LLOS-IEA, in Noels, et al. 2000), in order to see what happens in the case of the population of Japanese students. These items reflect some but not all of Ryan & Deci's (2000) dimension as set out below:

Figure 5: extrinsic motivation: a dimension based on self-determination theory

Amotivation	**Extrinsic motivation**				**Intrinsic motivation**
	External regulation	Introjected regulation	Identified regulation	Integrated regulation	

They do not reflect extrinsic motivation as 'external regulation'. Rather, they reflect the other end of the dimension, towards the 'integrated' end. 'External regulation' already

applies to these students in Japan, in that all of them are obliged to study English in their first year at university, so there is no obvious reason for seeking to establish whether or not extrinsic motivation in terms of external regulation is 'there', because it clearly is. Extrinsic motivation is however 'in the air' in Japanese culture, with the examination hell, the hierarchical society, and the culture of groupism. Therefore, in relation to extrinsic motivation, the main focus here is the extent to which students can 'handle' this extrinsic pressure such that it works for them – that is, the current research focuses on the 'identified regulation' and 'integrated regulation' parts of the extrinsic motivation dimension. In a sense, the four items in table 13 (page 111) for extrinsic motivation are intended to be a reflection of the extent to which students are able to 'integrate' their extrinsic motivation into a more personal set of values.

Explaining the differences between these types of extrinsic motivation, Ryan & Deci comment with regard to this 'integrated' end of the dimension that 'students can perform extrinsically motivated actions with an attitude of willingness that reflects an inner acceptance of the value or utility of a task'. Again, 'knowing how to promote more active and volitional (versus passive and controlling) forms of extrinsic motivation becomes an essential strategy for successful teaching' (Ryan & Deci 2000: 55).

The four items in table 13 represent expectations of external society: that one will 'get through one's daily life', that one will 'broaden one's horizons', that one will 'enter the international world' and that one will 'develop as a person'. The four items measure the extent to which students have 'integrated' these external expectations into their personal value system in respect of learning English.

Two questions related to amotivation are included in the questionnaire, as (given the social situation in Japan) students might be expected to be amotivated. The concept of 'amotivation', as used by Deci & Ryan (1985), is a contrast to all types of extrinsic and

intrinsic motivation. Noels, Pelletier, & Vallerand explain amotivation as:

> Amotivation refers to the situation in which people see no relation between their actions and the consequences of those actions; the consequences are seen as arising as a result of factors beyond their control. In such a situation, people have no reason, intrinsic or extrinsic, for performing the activity, and they would be expected to quit the activity as soon as possible (2000: 62).

Amotivation differs from demotivation in that the latter involves an initially motivated person, while amotivation implies an original lack of motivation (see for example Dörnyei, 2001: 142). Since Japanese can live quite comfortably as monolingual people, some see no relevance to themselves in learning English, and might be expected to be amotivated.

In case this mixture of questions, original and adapted from previous research, fails to capture some hitherto unsuspected motivational variables, there is an open-ended question at the end of Section F, asking "If there is/are other personal reason(s) for learning English, please state."

4.56 Pilot study for first questionnaire

The importance of pilot studies in conducting questionnaires has been emphasized by many researchers. Such a study can 'increases the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000: 260). There is a fairly accepted list of specific aims (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2000: 260; Munn & Drever, 1990: 31; Bell, 1993: 84; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989: 195; Burton, 2000: 345):

1) check how long the questionnaire takes to answer,
2) 'de-bug' the questions by checking the clarity of questionnaire items, instructions and layout, and eliminating ambiguities or difficulties in wording,
3) find out whether people see the questions as important and interpret them as the researcher expects.

Pilot studies were conducted a year ahead of the distribution of each of the real questionnaires, using a class of 40 first-year students. As Munn & Drever note, 'it is not uncommon to run the pilot one year and the study proper exactly a year later' (1990: 30);

this is in part because questionnaires should ideally be piloted with groups similar to the one that will form the population of the real research (see for example Bell, 1993: 84).

The pilot study for the first questionnaire showed that the questionnaire (with 98 rating-scale, and one open-ended, questions) could be completed in about 10 minutes, alleviating initial concerns that there were too many questions. Both pilot studies resulted in some minor corrections and alterations of wording.

4.57 Conducting the first questionnaire

The first questionnaire was administered during the first English class of the university year starting April 2002, in the presence of the researcher, to 150 students from three universities (see section 4.52).

Although the teacher/researcher was present, the questionnaire was administered even before the introduction of the teacher and the class, during the first class of the first university year, while students still had virtually no impression of English classes at University.

4.6 Second Questionnaire

The second questionnaire was administered to the same students at the end of their first academic year. Since the second questionnaire is intended to measure changes in the variables measured by the first questionnaire, the overall format is the same. The contents differ as follows:

4.61 Difference in content of first and second questionnaires

Table 14: Differences in content between first and second questionnaires

Sect.	First Questionnaire	No. Q.	Second Questionnaire	No. Q.
A	Contextual factors, personal, travel to English-speaking countries	5	**Minor change** – now asks after only travel to English-speaking countries made *since the last questionnaire*	5
B	Contextual factors, experience at high school	30	**Omitted** – the answers to these questions should have remained constant	–
C	Expectations for English classes at university	21	**Major change** – now asks after experience of and contentment regarding English classes at university	32
D	Self-perception as a learner	9	**Unchanged** – students are asked the same questions again to see how these variables have changed during their first year at university.	9
E	Current attitudes to English	9		9
F	Motivation for learning and using English	24		24
	Total	98	Total	79

Both questionnaires include an additional open question at the end.

The new Section A is slightly altered to determine what experience (if any) the student had of travel to an English-speaking country since the last questionnaire, because a change in this kind of experience can be expected to result in changes in attitudes and motivation elsewhere in the questionnaire.

The new Section C asks students to what degree they received various types of English teaching during their first year at university, and to what extent those various types matched their expectations.

Table 15: Questions regarding experience at university (second questionnaire)

Variables of perception of English instruction at university at the end of first year	Question Nos.	No.
1. Amount of grammar teaching	6a	1
2. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for grammar	6b	1
3. Amount of listening to English	7a	1
4. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for listening	7b	1
5. Amount of speaking in English	8a	1
6. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for speaking	8b	1
7. Amount of reading in English	9a	1
8. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for reading	9b	1
9. Amount of writing in English	10a	1
10. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for writing	10b	1
11. Amount of group work	11a	1
12. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for group work	11b	1
13. Amount of rote learning	12a	1
14. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for rote learning	12b	1
15. Amount of creative work	13a	1
16. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for creative work	13b	1
17. Amount of study of English-speaking countries' culture	14a	1
18. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for study of English-speaking counties' culture	14b	1
19. Amount of contact with native-speakers of English	15a	1
20. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for contact with native-speakers of English	15b	1
21. Amount of excitement from English lessons	16a	1
22. Degree of fulfilment of expectation for excitement from English lessons	16b	1
Variables of achievement after a year learning English at university		
23. Ability to read references	17	1
24. Ability to write essays	18	1
25. Ability to give presentation	19	1
26. Ability to study abroad	20	1
27. Ability to communicate fluently in English	21	1
28. Knowledge of English grammar and structure	22	1
29. Capacity of using English in a future job	23	1
30. Knowledge of English-speaking cultures and people	24	1
31. Sense of self-efficacy	25	1
32. Sense of expectations	26	1
Subtotal		32

4.7 Group Interviews

Two one-hour group interviews (to be conducted in Japanese, for the same reasons as the questionnaire) are scheduled between the two questionnaires: one at the end of July, four months after the first questionnaire, and the other at the beginning of December.

The purpose of conducting such interviews is that they 'can yield materials and can often put flesh on the bones of questionnaire responses' (Bell, 1993: 91).

4.71 Nature of the group interviews; semi-structured

Traditionally one-to-one interviews have been the main interview method in educational research, with group interviews gaining little favour. Drever, for example, recommends using group interviews only when the researcher has a good reason, noting that guiding a group discussion is especially difficult, and while tape recording is essential, the recording may be noisy and confused (1995: 16). Still, as Cohen & Manion note (1994: 287), group interviews have recently grown in popularity. The main advantage of group interview is a greater potential for discussions to develop, thus yielding a wider range of responses (Cohen & Manion, 1998: 287). Lewis (1992), from her research on 10-year-olds' understanding of several learning difficulties, likewise found that group interviews can generate a wider range of responses than individual interviews.

Interviews are commonly divided into three types: 1) structured, 2) semi-structured, and 3) unstructured. In the case of the current research, the requirement that the interviews be used to assist in interpretation of questionnaire results means that certain topics must be addressed, and an entirely unstructured interview is inappropriate. On the other hand, a wholly structured format is also inappropriate, as the desired result of a group interview is a free and wide range of responses – indeed, Bryman (2001) indicates that 'it is very unusual for structured interviews to be used in connection with this kind of interview [group interview]' (2001: 111). Therefore, a semi-structured format will be adopted.

> The name 'semi-structured' means that the interviewer sets up a general structure by deciding in advance what ground is to be covered and what main questions are to be asked. This leaves the detailed structure to be worked out during interview (Drever, 1995: 1)

In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer is free to modify the sequence of

questions, and to change, explain, and add to the questions in order to ask follow-up questions and delve further into answers. However, the semi-structured interview also 'gives the interviewee a degree of power and control over the course of the interview' (Nunan, 1997: 150). During the interview, the flow of the group's conversation should be maintained, helping to produce a group dynamism, which can in turn help induce a lot of responses, both expected and unexpected.

Flick suggests that 'the main advantages of group interviews include that they are low cost and rich in data, that they stimulate the answers and support them in remembering events, and that they can lead beyond the answers of the single interviewee' (2002: 113). While there is no doubt that a certain richness of data can be expected from group interviews, this low cost is to a certain extent occluded by the increased difficulty of transcription and analysis.

4.72 Participants for the group interviews

It is of course desirable to secure a representative sample. However, random selection of the sample in Japan is most likely to produce a group of students who simply will not speak out in front of the others. In order to ensure that the participants would at least be in principle willing to speak out, a rough explanation or outline of the interview (including for example the fact that it would be recorded) was given to students, and volunteers were requested. The sample was randomly selected from these volunteers.

Because the number of volunteers was largest in University A (and correspondingly, the largest number of questionnaire respondents, 80 out of 150, were from University A), the samples were finally taken from there.

There is also the question of the appropriate number of participants for the group interview – it should be small enough that the researcher will be able to retain some control during the interview, yet large enough that some group dynamism can emerge. Also when it comes to analysis, there is a limit of the amount of the conversation which

can be transcribed. May suggests that a 'typical group interview involves between eight and twelve people' (2001: 125). The number of participants was set at an intermediate figure of ten.

The same group of ten was used for both the first and second interviews. The group included five male and five female students. Two of the male students had spent an extra year at a special cram school studying to reapply for the entrance examination (students in this in-between state are known as *ronin*, masterless samurai) before gaining entrance. Hendry describes this system, exclusive to Japan:

> As a kind of safety net for families whose children fail to gain a place in the university of their choice directly from high school, there is another last-ditch series of private cram schools which provide intensive training for one or more years for second and subsequent sittings of entrance exams (Hendry, 1995: 105)

4.73 Conditions and location for the group interviews

The location for the group interview should be carefully considered, because the group interview requires a substantial space for ten students and the interviewer. The place should be comfortable enough for the students to be relaxed, and as conducive as possible to active and extensive discussion. The chosen place, available for a large group from 4pm (when all students could attend), was one of the university classrooms. This was on campus but not one of the students' ordinary classrooms.

The interview was tape-recorded – as May notes, this can 'assist interpretation as it allows the interviewer to concentrate on the conversation and record the non-verbal gestures of the interview during the interview, rather than spending time looking down at their notes and writing what it said' (2001: 138). The tape recorder (a small machine with an inbuilt microphone) was made relatively unobtrusive, encouraging the students to forget it.

The same conditions were used for the second group interview.

4.74 Main questions for the first group interview

Four main questions were posed during the group interview.

1) How do you assess the English lessons at university so far (four months after the start of the academic year), compared with your expectations at the beginning of university?
   - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section C (expectations at the start of your university career), though assessment of actual lessons involves issues related more to the second questionnaire

2) What do you think of Japanese characteristics and social context in relation with English learning?
   - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section E (current attitudes to English), and expected to result in the raising of some issues which could not be fully specified in the questionnaire answers

3) What is 'Japaneseness'?
   - Related centrally to: probing the opinions and issues raised in discussion of question 2 above. Perception of being Japanese is crucially related to attitudes to and motivation for learning English.

4) Why are you motivated to learn English?
   - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section F (motivation for learning and using English)

Since the interview is only semi-structured, discussion is allowed (indeed, expected) to branch out; sub-questions will occasionally be posed in order to probe answers more deeply and keep the conversation moving and on topic.

4.75 Main questions for the second group interview

Four main questions, focusing on changes in opinions, were posed during the second group interview.

5) How do you assess the English lessons at university so far (nine months after the start of the academic year), compared with your expectations at the beginning of university? Is there any change in your opinion since the first interview, and if so, why?
   - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section C (expectations at the start of your university career), and Second Questionnaire, Section C (experience and contentment regarding English classes at university)

6) Are there any changes in your motivation, and if so, what?
   - Related centrally to: Second Questionnaire, Section F (motivation for learning and using English)

7) Are you trying to do something to improve your English personally? What are you doing?

- Related centrally to: Second Questionnaire, Sections D & E (self-perception as a learner and current attitudes to English), but also intended to broaden the discussion

8) What requests or wishes for changes to university English instruction do you have after attending university English classes?
    - Related centrally to: Category B in the first group interview (wishes for university English classes) and intended to deepen the discussion.

Determining their wishes for university English education is particularly meaningful in the context of the current research, because their answers to this question will reflect their motivation.

4.8 Individual Interview

In this research, the individual interviews play a supportive or subsidiary role to the group interview. The purpose of the individual interviews is to find out whether there is a difference in students' opinion between when they are in a group and when they are alone. That is, the results from the individual interviews are to be compared and contrasted with the results from the group interviews. In part this is to determine to what extent Japanese people have distinct *honne* and *tatemae* (see section 1.41), or at least to what extent that difference affects the current research. But of course it is not only in Japan that people can express different opinions when they are part of a group and when they are alone. Indeed, May notes that it is possible to gain different results using group and individual interviews, suggesting that 'we should also be sensitive to group and individual interviews producing *different* perspectives on the *same* issues (2001: 126). Having individual interviews is valuable as a basis for comparison with group interview results.

4.81 The individual interviews; nature, participants

The style of the interview is the same as the group interview, semi-structured. The two students who remained quietest in the first group interview were chosen as subjects for the individual interviews. One was a female student, the other male.

4.82 Main questions for the individual interviews

The questions, likewise, mirror those offered in the first group interview:

1) How do you assess the English lessons at university so far (four months after the start of the academic year), compared with your expectations at the beginning of university?

2) Is there any Japanese characteristic or social context which works as a hindrance when learning English?

3) What is 'Japaneseness'?

4) Why are you motivated to learn English?

4.83 Conditions and location for the individual interview

Instead of the one hour allocated to the group interview, a quarter of an hour is allocated for each individual interview. The same classroom was used for the individual interviews at different times on the same day. These interviews too were tape-recorded.

4.9 Summary

The overall research question regarding university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English has been split into ten individually more manageable questions.

In the context of Japan's vertical society, samples are limited to current students of the researcher (150 students, taking English as a compulsory minor, from three universities).

The chosen research methods are two questionnaires, administered as the students begin and finish their first year at university, and backed by two types of interviews (semi-structured group and individual), each also repeated twice. Questions are chosen with reference to extant research, prior theory, and a preliminary study asking 222 students 'why are you studying English?'.

Chapter 5: Presentation and Analysis of Findings, First and Second Questionnaires

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present and discuss the results and findings of the questionnaires. The data collected at three universities from the two structured questionnaires (at the beginning and end of the students' first year of university), were analyzed with the assistance of the computer program SPSS (Statistic Package of Social Science for Windows, Release 11.0.1 J. 2001. Chicago: SPSS Inc.). The data will be analysed in respect of the student group as a whole, and then analysed further to identify any significant differences between groups within that whole (those with experience abroad versus with those with no experience abroad; male versus female students). Occasionally, tables and illustrations are used to help illustrate the results and analysis, which aims to answer the questions asked in section 4.2. In addition to these tables and illustrations, brief comments on these results will be presented.

5.2 Presentation of findings—First Questionnaire (pre-university)

5.21 Personal information: gender, age, experience of overseas travel

Table 16: gender balance of respondents

Gender	A Univ. (Private, Co-ed)	B Univ. (Private, Co-ed)	C Univ. (Private, Single-sex)	Total
Male	62 (77%)	33 (85%)	0 (0%)	95 (63%)
Female	19 (23%)	6 (15%)	30 (100%)	55 (37%)
Total	81 (100%)	39 (100%)	30 (100%)	150 (100%)

Respondents at University A belong to the Department of Political Science, which is predominantly male, in part no doubt because at the time of writing only 8% of the members of the Japanese Diet are female. University B was founded to teach agriculture, also a male-dominated subject, and the gender balance there continues to reflect this.

University C is a single-sex school, a women's university. This is still very common in Japan, although the number of women's universities and colleges are decreasing. The gender balance – or rather, imbalance – here reflects the actual Japanese social milieu.

Table 17: age range of respondents

Age	A Univ.	B Univ.	C Univ.	Total
Age 18-19	71 (88%)	39 (100%)	30 (0%)	140 (93%)
Age 20-21	8 (10%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (5%)
Age 22 or over	2 (2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (2%)
Total	81 (100%)	39 (100%)	30 (100%)	150 (100%)

The age range of respondents is very narrow because almost all students enter university directly after graduating from secondary school, at the age of 18. However, in order to enter prestigious universities, some students spend an extra year or so studying for the entrance examination. The vast majority of respondents overall, and all respondents from Universities B and C, are 18-19 years old, meaning they probably entered university directly from high school. A small number of respondents from University A spent an extra year or more studying to enter, reflecting its higher prestige.

Table 18: experience of travel to English-speaking country (pre-university)

Overseas Experience	A Univ.	B Univ.	C Univ.	Total
Experienced	37 (46%)	11 (28%)	14 (47%)	62 (41%)
Not experienced	44 (54%)	28 (72%)	16 (53%)	88 (59%)
Total	81 (100%)	39 (100%)	30 (100%)	150 (100%)

Japan's geographical and linguistic isolation, along with its cultural insularity, has long meant that Japanese people have had comparatively little direct contact with foreign cultures and societies. However, the result here shows that young Japanese people today are overcoming these barriers. Overall, 41% of respondents have had direct contact with target language societies and cultures. Travel overseas, particularly to English speaking countries, has become popular with the strong economy and strong yen over the past 15 years, though the number of travellers is decreasing recently under the severe recession.

Table 19: duration of overseas experience

Length of time	Univ. A	Univ. B	Univ. C	Total
Less than 3 months	28 (78%)	11 (100%)	11 (85%)	50 (83%)
3-12 months	1 (3%)	0	2 (15%)	3 (5%)
1-2 years	3 (8%)	0	0	3 (5%)
More than 2 years	4 (11%)	0	0	4 (7%)
Total	36 (100%)	11 (100%)	13 (100%)	60 (100%)

Generally, the length of time spent in English-speaking countries is short – 83% of such trips totalled less than three months. (Note that two students who had experience of overseas travel did not specify duration of travel.) The shortness of the period suggests that most students visited English-speaking countries on holiday, for summer language courses offered by overseas institutions, or on school excursions at the end of high school.

The countries visited by respondents are the USA (32 students), Australia (18), Canada (10), UK (9), New Zealand (1), and the Philippines (1). (The total number exceeds 62, since some students have been to more than one country.) The USA is the primary destination, reflecting a Japanese interest in America which has grown more obvious since America's defeat of Japan in WWII. Australia, offering English-speaking culture and beautiful scenery, is a popular destination for Japanese school excursions. Also, secondary schools in Australia lead the world in the levels of students studying Japanese as a foreign language, helping keep relations between the two countries close.

Having such a high percentage of students who have experienced going to (and in some cases, living in) English-speaking countries is a new situation for Japan. Therefore, it should be examined how such experience affects students attitudes to and motivation for learning English (see the discussion following table 27, page 140).

5.22 Question 1: experience with learning English before university

In answering this question ('what was the nature of students experience with learning English before university?'), comparison of results for junior and senior high school will highlight the characteristics of both institutions. The first questionnaire included a distinct section regarding each of junior and senior high schools, such that there are

pairs of parallel questions: Q6-Q21, Q7-Q22, through to Q20-35.

Table 20: experience with learning English at junior and senior high school

Question N=150	Q. no.		Mean	Pair mean (Change from J to S)	Std Dev	Mode
How much teaching of grammar did you receive?	J	Q6	3.67 **	3.82 **	0.933	3
	S	Q21	3.97 **	Up 0.30††	0.908	4
Listening?	J	Q7	2.73 **	2.65 **	0.904	3
	S	Q22	2.58 **	Down 0.15	0.985	2
Speaking?	J	Q8	2.21 **	2.20 **	0.952	2
	S	Q23	2.18 **	Down 0.03	1.010	2
Reading?	J	Q9	3.42 **	3.64 **	1.007	3
	S	Q24	3.87 **	Up 0.45††	0.994	4
Writing?	J	Q10	3.09	3.21 **	0.972	3
	S	Q25	3.33 **	Up 0.24†	0.981	3
Group work?	J	Q11	2.23 **	1.98 **	1.075	2
	S	Q26	1.74 **	Down 0.49††	0.915	1
Rote learning?	J	Q12	3.71 **	3.79 **	1.129	4
	S	Q27	3.86 **	Up 0.15	1.232	5
Creative work?	J	Q13	1.89 **	1.87 **	0.889	2
	S	Q28	1.86 **	Down 0.03	0.875	2
Culture?	J	Q14	2.19 **	2.21 **	0.951	2
	S	Q29	2.23 **	Up 0.04	0.923	2
How much contact with English native speakers?	J	Q15	2.99	2.81 **	0.952	3
	S	Q30	2.64 **	Down 0.35††	1.183	3

Questions are shown abbreviated and for reference purposes only. For the full text of questions, see Appendix One – First Questionnaire (English Translation)

Mean responses are on a scale of 1 (denoting very much, very often, or strongly agree, depending on the section of the questionnaire) to 5 (very little/none, never, or strongly disagree).

'J' stands for 'junior high school', 'S' for 'senior high school', and 'Std Dev' for 'standard deviation'.

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3). (The percentage figure indicates the probability that one could observe a difference or effect as large as or greater than that observed by chance alone. The smaller the value, the less likely it is that the observed difference or effect occurred by chance alone.)

** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)

† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)

†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)

The three highest means of pairs are for learning grammar (3.82), rote learning (3.79), and learning reading (3.64). This suggests that something like the Grammar Translation Method (the traditional method of teaching a second or foreign language, based on the methods used to teach Latin and consisting mainly of analysis of grammar and rhetoric) is widely used in English class at junior and senior high school (this supports comments made earlier in section 1.32).

The differences in mean between junior and senior high are also revealing. Students clearly spend even more time on reading, grammar, and writing in senior than in junior high (means up by 0.45, 0.3, and 0.24 respectively), while spending even less time on group work and listening (means down by 0.49 and 0.35 respectively). This shows the shift of class focus onto preparation for university entrance examinations, which require advanced ability in manipulating grammar rules and learning vocabulary, but make little attempt to test practical ability to use the language (this again supports comments made in section 1.32).

Speaking and creative work are not taught a great deal in either junior or senior high school (pair means are 2.20 and 1.87 respectively). While students learn similarly little about culture (pair mean 2.21), there seems to be 'some' contact with native speakers at both junior and senior high school (means 2.99 and 2.64 respectively, showing a significant drop in senior high school as focus shifts to exam preparation). This suggests that the government-sponsored JET programme (see section 2.72) is having a real effect, but that there is still some room for Japanese teachers to utilize the JET assistant teachers more fully for teaching culture.

As for experience of learning out of school, that is, at preparatory or cram schools (*juku,* see sections 1.31 and 4.55b), 79 percent of students went to preparatory school while at junior high, compared to 57 percent while at senior high school. These figures seem somewhat surprising given that the most important exams, which *prima facie*

require the most preparation and therefore preparatory schooling, come at the end of senior high. However, these figures are less surprising in view of the background facts that (i) all three universities sampled from have their own attached high schools, and students from these attachment schools do not need to take an entrance examination for the university; (ii) University A recently adopted a new system called OA (Office Admission) Entry, which grants selected students entrance on the basis of their performance during the three years of senior high school, meaning that at least some of the students will not have undergone the 'exam warrior' training and exam hell; and (iii) some high schools, especially in the countryside, have exam preparation classes during extra time, because there are few or no preparatory schools in such rural areas.

These recent measures by universities, designed to avoid collecting students burnt out by the entrance examination process, have resulted in a decrease in the numbers of students who attend preparatory or cram schools during senior high school.

Table 21: degree of contentment with English education at junior and senior high school

Question N=150	Q. no.		Mean	Pair mean Change	Std Dev	Mode
Degree to which students enjoyed English lessons	J	Q17	2.61**	2.50**	1.009	3
	S	Q32	2.39 **	Down 0.22	0.969	2
Usefulness for communication	J	Q18	2.18 **	2.18**	0.935	2
	S	Q33	2.18 **	No change	0.898	2
Quality of English lessons	J	Q19	2.22 **	2.38**	0.874	2
	S	Q34	2.53 **	Up 0.31††	1.041	3
Sufficient as preparation for higher education	J	Q20	2.72 **	2.63**	1.088	3
	S	Q35	2.55 **	Down 0.17	1.156	2

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
**indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

The mean scores for all of these 'contentment' questions are all significantly below 3, indicating general dissatisfaction. 'Usefulness for communication' received the lowest

score (2.18) for both junior and senior high, indicating that classes are not designed for teaching English for communication.

Students seem to have enjoyed junior high school lessons more than those at senior high (means 2.61 and 2.39 respectively), though the difference is not significant at the 5% significance level. One credible explanation is that students are excited and keen to learn when first meeting a foreign language, but gradually lose interest, particularly without real-life opportunities to put that language to use.

Students were however more positive about the general quality of lessons in senior than in junior high (means 2.53 and 2.22 respectively). One possible reason for this is that senior high schools, with their competitive entry and hierarchy, each tend to contain students of a roughly similar ability level, and can therefore offer classes appropriate to that level. Schools at the comprehensive or compulsory level (primary and junior high schools) are, on the other hand, highly egalitarian and deliberately unstreamed. At the senior high school level there is a complete change, to a streamed meritocracy.

5.22a Underlying patterns of association in responses: statistical analysis

In order to better understand how students think of their experience with English classes, it is important to examine the relations between their answers for the contents of the classes (Q6-16 for junior high school and Q21-31 for senior) and their feeling about the classes (Q17-20 for junior and Q32-35 for senior).

The table below expresses these relations in terms of correlation coefficients, which can take a value between plus and minus one. A coefficient of zero would mean that there is no relationship between the two items and that feelings about the classes do not depend on (or co-vary with) the contents of the classes. A high correlation coefficient (closer to plus or minus one) indicates the opposite, and that feelings about the classes will usually change as the contents of classes change – change in the same

direction if the coefficient is positive, in the opposite direction if the coefficient is negative.

Table 22: Correlation between contents and degree of contentment with English-language education at junior and senior high school.

(Content of classes)		Degree of enjoyment (Q17,Q32)	Useful for communication (Q18,Q33)	Quality of classes (Q19,Q34)	Enough for higher education (Q20,Q35)
Grammar	J:Q6	0.131	-0.055	0.211‡‡	0.199‡
	S:Q21	0.158	-0.039	0.086	0.188‡
Listening	J:Q7	0.095	0.122	0.272‡‡	-0.024
	S:Q22	0.167‡	0.268‡‡	0.207‡	0.132
Speaking	J:Q8	0.227‡‡	0.236‡‡	0.266‡‡	-0.020
	S:Q23	0.297‡‡	0.326‡‡	0.214‡‡	0.156
Reading	J:Q9	0.189‡	0.073	0.312‡‡	0.191‡
	S:Q24	0.131	0.200‡	0.238‡‡	0.291‡‡
Writing	J:Q10	0.216‡‡	0.246‡‡	0.160	0.074
	S:Q25	0.207‡	0.160‡	0.153	0.300‡‡
Group study	J:Q11	0.163‡	0.266‡‡	0.204‡	0.055
	S:Q26	0.411‡‡	0.400‡‡	0.189‡	0.230‡‡
Rote learning	J:Q12	-0.093	-0.134	-0.058	-0.024
	S:Q27	-0.201‡	-0.153	-0.140	-0.045
Creative study	J:Q13	0.288‡‡	0.254‡‡	0.223	0.001
	S:Q28	0.192‡	0.434‡‡	0.171	0.043
Culture learning	J:Q14	0.175‡	0.219‡‡	0.209‡‡	0.044
	S:Q29	0.332‡‡	0.435‡‡	0.310‡‡	0.226‡‡
Contact with native speaker	J:Q15	0.105	0.189‡	0.123	0.028
	S:Q30	0.160	0.295‡‡	0.124	0.120

Numbers are correlation coefficients between 1 (perfect positive correlation) and -1 (perfect negative correlation).
'J' stands for 'junior high school', 'S' for 'senior high school'.
‡ indicates significance at the 5% level or better (Pearson Product Moment Correlation)
‡‡indicates significance at the 1% level or better (Pearson Product Moment Correlation)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Degree of enjoyment of English-language education at junior high is positively correlated particularly strongly with (i.e., students enjoyed) creative study, speaking, and writing; and at senior high, with group study, culture learning and speaking. Students did not enjoy grammar-translation method (entrance-examination-related) contents as much (grammar and reading show lower correlations). However, writing (another major element of Japanese traditional English-language education), shows a

significant correlation with enjoyment. We can conjecture that this is because writing, as an output activity, involves a little more creativity than reading. Similarly, speaking, another output activity, is more positively correlated with degree of enjoyment than listening. The students enjoy class contents or teaching styles that allow them more active learning than passive learning. It is significant that only rote learning obtained (particularly in senior high school) a negative correlation with degree of enjoyment. Although rote learning is necessary in view of the entrance examination, students tend not to enjoy it. The correlation of enjoyment with group study, in particular, varied greatly between junior and high schools. One credible explanation of this big difference is that in junior high school (paced to the slowest student, with a strong emphasis on moral education – see the end of section 5.22 above) the groups are so mixed-ability that classes can be rather more frustrating or forgettable. The more homogenous streamed groups in senior high school may be more enjoyable, particularly for the more able students (remembering that the students surveyed here are all 'successful' in the sense of having gained university entrance).

Students' ranking of junior high school classes as 'useful for communication' is positively correlated particularly strongly with group study, creative study, writing, and speaking; and of senior high school classes, with culture learning, creative learning, group study, speaking, contact with native speakers, and listening. The particularly high positive correlation of culture learning at senior high with 'useful for communication' indicates that students realise learning about the culture of the target language society is essential for communication. Rote learning and grammar at both junior and senior high schools have negative correlations with 'useful for communication', though the correlation is not significant at the 5% significance level. Such figures do not suggest that learning grammar, or by rote, is (in and of itself) bad for communicative ability; rather that, in the estimation of students, where class time and

resources are limited, having spent more time on grammar or rote learning *instead of other styles of English-language education* tends to result in a lower communicative ability than those other teaching styles tend to result in.

Student rating of 'quality of classes' for junior high school correlates particularly significantly with reading, listening, speaking, grammar, and culture learning; and for senior high school, with culture learning, reading, and speaking. Grammar learning was related to quality of classes in junior, but not in senior high – grammar (along with culture, reading, speaking, listening) is important to the (perceived) quality of English classes for beginners or near-beginners in junior high school; but not in senior high school, where perhaps students feel they have a sufficient grounding in grammar to move on to other contents, including culture, speaking, listening – contents they received comparatively little of (see table 20, page 127), and consider having more of as linked to higher quality lessons. Rote learning had a weak negative correlation with 'quality of classes', though the correlation is again not significant at the 5% significance level.

Finally, being 'enough for higher education' is positively correlated with grammar and reading in junior high, while listening and speaking obtained weak negative correlations (not significant at the 5% significance level). Particularly for beginners or near-beginners at junior high, being 'enough for higher education' equates to usefulness in entering prestigious academically oriented high schools (leading eventually to prestigious universities). Grammar and reading are central items in the senior high entrance examinations (however unenjoyable or useless for communication they are), while listening and speaking (however enjoyable, useful for communication, and conducive to high quality classes they may be) feature little or not at all. However, at the senior high school level, writing, reading, group study and culture learning are particularly strongly positively correlated with 'enough for higher education'. Especially

remembering that attached high schools and exam-less entry (see the discussion on page 129) mean that some students can now avoid taking university entrance exams, students are focussing more on what they expect university classes to involve or require – namely, reading, group study and culture learning. Interestingly, rote learning has a weak negative correlation (not significant at the 5% significance level) with even 'enough for higher education', at both junior and senior high; apparently, students consider that rote learning (besides being, as discussed above, not particularly enjoyable, useful for communication, or conducive to quality classes) does not even have any particular positive result in terms of contents or skills learnt.

In summary, the students enjoy creative or output activities (speaking, creative study, group study, writing) and culture learning, and also think those activities are useful for communication.

However, students do not enjoy the more traditional activities (grammar, reading) or consider them useful for communication, though they do to some extent consider them conducive to higher quality classes and adequate preparation for higher education (most likely because they are central requirements of the entrance examinations).

5.23 Questions 2, 3: expectations for university English; relation between questions 1 and 2

Q36-Q45 mirror Q6-Q15 (experience at junior high) and Q21-Q30 (experience at senior high) but ask about expectations instead of experience.

Table 23: experience with high school English and expectations for university English

Question N=150	Q. No.		Mean	Pair mean Change (high school to uni)	Std Dev	Mode
How much teaching of grammar did you [do you expect to] receive?	J	Q6	3.67**	3.82 **	0.933	3
	S	Q21	3.97**		0.908	4
	U	Q36	2.76**	Down 1.06††	0.946	3
Listening?	J	Q7	2.73**	2.65 **	0.904	3
	S	Q22	2.58**		0.985	2
	U	Q37	3.55**	Up 0.89†	0.973	4
Speaking?	J	Q8	2.21**	2.20 **	0.952	2
	S	Q23	2.18**		1.010	2
	U	Q38	3.73**	Up 1.54††	0.981	4
Learning reading?	J	Q9	3.42**	3.64 **	1.007	3
	S	Q24	3.87**		0.994	4
	U	Q39	3.77**	Up 0.13	0.781	4
Learning writing?	J	Q10	3.09	3.21 **	0.972	3
	S	Q25	3.33**		0.981	3
	U	Q40	3.41**	Up 0.20†	0.898	3
Group study?	J	Q11	2.23**	1.98 **	1.075	2
	S	Q26	1.74**		0.915	1
	U	Q41	3.22*	Up 1.24††	1.080	4
Rote learning?	J	Q12	3.71**	3.79 **	1.129	4
	S	Q27	3.86**		1.232	5
	U	Q42	2.83	Down 0.95††	1.132	3
Creative work?	J	Q13	1.89**	1.87 **	0.889	2
	S	Q28	1.86**		0.875	2
	U	Q43	3.30**	Up 1.43††	1.028	4
Learning culture?	J	Q14	2.19**	2.21 **	0.951	2
	S	Q29	2.23**		0.923	2
	U	Q44	3.55**	Up 1.34††	0.938	4
Contact with native speakers of English?	J	Q15	2.99	2.81 **	0.952	3
	S	Q30	2.64**		1.183	3
	U	Q45	3.69**	Up 0.88††	0.904	4
Enjoyment from classes?	J	Q17	2.61**	2.50 **	1.009	3
	S	Q32	2.39**		0.969	2
	U	Q46	3.05	Up 0.55††	1.041	3

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students expect university English to differ quite radically from their actual experience in junior and senior high school.

In two places there are drops (both significant) in the mean responses: learning grammar (down 1.06 for university) and rote learning (down 0.95 for university). While

high school English education, centred around preparation for entrance examinations, involved a lot of grammar study and rote learning, students expect that in university (with the examinations behind them) this load will be considerably lightened.

There are particularly significant rises in the mean in 6 places – speaking up 1.54, creative study up 1.43, culture up 1.34, group study up 1.24, listening up 0.89, and contact with native speakers of English up 0.88. In general, students expect university English to place a much greater stress on those areas which were comparatively neglected in high school. While high school English study involved examination-oriented study, students expect that at university lessons will involve a more active learning style with a stress on culture, communication and creativity.

Students expect lesser changes in the quantity of reading (up 0.13) and writing (up 0.20). Both of these received substantial attention in high school – students apparently expect this to continue, recognizing that these are core language skills.

Students expect to enjoy university classes more than high school classes – though university classes have a reputation for being dull, the expected increase in comparatively enjoyable content and activities (see table 22, page 131) sees the mean response up 0.55 to a mean of 3.05 (a nearly perfect split between positive (33.3%), noncommittal (38.0%) and negative (28%) expectations).

Table 24: expectations for results of studying English at university

Question No. (N=150)	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
Expect to acquire			5	4	3	2	1
Q47 reading skill for major	3.46 **	1.127	17.3	40.0	18.7	19.3	4.7
Q48 writing skill (essays)	3.13	1.230	12.0	36.0	16.0	25.3	10.7
Q49 presentation skill	3.13	1.180	13.3	28.7	24.0	26.0	8.0
Q50 capability to study abroad	3.47 **	1.211	25.5	26.8	20.8	22.8	4.0
Q51 communication skill	3.79 **	1.160	33.3	34.0	15.3	13.3	4.0
Q52 grammar and structure	2.86	1.049	6.0	19.3	40.7	22.7	11.3
Q53 use for a future job	3.63 **	1.167	24.7	38.7	18.7	11.3	6.7
Q54 native culture	3.45 **	1.065	18.0	30.7	33.3	14.0	4.0

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students, asked how strongly they expect to acquire various English-related skills by the end of their first-year of university, rated communication skill the highest (mean 3.79), followed by the capability to use English in a future job (3.63), the capability to study abroad (3.47), skill in reading works in English for their major (3.46), a good knowledge of English-speaking countries and people (3.45), and the final three (with no significance at the 5% level) skill in writing essays in English (3.13), making presentations in English (3.13), and a good knowledge of grammar and structure (2.86).

These results largely reflect the expected contents of university classes (table 23, page 135). Students are clear in what they expect to be taught in university English classes (more communicative English), and what they expect to gain from those classes (the ability to effectively communicate).

Table 25: expectations for results of studying English at university

Question No. (N=150)	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q55 expect little progress	2.72**	1.025	3.3	21.3	30.0	34.7	10.7
Q56 no expectation – only take English for course credit	1.87**	0.950	1.3	4.0	19.3	31.3	44.0

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students are significantly optimistic about the prospect of making progress during their year at university (mean response 2.72). Under a quarter of students expect to make little progress, while 30% are neutral, and over 45% expect to make significant progress.

The final question directly concerning expectations is 'I do not have any expectations. I learn English only to get credits' (mean 1.87). Seventy-five percent of students disagree or strongly disagree with this idea, the only one with a mode response of 1 ('strongly disagree'). This result will amaze many university lecturers in Japan, because it is widely believed that many students attend classes only to get credits (see for example section 1.32). This reveals a discrepancy of opinions between teachers' and students' views of English education, and highlights teachers' ignorance about what their students actually want – a situation mentioned at the beginning of this paper (see section 1.1).

5.24 Question 4: attitudes to and motivation for learning English at start of university

Q57-Q61 ask to what extent students engage in English study outside of school.

Table 26: English study outside of school, pre-university

Question No. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Very Often - Never (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q57 reading English materials	1.67**	0.930	0.0	5.3	16.0	19.3	59.3
Q58 writing things in English	1.24**	0.652	0.7	1.3	4.0	9.3	84.7
Q59 learning through TV or radio	1.53**	0.895	0.7	4.7	9.3	18.0	67.3
Q60 learning at private language school	1.22**	0.694	1.3	0.7	5.3	4.0	88.7
Q61 try to grasp every opportunity to use English	1.90**	1.208	5.3	8.0	12.0	20.7	54.0

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students generally do very little English study outside of school – all mean responses are between 'seldom' and 'never' – and English learning in Japan is thereby shown to be heavily dependent on formal education. The highest mean is for 'trying to use English at every opportunity' (1.90), but it seems that either students have very little opportunity or do not try very hard. Nearly 60% never read English-language materials, nearly 85% never write in English, and nearly 70% never learn English through television or radio, despite there being some publically broadcast educational programs and a reasonable quantity of popular English-language television (comedies, dramas, etc.) available subtitled in Japanese.

Nearly 90% of students never attend a private language school; these schools generally focus entirely on English conversation, taught by native English-speakers. There are some problems with those schools, not least that the vast majority of the 'teachers' have no teaching experience or qualification, but also that they are expensive (standard annual tuition for one-hour lessons in the evening after work one or two days a week will easily cost around 2000 or 3000 pounds). That there are nonetheless a huge number of these schools, particularly in bigger cities, is witness to the huge demand unsatisfied by formal educational institutes. The high tuition fees are probably the

cause of the low percentage of high school or university students attending these schools 'often' – many of the students of such conversation schools are adults, past the entrance exam process, who feel the need for communicative English for their work or travel.

Table 27: relation between experience overseas and extracurricular English study

Content of question N=150	No.	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Very often – Never (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q57 reading English materials	E:62	1.94 **	0.47††	1.022	0.0	8.1	24.2	21.0	46.8
	N:88	1.49 **		0.816	0.0	3.4	10.2	18.2	68.2
Q58 writing things in English	E:62	1.40 **	0.28††	0.858	1.6	3.2	4.8	14.5	75.8
	N:88	1.13 **		0.424	0.0	0.0	3.4	5.7	90.9
Q59 learning through TV or radio	E:62	1.61 **	0.14	1.014	0.0	9.7	9.7	12.9	67.7
	N:88	1.48 **		0.802	1.1	1.1	9.1	21.6	67.0
Q60 learning at private language school	E:62	1.39 **	0.29††	0.912	3.2	0.0	9.7	6.5	80.6
	N:88	1.10 **		0.456	0.0	1.1	2.3	2.3	94.3
Q61 try to grasp opportunity to use English	E:62	2.11 **	0.36	1.332	8.1	9.7	16.1	17.7	48.4
	N:88	1.75 **		1.096	3.4	6.8	9.1	22.7	58.0

'E' stands for 'students who have experienced travel to an English-speaking country', and 'N' for students who have not experienced such travel.
* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Mean responses for students with experience of travel overseas to an English-speaking country were higher than for students without such experience. Students with such experience read and write in English significantly more often, attend private language schools significantly more often, and generally more often try to use English and learn English through radio or television (though the last two differences are not significant at the 5% level). While travel overseas is clearly linked with improved frequency of extracurricular English use or study, which is causally prior is not determined by the questions here – indeed, it seems likely that neither is universally prior, and in most cases the two are mutually supporting, with more extracurricular English involvement tending to lead to travel, and travel tending to improve motivation for such involvement. The latter effect in particular seems likely to be particularly strong, as people leaving

Japan – an insular, homogenous, monolingual nation with few foreign (let alone native English-speaking) residents or visitors – will have their first real direct contact with the TL society, and likely TL speakers. While the specifics and effects of this experience of course vary between people, a common response is to come back to Japan having realized on an emotional level that Japan is only a small part of the world, that English is necessary to be a part of that larger world, and that one's own English is (communicatively) insufficient. This is likely to be one of the causes of the huge popularity of private English conversation schools and classes – many of these schools explicitly target young adults, those who are most likely to have recently returned from their first (independent, non-school tour) trip overseas, often taken following university graduation, as a team-building trip for new employees of a big firm, on business, or as a honeymoon.

However, even for the group of students with experience of such overseas travel, means range from 1.39 to 2.11 – 'nearly never' to 'seldom' – showing that English study outside the framework of formal education cannot be expected in Japan. The figures also show that even in the modern age, English-language materials or English itself is not an unavoidable part of Japanese daily life or society. While pseudo-English loan words and catch-phrases can be found on T-shirts and billboards all across especially the bigger cities, English classes and educational materials are expensive, newspapers in English relatively rare, and foreigners even rarer (especially in the countryside). There are few opportunities (and no necessity) to use English outside the classroom, and students have generally not adopted any extracurricular strategies as individual learners. Nonetheless, it seems that the experience of being abroad has some positive influence on their attitudes towards English.

Table 28: students' perception of themselves as learners pre-university

Question No. N=150	No.	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q62 can reach target level of proficiency	150	2.73**	--	0.895	2.7	16.0	39.3	36.0	6.0
	E:62	2.79**	0.10	0.943	3.2	16.1	46.8	24.2	9.7
	N:88	2.69**		0.862	2.3	15.9	34.1	44.3	3.4
Q63 easily distracted when learning English?	150	2.87	--	1.070	4.7	26.0	32.7	25.3	11.3
	E:62	2.86	-0.03	1.053	3.2	27.4	32.3	25.8	11.3
	N:88	2.89		1.087	5.7	25.0	33.0	25.0	11.4
Q64 relaxed and confident in English class	150	2.82*	--	0.977	4.0	20.7	36.0	32.0	7.3
	E:62	2.90	-0.14	1.051	6.5	24.2	29.0	33.9	6.5
	N:88	2.76**		0.922	2.3	18.2	40.9	30.7	8.0
Q65 anxious when speaking English with foreigners	150	3.86**	--	1.193	36.0	36.7	10.7	10.7	6.0
	E:62	3.52**	-0.58††	1.302	25.8	35.5	12.9	16.1	9.7
	N:88	4.10**		1.051	43.2	37.5	9.1	6.8	3.4

'E' stands for 'students who have experienced travel to an English-speaking country', and 'N' for students who have not experienced such travel.
* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Questions 62 to 65 concern the students' affective variables as learners. In general, students tend to be unconfident of being able to reach their target levels of proficiency (mean response 2.73); that they are generally not so relaxed and confident in the English class (mean response 2.82 significant at 5% but not 1% level); and are significantly anxious when speaking English with foreigners (mean response 3.86).

In terms of differences between the two groups of students (with and without overseas experience), there is no significant difference (at the 5% level) between students who have, and students who have not, been overseas to an English-speaking country for the first three issues (questions 62 to 64, related to self-efficacy, persistence, and anxiety respectively). For question 65 (anxiety when speaking English with foreigners), however, there is a significant difference between the two groups. While students who have never been overseas 'agree' (mean 4.10) that they are anxious, students who have been overseas are significantly less anxious, though still on average

closer to agreeing than disagreeing (mean 3.52).

Table 29: reasons for difficulties in learning English pre-university

Question No. N=150	N	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q66 difficult due to language distance	150	3.37**	--	1.059	12.0	42.7	18.7	24.0	2.7
	E:62	3.18*	-0.33	1.064	6.5	41.9	19.4	27.4	4.8
	N:88	3.51**		1.039	15.9	43.2	18.2	21.6	1.1
Q67 difficult due to geographic distance	150	2.75**	--	1.165	8.0	21.3	20.7	37.3	12.7
	E:62	2.76*	0.02	1.183	6.5	24.2	24.2	29.0	16.1
	N:88	2.74**		1.160	9.1	19.3	18.2	43.2	10.2
Q68 difficult due to cultural distance	150	2.77*	--	1.142	7.3	22.7	21.3	37.3	11.3
	E:62	2.65**	-0.21	1.147	6.5	17.7	25.8	33.9	16.1
	N:88	2.86		1.136	8.0	26.1	18.2	39.8	8.0

'E' stands for 'students who have experienced travel to an English-speaking country', and 'N' for students who have not experienced such travel.
* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Asked to rate how strongly they agree with the suggestions that English is difficult for Japanese people to learn because of variously linguistic, geographic, and cultural distances, students agreed most strongly that linguistic distance made English learning difficult. Even then, however, the mean response was between 'agree' and 'neutral' – a significant but relatively weak response.

On the other hand, students tended to *disagree* that geographical and cultural distance made English learning difficult (mean responses between 'neutral' and 'disagree'). Geographical distance is not considered a problem, perhaps, because it is now possible to fly quickly and relatively cheaply at some times of year to some countries in the English-speaking world; or perhaps because various forms of media (including especially those transferred over the internet) transcend geographical boundaries. Cultural distance likewise is not considered a problem – Western culture fills the Japanese media, even if often in a translated and otherwise interpreted form, so that students apparently feel Western culture is relatively familiar.

Experience overseas in English-speaking countries has no net effect on evaluation of the problems for English learning in Japan that geographical distance poses. There is some tendency (though the difference in means is not significant at the 5% level) for students with experience overseas to consider both linguistic and cultural distances less of a source of difficulty (difference in mean of 0.33 and 0.22 respectively). In terms of the various types of distances canvassed in section 3.24, the students are suggesting that linguistic distance between English and Japanese is very real, but otherwise it is generally physiological distance (that is, depending on individuals) which is important.

Table 30: students' perception of the status of English in Japanese society

Question N=150	No.	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q69 English proficiency regarded as symptom of negative attitude towards Japanese culture	150	2.19**	--	1.133	2.7	11.3	25.3	24.0	36.7
	E:62	2.19**	0.00	1.143	3.2	9.7	27.4	22.6	37.1
	N:88	2.19**		1.133	2.3	12.5	23.9	25.0	36.4
Q70 Foreign ideas in English are a threat to Japanese culture	150	1.97**	--	1.077	3.3	8.7	10.0	37.3	40.7
	E:62	2.02**	0.09	1.166	3.2	12.9	9.7	30.6	43.5
	N:88	1.93**		1.015	3.4	5.7	10.2	42.0	38.6
Q71 Japan is xenophobic, and English seen as a threat	150	2.59**	--	1.232	6.0	22.7	18.7	30.0	22.7
	E:62	2.44**	-0.27	1.223	4.8	19.4	17.7	30.6	27.4
	N:88	2.71**		1.233	6.8	25.0	19.3	29.5	19.3
Q72 English should be adopted as a second language	150	2.90	--	1.225	8.7	24.7	34.0	13.3	19.3
	E:62	2.86	-0.07	1.239	8.1	24.2	33.9	12.9	21.0
	N:88	2.93		1.220	9.1	25.0	34.1	13.6	18.2
Q73 priority of neighbour languages to English	150	2.55**	--	1.108	4.7	14.0	34.0	26.7	20.7
	E:62	2.44**	-0.20	1.034	4.8	6.5	35.5	33.9	19.4
	N:88	2.64**		1.157	4.5	19.3	33.0	21.6	21.6
Q74 parents encourage learning of English	150	3.47**	--	1.174	22.0	30.0	28.7	12.0	7.3
	E:62	3.57**	0.16	1.210	25.8	32.3	21.0	14.5	6.5
	N:88	3.41**		1.151	19.3	28.4	34.1	10.2	8.0

'E' stands for 'students who have experienced travel to an English-speaking country', and 'N' for students who have not experienced such travel.
* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Two-thirds of students do not think that proficiency in English is generally regarded as a symptom of a negative attitude towards Japanese culture and society. This is an

interesting result because in general there seems to be a belief that bilingualism is unappreciated in Japan. For example, Inoue suggests that 'Japanese people tend to link language to the national identity and personal traits. Therefore they do not approve of bilingualism' (2001: 104); the 'Japanese language is a symbol of identity of Japanese individuals as well as Japanese nation' (2001: 165).

If Inoue's attitude is representative, there seems to be a difference of view between Inoue's generation and the younger generation represented by the respondents here. Likewise, students on average 'disagree' that the importation of foreign ideas through learning English threatens Japanese culture – they seem to be tolerant not only of bilingualism but also biculturalism. Half of the students think that this tolerance is shared by Japanese society in general, disagreeing with the suggestion that Japan is xenophobic and views English as a threat to its national identity (overall mean response 2.59, significantly towards 'disagreeing'). However, nearly a third of students think that Japan *is* in this way xenophobic – this is a common enough view, and often discussed in connection with the well-known high degree of insularity (epitomized by the 260-year national isolation in the Edo Period) Japan displays.

Students who have spent time in English-speaking countries are somewhat less likely to think Japan xenophobic (0.27 difference in mean response, though this is not significant at the 5% level). This may be purely a matter of perception, or it may be that students who have spent time overseas actually tend to have social circles which *are* less xenophobic (they do, for example, tend to have parents who are more encouraging regarding English learning – 0.16 difference in mean response, again not significant at the 5% level).

Students' opinions are evenly divided regarding the adoption of English as an official second language for Japan: a third agree, a third are noncommittal, and a third disagree. This issue was suggested informally only relatively recently by the Japanese

government (see section 2.73) and is, as the figures suggest, currently controversial.

However, students apparently believe that English is appropriately their major foreign language, despite not being English majors – less than a fifth of students agree that the languages of neighbouring countries (e.g. Korean, Chinese) should be learned before English, while nearly half disagree. The implications of this – for example, that students are studying English as a means of international communication rather than the language of the USA or UK in particular – will be looked at further in the following section (5.24a). Students who have spent time in English-speaking countries are slightly less likely to think that neighbour languages should be given priority over English (0.20 difference in mean response, though this is not significant at the 5% level) – either because their time overseas reinforced to them the importance of English, or because students who originally consider English more important are more likely to travel to English-speaking countries, or both.

Over half of students agree that their parents encourage the learning of English – less than a fifth of students disagree. It seems that parents, people of the parents' generation, have generally recognized the importance of English proficiency. Students who have spent time in English-speaking countries are somewhat more likely to receive parental support in studying English (0.16 difference in mean response, though this is not significant at the 5% level) – it is usually parents who pay for overseas trips.

5.24a Responses classified by bearing on types of motivation

The questions in this section can be classified into five categories by the component of motivation they concern (see table 12, page 111). Findings will be examined according to these five categories.

Table 31: integrative motivation of students pre-university

Question N=150	No.	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q75 for communication with varied people in the world	150	4.13**	--	1.012	45.3	33.3	11.3	8.7	1.3
	E: 62	4.11**	-0.03	1.161	51.6	25.8	8.1	11.3	3.2
	N: 88	4.14**		0.899	40.9	38.6	13.6	6.8	0.0
Q76 for better understanding of English-speaking countries	150	3.96**	--	1.003	36.0	34.7	20.0	8.0	1.3
	E: 62	3.95**	-0.02	1.151	41.9	29.0	14.5	11.3	3.2
	N: 88	3.97**		0.890	31.8	38.6	23.9	5.7	0.0
Q78 for assimilation into English-speaking societies	150	2.93	--	1.235	14.2	16.9	29.1	27.0	12.8
	E: 62	2.94	0.02	1.226	16.1	14.5	24.2	37.1	8.1
	N: 88	2.92		1.248	12.8	18.6	32.6	19.8	16.3
Q85 to enjoy foreign culture	150	4.28**	--	0.860	48.7	36.7	8.7	6.0	0.0
	E: 62	4.10**	-0.31††	0.987	41.9	37.1	9.7	11.3	0.0
	N: 88	4.41**		0.737	53.4	36.4	8.0	2.3	0.0
Q95 to be a member of their own society	150	3.20*	--	1.229	15.5	31.1	20.9	23.0	9.5
	E: 62	3.13	-0.12	1.190	13.1	29.5	23.0	26.2	8.2
	N: 88	3.25*		1.260	17.2	32.2	19.5	20.7	10.3

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

The suggestion students most agreed with was that they learn English to enjoy foreign culture – for example, music, sports, and movies (mean 4.28). Students without experience overseas agreed more often and more strongly than students who had spent time in English-speaking countries (0.31 difference in mean response). Any number of reasons can be postulated for this – students with overseas experience might simply have other more pressing motivations (understanding people rather than enjoying culture, for example). Also, for students without experience overseas, foreign culture in the form of foreign movies and music (etc.) is almost certainly their main source of contact with English outside of the classroom/examinations system.

Next were the suggestions that students learn English to communicate with varied people in the world (mean 4.13), and better understand English-speaking countries (mean 3.96). It is interesting that the students are likely to be a little more interested in English learning for international communication (something that includes talking

about and explaining Japan and Japanese opinions) than understanding English-speaking countries.

Ranking lowest (roughly 'neutral') is the suggestion that students learn English in order to behave in similar ways to English-speaking people (mean 2.93). The concept of 'integrative motivation' (aimed towards integration or assimilation into the target society – see section 3.3) has little application in Japan, where there is little target language society immediately present.

That said, students display integrative motivation of a kind, seeking to (remain) well integrated within Japanese society (see section 1.41). Students agree slightly more often than not that they feel they would be left out or left behind by a group of their friends if they did not study English (mean 3.20, significant at the 5% but not 1% level). Even English learning involves their uniquely Japanese collectiveness.

Table 32: instrumental motivation of students pre-university

Question N=150	No.	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q 77 for the future job	150	3.94**	--	0.967	30.2	44.3	17.4	5.4	2.7
	E: 62	3.97**	0.05	0.940	29.0	50.0	11.3	8.1	1.6
	N: 88	3.92**		0.991	31.0	40.2	21.8	3.4	3.4
Q81 to study abroad	150	3.52**	--	1.262	28.7	26.7	18.7	20.0	6.0
	E: 62	3.63**	0.19	1.321	35.5	24.2	14.5	19.4	6.5
	N: 88	3.44**		1.221	23.9	28.4	21.6	20.5	5.7
Q82 to travel abroad	150	4.08**	--	0.909	36.7	40.7	16.7	5.3	0.7
	E: 62	4.15**	0.13	0.903	40.3	40.3	14.5	3.2	1.6
	N: 88	4.02**		0.897	34.1	40.9	18.2	6.8	0.0
Q83 to gain a high score in an English proficiency test	150	3.45**	--	1.150	19.3	32.7	28.7	12.0	7.3
	E: 62	3.55**	0.17	1.155	22.6	33.9	25.8	11.3	6.5
	N: 88	3.38**		1.148	17.0	31.8	30.7	12.5	8.0
Q90 for computers	150	3.52**	--	0.991	17.4	32.9	36.2	10.7	2.7
	E: 62	3.50**	-0.03	1.036	19.4	30.6	32.3	16.1	1.6
	N: 88	3.53**		0.963	16.1	34.5	39.1	6.9	3.4
Q91 to work overseas	150	3.29**	--	1.199	21.5	19.5	31.5	21.5	6.0
	E: 62	3.53**	0.41†	1.238	27.4	27.4	22.6	16.1	6.5
	N: 88	3.12		1.146	17.2	13.8	37.9	25.3	5.7
Q98 to express my own country more to the world	150	3.51**	--	0.970	15.4	36.9	32.9	12.8	2.0
	E: 62	3.40**	-0.19	0.983	12.9	35.5	32.3	17.7	1.6
	N: 88	3.59**		0.959	17.2	37.9	33.3	9.2	2.3

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Asked how strongly they agree with various statements suggesting instrumental motivations for learning English, mean responses for all questions were significantly closer to agreeing than disagreeing, indicating that students are generally well instrumentally motivated. Students agreed that they study English for overseas travel (mean 4.08), and for their future job (mean 3.94), followed by study abroad and computers (both mean 3.52), expressing Japan to the world (mean 3.51), and gaining a high score in an English proficiency test (mean 3.45).

The lowest mean response was to the suggestion that students learned English in order to work abroad (mean 3.29). The comparatively low score for this last suggests that for most students, working abroad is not something they consider likely to be in

their immediate future. However, this was also the question which showed the biggest difference of mean score between students who have travelled overseas to English-speaking countries and those who have not (0.41, significant at the 5% but not the 1% level). After visiting English-speaking countries, working overseas must seem to a more realistic possibility.

Other questions showed little difference in mean response depending on experience of overseas travel (no significant differences at the 5% level).

Table 33: intrinsic motivation of students pre-university

Question. N=150	N	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q79 to enhance own identity	150	3.34**	--	0.961	10.7	34.0	36.7	16.0	2.7
	E: 62	3.24**	-0.17	0.987	11.3	27.4	37.1	22.6	1.6
	N: 88	3.41**		0.942	10.2	38.6	36.4	11.4	3.4
Q86 to make it easier to learn other language	150	3.60**	--	0.920	15.3	42.0	32.0	8.72	2.0
	E: 62	3.65**	0.08	0.943	17.7	43.5	24.2	14.5	0.0
	N: 88	3.57**		0.907	13.6	40.9	37.5	4.5	3.4
Q87 admiration for fluent Japanese speaker of English	150	4.48**	--	0.920	65.8	24.8	3.4	3.4	2.7
	E: 62	4.40**	-0.13	0.983	61.3	29.0	1.6	4.8	3.2
	N: 88	4.53**		0.874	69.0	21.8	4.6	2.3	2.3
Q93 to understand their own language more	150	2.76**	--	1.095	6.7	16.1	37.6	25.5	14.1
	E: 62	2.79**	0.05	1.118	8.1	16.1	35.5	27.4	12.9
	N: 88	2.74**		1.083	5.7	16.1	39.1	24.1	14.9
Q94 To experience a 'high' feeling in speaking English	150	3.56**	--	1.254	28.9	27.5	21.5	14.8	7.4
	E: 62	3.53**	-0.04	1.445	37.1	21.0	11.3	19.4	11.3
	N: 88	3.58**		1.106	23.0	32.2	28.7	11.5	4.6
Q97 For the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English	150	2.12**	--	1.060	3.4	5.4	25.7	30.4	35.1
	E: 62	2.19**	0.14	1.084	4.8	4.8	25.8	33.9	30.6
	N: 88	2.06**		1.044	2.3	5.8	25.6	27.9	38.4

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Over 90% of students agree (or strongly agree) that they admire the fluent Japanese speaker of English (mean response 4.48). English is still exclusive to a fairly small number of people in Japan – and carries a certain mystique as a result. Similarly, illustrating their strong desire to speak English, students agree that they experience a

‘high’ feeling while speaking in English (mean response 3.56).

They also agree that they study English to make it easier to learn other languages (mean response 3.60). While this may represent an interest in further European languages, it is probably linked more to the recent popularity of Chinese – as a language for business, rather than as a neighbouring language. Finally, they agree that they study English to enhance their own identity (mean response 3.34) – essentially, this is *kokusaika* (see section 2.73), one of the government-endorsed aims of English-language education in Japan.

On the other hand, students disagree that they learn English for the enjoyment of grasping a difficult construct in English (mean response 2.12). Indeed, the learning of grammar was not significantly correlated with enjoyment of classes (see table 22, page 131), and besides, as students enter university they are expecting to receive classes focussed on communication and culture rather than grammar. They also disagree that they study English to better understand their own language (mean response 2.76) – perhaps because students think the two languages are significantly different (recall the linguistic distance result in table 29 above).

In terms of differences between students who have experience overseas and those who do not, while there are some small differences in mean responses, none are significant at the 5% level.

Table 34: extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation towards personal values) of students pre-university

Question N=150	N	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q80 for convenience in daily life	150	3.75**	--	0.964	21.3	45.3	22.0	9.3	2.0
	E: 62	3.69**	-0.09	1.018	22.6	38.7	27.4	8.1	3.2
	N: 88	3.78**		0.928	20.5	50.0	18.2	10.2	1.1
Q84 to widen horizons	150	4.17**	--	0.893	42.0	39.3	12.7	5.3	0.7
	E: 62	4.10**	-0.12	1.036	46.8	25.8	19.4	6.5	1.6
	N: 88	4.22**		0.780	38.6	48.9	8.0	4.5	0.0
Q88 as an international language	150	4.28**	--	0.787	43.6	45.0	6.7	4.7	0.0
	E: 62	4.16**	-0.20	0.872	38.7	46.8	6.5	8.1	0.0
	N: 88	4.36**		0.715	47.1	43.7	6.9	2.3	0.0
Q89 for personal development	150	4.02**	--	0.874	30.9	47.7	14.8	6.0	0.7
	E: 62	3.98**	-0.06	0.820	27.4	48.4	19.4	4.8	0.0
	N: 88	4.05**		0.914	33.3	47.1	11.5	6.9	1.1

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Asked how strongly they agree with various statements suggesting extrinsic motivations for learning English, mean responses for all questions were significantly closer to agreeing than disagreeing, indicating that students are generally well extrinsically motivated. The highest mean response was to 'English as an international language' (mean response 4.28), supporting the finding above (under 'integrative motivation', table 31 on page 147) that students learn English to understand a variety of foreign cultures and people (i.e., as an international language) rather than to understand exclusively English-speaking cultures and people. Students no doubt feel considerable pressure to learn English for international communication, with 'globalization' and 'internationalization' commonly heard slogans in Japan.

The next highest mean response was to 'to widen my horizons' (mean response 4.17), which accords well with 'as an international language' – that is, being 'international' is to have wider horizons. This was followed by 'for personal development'

(mean response 4.02) and 'for convenience in daily life' (mean response 3.75), this last probably resulting from the fact that English words (or, often, words simply assumed to be English) often appear on labels and signs around the larger Japanese cities.

In general, the high mean responses for extrinsic motivation serve to reiterate that students are highly motivated to learn English.

Table 35: amotivation of students pre-university

Question	N	Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q92 cannot see the reason to study English	150	2.00**	--	1.027	3.4	5.4	16.1	38.3	36.9
	E: 62	2.02**	0.03	1.048	3.2	6.5	16.1	37.1	37.1
	N: 88	1.99**		1.017	3.4	4.6	16.1	39.1	36.8
Q96 wasting time	150	1.77**	--	0.954	1.3	4.0	16.1	26.8	51.7
	E: 62	1.89**	0.21	1.057	3.2	4.8	16.1	29.0	46.8
	N: 88	1.68**		0.869	0.0	3.4	16.1	25.3	55.2

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

It is quite commonly believed that Japanese students, living in a complete EFL situation and apparently educated solely for and motivated solely by examinations, consider English irrelevant and generally a waste of time. However, asked how strongly they agree with two statements suggesting amotivation for learning English, mean responses for both questions were around 'disagree' – indicating that students are not amotivated. Seventy-eight percent think it is worth doing and seventy-five percent are aware of the reason for learning English, with most of the remainder neutral towards the suggestions rather than agreeing.

5.25 Open question – other reasons for learning English

Only six students wrote answers to the open question asking 'other personal reason(s) for learning English' at the end of the questionnaire. All six responses are very particular and personal:

1) English proficiency is required to earn a chance to play in America; I play basketball and to play in U.S. is my dream.

2) In business deals, it is our responsibility as a seller to use English to foreign dealers even in Japan.

3) To learn British politics, as a progressive example, as I have a dream to be a politician.

4) I do not want to be isolated from my family members.

5) Through middle and high school they just had us memorizing grammatical constructions, so now at university I want to learn English that I can actually use as I live my life.

6) To remove a barrier between my American friend and me.

Comments (1) to (3) can be considered as explanations of agreement with Q77 'for the future job' and Q91 'to work overseas' in instrumental motivation (see table 32, page 149). Comment (4) is likewise considered an explanation of agreement with Q95 'to be a member of their own society' in integrative motivation (see table 31, page 147). Comment (5) is most credibly an example of instrumental motivation, though this depends on the details of the life the student is visualizing. Comment (6) is an example of integrative motivation, close to Q75 (communication with varied people) or even Q78 (assimilation into English-speaking society).

It is encouraging that only six students made responses to the open question, as it presumably means that the preliminary study (see section 4.51) was successful and the vast majority of possible reasons for studying English were covered in the other questions. Indeed, even the six written comments can be viewed (as above) as covered by the other questions – students have used the open question to further explain or personalize their answers.

5.3 Presentation of findings—Second Questionnaire (at university)

5.31 Personal information

The basic personal information including gender, age, and experience of visiting

English-speaking countries has already been acquired by the first questionnaire. Only experience of going to English-speaking countries during their first year is asked after here. University students are generally thought to travel a lot (certainly more than they ever did at high school) after getting rid of the pressure of studying for the entrance examination.

However, the results here were unexpected – they remain exactly as they were at the start of the university year (see table 18, page 125). In fact only 9 students (of the 150) visited English-speaking countries during their first year, and for all of these 9 students, it was not their first such trip (hence the unchanged table). The duration of their stays were very short: 3 students stayed less than a week, 5 of them stayed between 1-2 weeks and only one student stayed between three weeks and one month. Destinations were the U.S. (7 students), the U.K. (2), Hong Kong (1), Australia (1), Malaysia (1) and Singapore (1). The total number exceeds the number of students (9) as some of the students visited more than one destination. The choice of destination seems to be unchanged from the first questionnaire, with the U.S. at the top.

So, even though travel to some English-speaking countries is now relatively cheap and quick, relatively few students went abroad. One possible reason is that the prolonged recession of the Japanese economy makes it difficult to pay for a foreign trip. Also, the high percentage of students who had been to English-speaking countries before university (41%, 62 students) suggests that students who are interested in travelling to English-speaking countries had already been there. Therefore, 9 students made repeat trips, and no students made first-time trips.

5.32 Question 6, 7: experience at university; contrast with expectations (question 2)

For each question, two answers are collected; (a) how much of that certain type of English teaching students received in their first university year, and (b) whether that met their expectation or not.

Table 36: experience at university and degree of fit with expectations

Question N=150		Mean	Std Dev	**Responses**: (a) Very much – Very little/None (%) (b) More than expected – Less than expected (%)				
				5	4	3	2	1
Q6	a: Learning grammar	2.51**	1.011	4.0	10.1	34.9	34.9	16.1
	b: meeting expectation	2.75**	0.939	4.1	13.5	44.6	29.1	8.8
Q7	a: Learning listening	2.62**	0.994	2.0	19.3	29.3	37.3	12.0
	b: meeting expectation	2.69**	0.936	1.3	18.8	37.6	32.2	10.1
Q8	a: Learning speaking	2.35**	1.068	2.7	12.0	28.0	32.0	25.3
	b: meeting expectation	2.42**	0.994	3.4	7.4	36.9	32.9	19.5
Q9	a: Learning reading	3.64**	0.870	18.1	36.2	37.6	8.1	0.0
	b: meeting expectation	3.13	0.917	8.1	21.5	49.0	18.1	3.4
Q10	a: Learning writing	2.52**	1.097	4.0	16.0	27.3	33.3	19.3
	b: meeting expectation	2.55**	0.919	2.0	10.1	42.3	32.2	13.4
Q11	a: Group study	1.95**	1.079	2.0	8.7	17.3	26.0	46.0
	b: meeting expectation	2.20**	0.956	0.0	6.0	38.9	23.5	31.5
Q12	a: Rote learning	2.37**	1.206	6.7	11.3	23.3	29.3	29.3
	b: meeting expectation	2.70**	1.066	6.8	12.2	39.2	28.4	13.5
Q13	a: Creative work	2.35**	1.003	0.0	14.7	29.3	32.0	24.0
	b: meeting expectation	2.41**	0.952	0.0	11.4	39.6	27.5	21.5
Q14	a: Learning culture	3.16	1.121	10.1	33.6	26.8	21.5	8.1
	b: meeting expectation	3.20*	1.151	12.1	32.9	26.8	19.5	8.7
Q15	a: Contact with Native teachers and students	2.59**	1.233	6.0	18.0	32.0	16.7	27.3
	b: meeting expectation	2.56**	1.259	6.7	17.4	29.5	17.4	28.9
Q16	a: Enjoyment from classes	3.24**	0.902	8.0	30.0	41.3	19.3	1.3
	b: meeting expectation	3.17*	0.985	8.7	28.9	36.9	22.1	3.4

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students received significantly closer to 'a little' than 'a lot' of teaching in most areas: group study (mean response 1.95), creative work (mean response 2.35), speaking (mean response 2.35), rote learning (mean response 2.37), grammar (mean response 2.51), writing (mean response 2.52), contact with native speakers (mean response 2.59), listening (mean response 2.62). They received an 'average' amount of teaching in culture (mean response 3.16, no difference from 3 at the 5% level of significance), and significantly closer to 'a lot' than 'a little' enjoyment from class (mean response 3.24) and teaching of reading (3.64). Overall, then, students received comparatively little teaching,

except in reading and culture; but they tended to enjoy the classes.

How this compared with their expectations generally followed the amount of teaching they received in that area – that is, they expected more teaching in all areas except culture and reading, and enjoyed classes somewhat more than expected.

These figures are fairly easily explicable in terms of the usual content of 'General English' university classes, which are mainly reading classes taught by Japanese English teachers (the researcher being one such), often using materials with some cultural component. The teaching of more communicative skills, such as speaking and listening, and more student-oriented learning, such as group study and creative work, is less common, in large part because the majority of teachers are Japanese. Though this varies with the university, smaller and more communicative classes (usually taught by native English speakers) are usually optional and accept only limited numbers of students in any year.

The frequency of these classes is also highly relevant – one or two classes of 90 minutes a week (depending on the university) throughout the academic year. Students expected more teaching in nearly every area, but the relatively small amount of class time available places unavoidable limits on this.

Table 37: students' perception of what was achieved during first year (at university)

Question N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q17 Ability to read references	2.39**	0.954	2.7	8.7	30.0	42.0	16.7
Q18 Ability to write essays	2.03**	0.862	1.3	2.0	24.7	42.7	29.3
Q19 Ability to give presentation	2.09**	0.929	2.0	4.0	23.5	41.6	28.9
Q20 Ability to study abroad	2.05**	0.929	2.0	4.0	21.3	42.0	30.7
Q21 Ability to communicate fluently in English	2.24**	0.988	2.7	8.0	23.3	42.7	23.3
Q22 A good knowledge of English grammar and structure	2.52**	0.995	2.7	15.3	26.7	42.0	13.3
Q23 Capacity of using English in a future job	2.08**	0.938	2.0	5.3	20.0	44.0	28.7
Q24 A good knowledge of English-speaking cultures and people	3.15	1.167	14.1	26.8	26.8	24.8	7.4

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Not too surprisingly, given that they received little teaching (and less than expected) in all of these areas except reading and culture (table 36 above), students tend to disagree with various statements suggesting that they have acquired certain skills or knowledge. The only area they are positive about (though with no significance at the 5% level) is knowledge of English-speaking cultures and people; otherwise, they are slightly less negative about grammar (mean response 2.52) and reading (mean response 2.39) than the other areas. Again, it must be difficult for students to make substantial progress given the relatively low number of classes in the year.

Table 38: comparison of expectation and accomplishment (at university)

Question N=150		Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q47	read references for major	3.46 **	−1.07††	1.127	17.3	40	18.7	19.3	4.7
Q17		2.39**		0.954	2.7	8.7	30	42	16.7
Q48	write essays for major	3.13	−1.10††	1.23	12	36	16	25.3	10.7
Q18		2.03**		0.862	1.3	2	24.7	42.7	29.3
Q49	make presentations	3.13	−1.04††	1.18	13.3	28.7	24	26	8
Q19		2.09**		0.929	2	4	23.5	41.6	28.9
Q50	study abroad	3.47 **	−1.42††	1.211	25.5	26.8	20.8	22.8	4
Q20		2.05**		0.929	2	4	21.3	42	30.7
Q51	communicate in English	3.79 **	−1.55††	1.16	33.3	34	15.3	13.3	4
Q21		2.24**		0.988	2.7	8	23.3	42.7	23.3
Q52	good knowledge of grammar	2.86	−0.34††	1.049	6	19.3	40.7	22.7	11.3
Q22		2.52**		0.995	2.7	15.3	26.7	42	13.3
Q53	use English in future job	3.63 **	−1.55††	1.167	24.7	38.7	18.7	11.3	6.7
Q23		2.08**		0.938	2	5.3	20	44	28.7
Q54	cultural knowledge	3.45 **	−0.30†	1.065	18	30.7	33.3	14	4
Q24		3.15		1.167	14.1	26.8	26.8	24.8	7.4

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

The table shows a substantial gap between what the students expected to acquire in terms of various English-related skills (Q47-54) and what they think they have actually acquired during the year (Q17-24). Their expectations were generally high at the beginning of the first year (with the exception of not having any strong general expectation of gaining a good knowledge of English grammar and structure, or the ability to write essays and give presentations for their major). However, mean responses for attainment were all low (with the exception of Q24, cultural learning).

All of these drops in mean response from expectation to actual perceived accomplishment represent disappointment on the part of students. The greatest disappointments, then, were regarding the lack of advance in ability to communicate in English and use English in a future job (drop in mean responses 1.55), followed by the

ability to study abroad (drop in mean response 1.42), write essays (drop in mean response 1.10) and read references (drop in mean response 1.07). Students are not significantly more confident of their communicative ability, that is, skill in using practical English, such as in studying abroad or for a job, after a year of English instruction. This is partially because the English lessons are not designed well for these purposes (see table 36, page 156).

Again, the least disappointing area was in cultural knowledge – the comparatively small drop in mean response of 0.3 (significant at the 5% but not 1% level) reflecting the fact that they actually received more teaching in this area that they had expected (also on table 36 on page 156), though still apparently making somewhat less advance than they had expected.

Table 39: students' perception of themselves as learners (at university)

Question N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q25 made little progress in English	3.45**	1.090	18.0	34.0	27.3	16.7	4.0
Q26 wasn't expecting anything – studied just for credit	2.31**	1.171	7.3	6.7	24.7	32.7	28.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students tend to agree that they have not made much progress in English (mean response 3.45). However, they tend to disagree that they had no expectations and studied just for credit (mean response 2.31).

Table 40: expectations vs. outcome for results of studying English at university

Question N=150		Mean	Diff. in mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q55	expected [/actually made] little progress	2.72**	0.73††	1.025	3.3	21.3	30	34.7	10.7
Q25		3.45**		1.09	18	34	27.3	16.7	4
Q56	no expectation – studying [/studied] just for credit	1.87**	0.44††	0.95	1.3	4	19.3	31.3	44
Q26		2.31**		1.171	7.3	6.7	24.7	32.7	28.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students generally expected to make progress during their year at university, but after studying for a year, considered that they had in fact made little progress (mean response 3.45). This confirms the results shown in table 38 above, which showed that students were disappointed in their progress in a number of English-related skills.

The percentage of the students who agree that they learned English only for credit is now 14%, as compared to 5.3% at the beginning of the year. However, while there is hereby a sign that some students have lost enthusiasm for classes (perhaps in response to their disappointment at the contents and their own progress), the mean response is still closer to disagreeing than even neutrality – the majority of students did not learn English only for credit, but with some other expectation.

The significant increases in mean responses here indicate however that students are not generally satisfied with university English classes.

5.33 Question 8: students' attitudes and motivation as they finish their first year at university

The result of question 27 to 31 asked to what extent students study English, or have contact with English, outside the classroom.

Table 41: English study outside of school (at university)

Question No. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Very often – Never (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q27 reading English materials	1.89**	0.984	1.3	6.7	15.3	33.3	43.3
Q28 writing things in English	1.41**	0.812	1.3	2.0	6.7	16.0	74.0
Q29 learning through TV or radio	1.59**	0.956	2.0	4.7	7.3	22.7	63.3
Q30 learning at private language school	1.27**	0.791	0.7	4.7	3.3	3.3	88.0
Q31 try to grasp opportunity to use English	2.05**	1.152	4.7	8.7	14.7	31.3	40.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

For each question, between 72% and 91% of students replied that they 'seldom' or 'never' have that kind of extracurricular contact with English, with mean responses all accordingly low. University students do not have, and generally do not try to have, much contact with English outside the classroom.

Table 42: English study outside of school (before university versus at university)

Question N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Very often – Never (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q57	reading English materials	1.67**	0.93	0.22 ††	0	5.3	16	19.3	59.3
Q27		1.89**	0.984		1.3	6.7	15.3	33.3	43.3
Q58	writing things in English	1.24**	0.652	0.17	0.7	1.3	4	9.3	84.7
Q28		1.41**	0.812		1.3	2	6.7	16	74
Q59	learning through TV or radio	1.53**	0.895	0.06	0.7	4.7	9.3	18	67.3
Q29		1.59**	0.956		2	4.7	7.3	22.7	63.3
Q60	learning at private language school	1.22**	0.694	0.05	1.3	0.7	5.3	4	88.7
Q30		1.27**	0.791		0.7	4.7	3.3	3.3	88
Q61	try to grasp opportunity to use English	1.90**	1.208	0.15	5.3	8	12	20.7	54
Q31		2.05**	1.152		4.7	8.7	14.7	31.3	40.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

The frequency of extracurricular involvement with English has increased in all areas,

though the only increase significant at the 5% level is for reading English materials.

Although the university students generally have much more free time than they would have had in high school while preparing for university entrance examinations, and they have recognised the importance of acquiring English for practical use, they apparently still devote little time to learning English outside the classroom.

Table 43: students' perception of themselves as learners (at university)

Question N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Completely disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q32 confident of reaching target level of proficiency	2.55**	1.027	4.0	13.3	31.3	36.7	14.7
Q33 easily distracted when learning English	2.66**	1.098	5.3	18.7	26.7	35.3	14.0
Q34 relaxed and confident in English class	3.27**	0.911	8.7	30.7	42.0	16.7	2.0
Q35 anxious when speaking English with foreigners	3.57**	1.308	32.0	26.7	14.0	20.7	6.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students are generally not confident of acquiring the level of English proficiency which they hope for (mean response 2.55). Students are however not particularly easily distracted while studying English (mean response 2.66) and they feel relatively relaxed and confident in English class (mean response 3.27). However, they are not comfortable communicating with foreigners in English (mean response 3.57).

Table 44: students' perception of themselves as learners (before vs. at university)

Question N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: High – Low (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q62	confident of reaching target level of proficiency	2.73**	0.895	-0.18	2.7	16	39.3	36	6
Q32		2.55**	1.027		4	13.3	31.3	36.7	14.7
Q63	easily distracted when learning English	2.87	1.070	-0.21	4.7	26	32.7	25.3	11.3
Q33		2.66**	1.098		5.3	18.7	26.7	35.3	14
Q64	relaxed and confident in English class	2.82*	0.977	0.45 ††	4	20.7	36	32	7.3
Q34		3.27**	0.911		8.7	30.7	42	16.7	2
Q65	anxious when speaking English with foreigners	3.86**	1.193	-0.29 †	36.0	36.7	10.7	10.7	6.0
Q35		3.57**	1.308		32.0	26.7	14.0	20.7	6.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

After a year of university English classes, students are slightly less confident that they can reach their target level of proficiency (drop in mean response 0.18, not significant at the 5% level). This is presumably connected to the overall disappointment with the amount of teaching and progress involved in university English (see for example tables 36 and 37 on pages 156-158). They are however even less easily distracted while studying English (drop in mean response 0.21, not significant at the 5% level). They are also significantly more relaxed and confident in English class (gain in mean response 0.45), a change which is probably linked more to realizing that they are no less well prepared for university classes than their classmates from different high schools than to any improvement in English ability. They are also somewhat less anxious when speaking to foreigners in English (drop in mean response 0.29, significant at the 5% but not 1% level).

Less anxious does not mean comfortable, however – students are still generally anxious. This is presumably largely a result of having little chance to speak with

foreigners – contact with English native speakers at high school is usually limited to one native English-speaking teacher visiting a class of 40 to 50 students once a week or month, such that normal conversation is impossible; and the situation at university is often little better. Further, while over 40% of the students have been abroad, many such trips do not necessarily involve much contact with local people. Summer language courses at overseas universities (mainly U.S.A., U.K. and Australia) are usually no more than a school excursion where a group of Japanese people with a Japanese guide move together on campus.

Table 45: reasons for difficulties in learning English (at university)

Question No. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q36 difficult due to language distance	3.04	1.209	12.0	28.0	22.7	26.7	10.7
Q37 difficult due to geographic distance	2.83	1.169	7.3	26.7	19.3	34.7	12.0
Q38 difficult dues to cultural distance	2.66**	1.083	5.4	18.1	26.2	37.6	12.8

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students are generally neutral about whether linguistic distance and geographical distance make English learning difficult for Japanese learners, but think that cultural distance is not a problem (mean response 2.66).

Table 46: reasons for difficulties in learning English (before versus at university)

Question No. N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q66	difficult due to language distance	3.37**	1.059	-0.33 †	12.0	42.7	18.7	24.0	2.7
Q36		3.04	1.209		12.0	28.0	22.7	26.7	10.7
Q67	difficult due to geographic distance	2.75**	1.165	0.08	8.0	21.3	20.7	37.3	12.7
Q37		2.83	1.169		7.3	26.7	19.3	34.7	12.0
Q68	difficult dues to cultural distance	2.77*	1.142	-0.12	7.3	22.7	21.3	37.3	11.3
Q38		2.66**	1.083		5.4	18.1	26.2	37.6	12.8

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

After a year of university English, students identify language distance as less of a problem (drop in mean response of 0.33, significant at the 5% but not 1% level). There is some similar change regarding cultural distance (not significant at the 5% level), perhaps as a result of the cultural study.

Table 47: students' perception of the status of English in Japanese society (at university)

Question No. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q39 English proficiency regarded as negative to Japanese society	1.93**	1.081	1.3	8.7	20.7	20.0	49.3
Q40 threat of importation of Western ideas through English	1.92**	1.057	2.7	7.5	12.9	32.7	44.2
Q41 English is hostile in xenophobic Japan	2.51**	1.145	4.0	19.3	21.3	34.0	21.3
Q42 possible adoption as a second language	2.85	1.294	12.7	19.3	27.3	21.3	19.3
Q43 priority of neighbour languages to English	2.45**	1.046	3.3	11.3	32.7	32.0	20.7
Q44 parental encouragement	3.54**	1.217	26.2	29.5	22.8	14.8	6.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Students do not generally think that English language proficiency is seen as a sign of a

negative attitude to Japanese society, or that Western ideas (through English) are a threat to Japanese society (mean responses 1.92-3).

Table 48: students' perception of the status of English (before vs. at university)

Test	Q.N0. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q69	English proficiency regarded as negative to Japanese society	2.19**	1.133	-0.27 †	2.7	11.3	25.3	24.0	36.7
Q39		1.93**	1.081		1.3	8.7	20.7	20.0	49.3
Q70	threat of importation of Western ideas through English	1.97**	1.077	-0.05	3.3	8.7	10.0	37.3	40.7
Q40		1.92**	1.057		2.7	7.5	12.9	32.7	44.2
Q71	English is hostile in xenophobic Japan	2.59**	1.232	-0.09	6.0	22.7	18.7	30.0	22.7
Q41		2.51**	1.145		4.0	19.3	21.3	34.0	21.3
Q72	possible adoption as a second language	2.90	1.225	-0.05	8.7	24.7	34.0	13.3	19.3
Q42		2.85	1.294		12.7	19.3	27.3	21.3	19.3
Q73	priority of neighbour languages to English	2.55**	1.108	-0.11	4.7	14.0	34.0	26.7	20.7
Q43		2.45**	1.046		3.3	11.3	32.7	32.0	20.7
Q74	parental encouragement	3.47**	1.174	0.06	22.0	30.0	28.7	12.0	7.3
Q44		3.54**	1.217		26.2	29.5	22.8	14.8	6.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

There are some small changes during the first year of university, generally in a direction favourable to English or the perception of the status of English in Japan. The only larger change (significant at the 5% level but not the 1% level) is towards thinking that proficiency in English is not generally considered a sign of a negative attitude to Japan.

5.33a Responses classified as bearing on types of motivation

Students responses as given at the end of their first year are here shown classified according to the type of motivation they concern.

Table 49: integrative motivation of students (at university)

Question No. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q45 for communication with varied people in the world	4.13**	0.974	42.7	37.3	13.3	4.0	2.7
Q46 for better understanding of English-speaking countries	4.06**	0.991	40.7	34.0	18.0	5.3	2.0
Q48 for assimilation into English-speaking societies	2.74*	1.291	11.4	17.4	26.2	23.5	21.5
Q55 to enjoy foreign culture	4.21**	0.959	47.3	36.0	9.3	5.3	2.0
Q65 to be a member of their own society	3.07	1.208	13.3	25.3	26.7	24.0	10.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Asked to what extent they agree with a range of statements suggesting they are integratively motivated to learn English, students agreed most that they learned English ‘to enjoy foreign culture’ (mean response 4.21), followed by ‘to communicate with varied people in the world’ (mean response 4.13) and ‘for better understanding of English-speaking countries (mean response 4.06). On the other hand, students tended to disagree (significant at the 5% but not 1% level) that they learn English in order to be assimilated into English-speaking countries (mean response 2.74), and be neutral about the idea they learn English to keep in (or keep up) with their circle of friends (mean response 3.07).

Table 50: integrative motivation of students (pre-university versus at university)

Question No. N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q75	for communication with varied people in the world	4.13**	1.012	0.00	45.3	33.3	11.3	8.7	1.3
Q45		4.13**	0.974		42.7	37.3	13.3	4	2.7
Q76	for better understanding of English-speaking countries	3.96**	1.003	0.10	36	34.7	20	8	1.3
Q46		4.06**	0.991		40.7	34	18	5.3	2
Q78	for assimilation into English-speaking societies	2.93	1.235	-0.19	14.2	16.9	29.1	27	12.8
Q48		2.74*	1.291		11.4	17.4	26.2	23.5	21.5
Q85	to enjoy foreign culture	4.28**	0.86	-0.07	48.7	36.7	8.7	6	0
Q55		4.21**	0.959		47.3	36	9.3	5.3	2
Q95	to be a member of their own society	3.20*	1.229	-0.13	15.5	31.1	20.9	23	9.5
Q65		3.07	1.208		13.3	25.3	26.7	24	10.7

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

None of the changes in mean response after the first year of university are significant at the 5% level. The slight changes which are noticeable include a drop in mean response to ‘for assimilation into English-speaking societies’ of 0.19 (perhaps because students generally see English more as a language of international communication than the language of English-speaking countries in particular) and a drop in mean response to ‘to be a member of their own society’ of 0.13 (perhaps because students come into contact with a wider range of people, lifestyles, goals, and interests at university).

Table 51: instrumental motivation of students (at university)

Question No.	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q47 for the future job	3.93**	0.970	28.0	49.3	12.7	7.3	2.7
Q51 to study abroad	3.60**	1.264	32.7	21.3	27.3	10.7	8.0
Q52 to travel abroad	4.02**	1.075	40.9	34.2	14.1	7.4	3.4
Q53 to gain a high score in an English proficiency test	3.52**	1.175	23.0	31.8	27.0	10.8	7.4
Q60 for computer	3.50**	0.977	14.8	37.6	32.9	12.1	2.7
Q61 to work overseas	3.03	1.307	18.8	14.1	34.9	16.1	16.1
Q68 to express my own country more to the world	3.65**	1.081	24.0	34.7	29.3	6.7	5.3

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Asked to what extent they agree with a range of statements suggesting they are instrumentally motivated to learn English, students agreed most that they learned English 'to travel abroad' (mean response 4.02), followed by 'for the future job' (mean response 3.93), and 'to express my own country more to the world' (mean response 3.65), 'to study abroad' (mean response 3.60), 'to gain a high score in English proficiency tests' (mean response 3.52), and 'for computers' (mean response 3.50). The only statement which students did not tend to agree to significantly was 'to work overseas' (mean response 3.03).

Table 52: instrumental motivation of students (pre-university versus at university)

Question No. N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q77	for the future job	3.94**	0.967	-0.01	30.2	44.3	17.4	5.4	2.7
Q47		3.93**	0.970		28	49.3	12.7	7.3	2.7
Q81	to study abroad	3.52**	1.262	0.08	28.7	26.7	18.7	20	6
Q51		3.60**	1.264		32.7	21.3	27.3	10.7	8
Q82	to travel abroad	4.08**	0.909	-0.06	36.7	40.7	16.7	5.3	0.7
Q52		4.02**	1.075		40.9	34.2	14.1	7.4	3.4
Q83	to gain a high score in an English proficiency test	3.45**	1.150	0.07	19.3	32.7	28.7	12	7.3
Q53		3.52**	1.175		23	31.8	27	10.8	7.4
Q90	for computer	3.52**	0.991	-0.02	17.4	32.9	36.2	10.7	2.7
Q60		3.50**	0.977		14.8	37.6	32.9	12.1	2.7
Q91	to work overseas	3.29**	1.199	-0.26	21.5	19.5	31.5	21.5	6
Q61		3.03	1.307		18.8	14.1	34.9	16.1	16.1
Q98	to express my own country more to the world	3.51**	0.970	0.14	15.4	36.9	32.9	12.8	2
Q68		3.65**	1.081		24	34.7	29.3	6.7	5.3

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

None of the changes in mean response after the first year of university are significant at the 5% level. The slight changes which are noticeable include a drop of 0.26 in mean response to ‘to work overseas’ (perhaps students now consider this less of a realistic possibility), and a gain of 0.14 in mean response to ‘to express my own country more to the world’ (perhaps because, after studying foreign culture during the year, students are more aware of the differences between foreign and Japanese culture and the interest and importance of explaining or discussing these differences).

Table 53: intrinsic motivation of students (at university)

Question No. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q49 to enhance own identity	3.49**	1.022	16.0	36.0	34.0	9.3	4.7
Q56 to make it easier to learn other languages	3.73**	0.992	24.2	36.9	28.2	8.7	2.0
Q57 admiration for fluent Japanese speaker of English	4.36**	0.978	58.7	29.3	4.0	5.3	2.7
Q63 to understand their own language more	2.94	1.098	8.7	22.8	30.2	30.2	8.1
Q64 to experience a 'high' feeling in speaking English	3.61**	1.272	38.9	28.9	18.8	13.4	8.1
Q67 for the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English	2.51**	1.094	3.4	16.8	27.5	32.2	20.1

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

The majority of the students admire the fluent Japanese speaker of English (mean response 4.36, the highest response to a motivation-variable question). This is followed by 'to make it easier to learn other languages' (mean response 3.73, perhaps in part because it is compulsory to learn another foreign language in the first year of university – common choices being French, German, and Spanish, with Chinese recently popular), and 'to experience a "high" feeling in speaking English' (mean response 3.61, perhaps a result of the students' generally high degree of admiration for Japanese who speak fluent English), and lastly 'to enhance own identity' as a Japanese person in the modern world by understanding foreign ideas through English (mean response 3.49).

Students were overall neutral towards the suggestion that they were motivated to learn English 'to understand their own language more', but disagreed that they studied English 'for the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English' (mean response 2.51, reminding us that they received a lot of grammar and structure focussed English teaching in high school and didn't particularly enjoy it).

Table 54: intrinsic motivation of students (pre-university versus at university)

Question No. N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q79	to enhance own identity	3.34	0.961	0.15	10.7	34	36.7	16	2.7
Q49		3.49**	1.022		16	36	34	9.3	4.7
Q86	to make it easier to learn other languages	3.60**	0.920	0.13	15.3	42	32	8.7	2
Q56		3.73**	0.992		24.2	36.9	28.2	8.7	2
Q87	admiration for fluent Japanese speaker of English	4.48**	0.920	-0.12	65.8	24.8	3.4	3.4	2.7
Q57		4.36**	0.978		58.7	29.3	4	5.3	2.7
Q93	to understand their own language more	2.76**	1.095	0.18	6.7	16.1	37.6	25.5	14.1
Q63		2.94	1.098		8.7	22.8	30.2	30.2	8.1
Q94	to experience a 'high' feeling in speaking English	3.56**	1.254	0.05	28.9	27.5	21.5	14.8	7.4
Q64		3.61**	1.272		38.9	28.9	18.8	13.4	8.1
Q97	for the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English	2.12**	1.060	0.40 ††	3.4	5.4	25.7	30.4	35.1
Q67		2.51**	1.094		3.4	16.8	27.5	32.2	20.1

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Only one of the changes in mean response after the first year of university is significant at the 5% level: agreement with 'I learn English for the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English' is up 0.40 to a mean response of 2.51, though this is still significantly closer to 'disagree' than to 'agree'. This change is unexpected because students generally received a lot of grammar teaching and were looking forward to concentrating on more communicative and creative aspects. Actual university classes, however, concentrated on reading (on cultural topics) rather than explicitly on grammar, which although offering ample opportunity for students to learn 'grammatical constructs', was perhaps significantly different or more interesting than the straightforward grammar study common at high school.

Table 55: extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation towards personal values) of students (at university)

Question No. N=150	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q50 For the convenience of daily life	3.81**	1.028	26.0	44.7	16.0	10.7	2.7
Q54 To widen horizons	4.18**	0.839	37.6	49.7	7.4	4.0	1.3
Q58 an international language	4.13**	0.960	44.0	33.3	16.0	5.3	1.3
Q59 For personal development	4.01**	0.959	36.2	36.9	20.8	4.0	2.0

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Asked the extent to which they agree or disagree with a series of statements stating 'I learn English for …' together with some reason suggesting extrinsic motivation, students generally agreed. Students learn English because they believe it will widen their horizons (mean response 4.18), is important as an international language (mean response 4.13) and for their personal development (mean response 4.01), and lastly, important for convenience in daily life (mean response 3.81).

Table 56: extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation towards personal values) of students (pre-university versus at university)

Question No. N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q80	For the convenience of daily life	3.75**	0.964	0.06	21.3	45.3	22	9.3	2
Q50		3.81**	1.028		26	44.7	16	10.7	2.7
Q84	To widen horizons	4.17**	0.893	0.01	42	39.3	12.7	5.3	0.7
Q54		4.18**	0.839		37.6	49.7	7.4	4	1.3
Q88	an international language	4.28**	0.787	-0.14	43.6	45	6.7	4.7	0
Q58		4.13**	0.960		44	33.3	16	5.3	1.3
Q89	For personal development	4.02**	0.874	-0.01	30.9	47.7	14.8	6	0.7
Q59		4.01**	0.959		36.2	36.9	20.8	4	2

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

None of the changes in mean response after the first year of university are significant at

the 5% level.

Table 57: amotivation of students (at university)

Question No.	Mean	Std Dev	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
			5	4	3	2	1
Q 62 learning English is nothing to me	2.02**	1.017	3.4	4.0	20.1	36.2	36.2
Q66 learning English is wasting time	1.78**	0.996	2.7	3.3	14.7	28.0	51.3

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Amotivated students are generally expected in a monolingual society (see section 4.55f),

but students here generally 'disagree' with statements expressing amotivation.

Table 58: amotivation of students (pre-university versus at university)

Question No. N=150		Mean	Std Dev	Diff. in mean	Responses: Strongly agree – Strongly disagree (%)				
					5	4	3	2	1
Q92	learning English is nothing to me	2.00**	1.027	0.02	3.4	5.4	16.1	38.3	36.9
Q62		2.02**	1.017		3.4	4	20.1	36.2	36.2
Q96	learning English is wasting time	1.77**	0.954	0.01	1.3	4	16.1	26.8	51.7
Q69		1.78**	0.996		2.7	3.3	14.7	28	51.3

* indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
** indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-sample t-test against a mean of 3)
† indicates significance at the 5% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
†† indicates significance at the 1% level or better (one-way ANOVA)
(Guide to other abbreviations and symbols given below table 20, page 127.)

Likewise, it is widely believed in Japan that after a year of university English, a significant number of students will end up thinking that English study is a waste of time. However, there are no significant changes in the levels of amotivation as shown in the table above – the majority of students think that it is worth studying English, and realize the importance of learning English all through their first year at university.

In this case, universities need to consider providing students with more opportunities to study English further – currently, most universities operate compulsory English classes only in the first academic year, and only small numbers of optional

classes (open to only a small number of students) in the second year.

5.34 Open question – other reasons for learning English

As in the first questionnaire, an open question was placed at the bottom of the second questionnaire, asking whether students had any reasons for learning English not covered by all the previous questions. Students made nine comments (compared to six on the first questionnaire):

1) I do not think English itself is important. All the languages including English are just vehicles for communication. Therefore I think the trend of simple admiration for the people who have a good command of English is not right.
2) I learn English purely because English seems to be an international language.
3) I admire foreigners who can speak Japanese. It is regrettable that the world is going ahead without any way for me to be involved because of my lack of English proficiency.
4) I am more interested in learning English with more knowledge of foreign culture at university. Therefore I am thinking of travelling around Europe to meet other cultures. However, I do not like English language itself, because I am afraid that I cannot express my feelings fully in English.
5) English proficiency enables me to make myself more valuable and make myself more appreciated.
6) I would like to examine the current political situations in both the U.S. and the U.K. by living directly in those societies.
7) If I can speak English, I can help foreigners in trouble in Japan.
8) I hope I will be able to acquire English proficiency more easily, more like I acquired my own language, Japanese. I think English may be necessary for world peace, because it is a language for communication throughout the whole world. English proficiency is not everything when it comes to communication with people from other cultures, yet it is useful and we need to make use of it.
9) To be on the world stage.

Comments (1) and (2) indicate that some students regard English as a vehicle for international communication and no more. These can be considered instances of agreement with Q58 (see for example table 56, page 174), 'learning English because it is important as an international language'.

Comment (3), expressing admiration for people with good foreign language proficiency can be classified as an instance of an intrinsic motivation.

Comment (4) is more complex – the student is clearly interested in learning English as a means to learn about other cultures, agreeing with especially Q85 and Q75 (see for example table 50, page 169), and therefore as an international language (as for comments (1) and (2) above) plus a pessimism about expressive ability in English.

Comments (5)-(9) are related to instrumental motivation. Some students hope to go abroad, for whatever purposes, and want to acquire English to use while overseas.

5.4 Motivation of Japanese first-year university students for learning English

Averaging all the mean responses in each motivational section from the first and second questionnaires (as listed in section 5.33a) yields a ranking of means that can be used to show what kind of motivation students are most strongly oriented to. Both questionnaires yield the same order: the highest mean is for extrinsic motivation, and the lowest is for intrinsic, unsurprising in the Japanese social context where English is hardly ever used in practice. The second in order is integrative motivation, but the difference between the second and the third (instrumental motivation) is quite small.

Table 59: ranking of importance of types of motivation as acknowledged by students

Questionnaire 1	
Type of motivation	Mean
Extrinsic	4.06
Integrative	3.70
Instrumental	3.62
Intrinsic	3.31

Questionnaire 2	
Type of motivation	Mean
Extrinsic	4.03
Integrative	3.64
Instrumental	3.61
Intrinsic	3.44

The table below shows the order of the mean scores (from high to low) for variables of motivation in both the first and the second questionnaires.

Table 60: ranking of variables of motivation (questionnaires one and two)

Questionnaire 1		Questionnaire 2	
Question N=150	mean	Question N=150	mean
Q87 admiration for fluent Japanese speaker of English	4.48**	Q57 admiration for fluent Japanese speaker of English	4.36**
Q85 to enjoy foreign culture	4.28**	Q55 to enjoy foreign culture	4.21**
Q88 an international language	4.28**	Q54 to widen horizons	4.18**
Q84 to widen horizons	4.17**	Q45 for communication with varied people in the world	4.13**
Q75 for communication with varied people in the world	4.13**	Q58 an international language	4.13**
Q82 to travel abroad	4.07**	Q46 for better understanding of English-speaking countries	4.06**
Q89 for personal development	4.02**	Q52 to travel abroad	4.02**
Q76 for better understanding of English-speaking countries	3.96**	Q59 for personal development	4.01**
Q77 for the future job	3.94**	Q47 for the future job	3.93**
Q80 for the convenience of daily life	3.75**	Q50 for the convenience of daily life	3.81**
Q86 to make it easier to learn other languages	3.60**	Q56 to make it easier to learn other languages	3.72**
Q94 to experience a 'high' feeling in speaking English	3.56**	Q68 to express my own country more to the world	3.65**
Q81 to study abroad	3.52**	Q64 to experience a 'high' feeling in speaking English	3.61**
Q90 for computers	3.52**	Q51 to study abroad	3.60**
Q98 to express my own country more to the world	3.51**	Q53 to gain a high score in an English proficiency test	3.52**
Q83 to gain a high score in an English proficiency test	3.45**	Q60 for computers	3.50**
Q79 to enhance own identity	3.34**	Q49 to enhance own identity	3.49**
Q91 to work overseas	3.29**	Q65 to be a member of their own society	3.07
Q95 to be a member of their own society	3.20*	Q61 to work overseas	3.03
Q78 for assimilation into English-speaking societies	2.93	Q63 to understand their own language more	2.94
Q93 to understand their own language more	2.76**	Q48 for assimilation into English-speaking societies	2.74**
Q97 for the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English	2.11**	Q67 for the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English	2.51**
Q92 learning English is nothing to me	2.00**	Q62 learning English is nothing to me	2.02**
Q96 learning English is wasting time	1.77**	Q66 learning English is wasting time	1.78**

There is a surprising similarity with the order between two questionnaires. Looking at changes in order from the first to the second questionnaire, there are only four changes of more than one position (three changes of two positions, and one change of three positions). However, none of these changes in order represent a change in mean response which is significant at the 5% level. There are few changes in Japanese students motivation for learning English during their first year of university.

5.5 Difference in questionnaire response by gender of students

Analysis of students' views according to gender is not a focus of this research, in part because analysis of the preliminary study and pilot study results revealed no particularly significant difference in response between male and female students, and in part also because of the impossibility of obtaining a sample of students balancing gender along with the other variables when two of the departments sampled are predominantly male and the third exclusively female.

This said, however, analysis of the questionnaire results suggests some significant differences in response covarying with gender. This will still not be discussed at length, however, as there are obvious problems with taking these differences to be depending simply upon gender. For example, 55% of the female students and 0% of the male students come from University C; 55% of the female students and 0% of the male students are liberal arts students; and 100% of the male students but only 45% of the female students are science students (see the description of the sample in section 4.52). Differences in response covarying with gender are likely to also be differences in response covarying with university or faculty, and without appropriate controls, it is essentially impossible to determine the nature of the correlation. It could be, for example, coincidental (depending rather on some geographical or social aspect of the universities, one of which happens to be unisex), spurious (effects of the same cause rather than cause

and effect), or more complex than suggested (depending rather on intended major, where current work selection pressure means that comparatively few men intend to take liberal arts).

However, bearing these issues and warnings in mind, it may be worthwhile to here list the more significant differences.

In the first questionnaire, the difference in response between male and female students was significant at the 1% level (one-way ANOVA) or better in twelve questions. Female students were more likely to have studied English at *juku* or preparatory school (Q31), and more likely to agree that they learn English to widen their horizons (Q84) or to experience a 'high' feeling when speaking it (Q94) – extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, respectively. Also, they expected to enjoy university English classes more (Q46), and also to make greater gains in a variety of English skills, including reading, writing, presentation, overseas study, communication, and work skills (Q47-51, Q53) and knowledge of foreign culture (Q54). Similarly, they were even less likely to agree that they had no expectations for university English classes and took them only for credit (Q56). This represents a relatively striking concentration of gender-correlated differences in response around the section regarding self-efficacy (see section 3.32b).

In the second questionnaire, the difference in response between male and female students was significant at the 1% level (one-way ANOVA) or better in only six questions. Female students tended to report that they had received more grammar teaching at university (Q6a), and gave a higher rating of the level of knowledge of English grammar and structure they achieved (Q22). Female students apparently had less contact with native English-speaking teachers and students (Q15a), and were therefore more likely to report that their expectations in this regard had not been met (Q15b). They reported a yet higher level of admiration for the fluent Japanese speaker of English (Q57, overall the highest-ranked motivation for learning English), and continued to be more likely to

learn English to experience a 'high' feeling in speaking English (Q64, overall a mid-ranking motivation).

5.6 Summary

These is a significant contrast between students' experience before university and their expectations for university (table 23, page 135) – students expect university English to concentrate on those areas comparatively neglected at high school, at the expense of those areas which were focussed upon at high school.

There is a significant contrast also between students' expectations and their actual experience during the first year of university (table 36, page 156) – students experience at university did not overall match their expectations, except in the areas of reading, learning about foreign cultures, and overall enjoyment.

Overall, Japanese students are well motivated, counter to common wisdom. They score particularly high on measures of extrinsic, integrative, and instrumental motivation (all the overall mean responses in table 59, page 177, are significantly closer to 'agree' than 'disagree') and particularly low on measures of amotivation (table 58, page 175). It is difficult to single out one particular motivation as the strongest or most general one – though 'admiration for the fluent Japanese speaker of English' headed the ranking (table 60, page 178).

In the next chapter, the results of the interviews, which were conducted between the two questionnaires, are presented and analysed. The interviews are conducted in order to probe the students' opinions further, and to provide a qualitative dimension to the research.

Chapter 6: Presentation and Analysis of Findings, First and Second Group Interviews and Individual Interviews

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will present and discuss the results and findings of two group interviews and two individual interviews, which were conducted between the first questionnaire and the second questionnaire. A brief analysis by gender will also be provided.

The purpose of the series of interviews is (as discussed in sections 4.7 and 4.8) to clarify and to probe students opinions in relation to the questionnaire. This supportive research is designed to make the data from questionnaires more reliable, meaningful and fruitful. Of course, the data from interviews themselves can provide rich information (as discussed in section 4.31).

6.2 Procedure of Analysis

6.21 Transcription of tape-recorded interview

For transcription, 'a standard has not been established … It seems more reasonable to transcribe only as much and only as exactly as is required by the research question' (Flick, 2002: 171-172).

For the purpose of analyzing two group interviews and two individual interviews, each of the tape-recorded interviews was transcribed entirely, with all spoken discourses plus body language transcribed as fully as possible.

The spoken discourse was transcribed from the tape-recordings, annotated with notes regarding body language taken by the interviewer during the course of the interview, and checked against the tape by a Japanese colleague as a check against bias and losing information before being translated into English.

The English translation was then checked by a bilingual native English speaker to

help ensure that the translation was faithful to the Japanese original.

6.22 Categorizing

Next stage after transcriptions is coding or categorizing the contents of the interviews from the transcriptions. Coding itself is a basic form of analysis: Matthew *et al.* comment that 'this part of analysis (coding) involves how you differentiate and combine the data you have retrieved and the reflections you make about this information' (1994: 56). While using a relatively small number of categories can lead to a clear analysis, being too eager to combine data into a small number of categories runs the risk of losing some of the information in the students' responses.

There are two broad techniques for categorizing, as identified by Seliger & Shohamy (1989):

1) Deriving a set of categories for dealing with text segments from the text itself. This is an inductive procedure.

2) An ordering system of categories already exists at the beginning of the process and the researcher applies this system to the data (1989: 205)

In the case of the present research, the first one is adopted because there is no generally accepted or clearly suitable system of categories for this particular type of research.

6.3 Analysis of first group interview

The first group interview was steered or prompted by the interviewer with the initial intention of addressing four main questions:

1) How do you assess the English lessons at university so far (four months after the start), compared with your expectations at the beginning of the university?
    - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section C (expectations at the start of your university career), though also to the second questionnaire (the reality of university English)

2) What do the students think of Japanese characteristics and the Japanese social context in relation to English learning?
    - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section E (current attitudes to English), and expected to result in the raising of some issues which could not be fully specified in the questionnaire answers

3) What is 'Japaneseness'?
    - Related centrally to: probing the opinions and issues raised in discussion of question 2 above. Perception of being Japanese is crucially related to attitudes to and motivation for learning English.

4) What motivation is there for learning English?
    - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section F (motivation for learning and using English)

Each question is designed to probe students' opinions as expressed in the first questionnaire. However, while the interview is conducted in large part by introducing these questions, it is only semi-structured, and students took the discussion in a number of directions away from the main questions. The dynamism of the group produced more variety in this regard than expected.

6.31 Main categories for the first group interview

Nine main categories were identified:

1) Previous experience
2) University English classes
3) English language learning outside university
4) Assessment of self as an English learner
5) Students' attitudes to English speaking countries, people and culture
6) Japanese society as a stage for English language use
7) Characteristics of Japanese people
8) English education in Japan in general
9) Students' motivation

The above main categories can be related to the four main questions: 1, 2, 3 and 4 cover question 1; 5, 6, and 8 deal with question 2, 7 concerns question 3, and 9 relates directly to question 4.

These main categories are subdivided into a total of 24 subsidiary categories, into which students' comments are fitted. In view of the virtues of interview data as compared to questionnaire data, students' comments are noted under the subsidiary

category heading much as they occurred in the original speech, without a great deal of abstraction. However, this is an analysis rather than a simple enumeration of statements, and a certain amount of paraphrase is utilized for clarity and so that similar comments can be merged into one.

The grouping or categorization of the various comments, and the paraphrase of each subsidiary category, was checked by a colleague of the researcher, and some alterations made with their help.

The following sections show each of the nine categories with the corresponding subsidiary categories and comments.

6.31a Previous experience

A. high school English class
A1. Teachers only spare 20-30% on the actual teaching because being busy with educational guidance and guidance counselling (m1)
A2. Just reading and translating (f2)
B. English learning at *juku* (preparatory school)
B1. Purpose (success in entrance examination) is clear (different sense of purpose from high school) (m1)
B2. Teachers are more enthusiastic and can concentrate 100% on the classes (m1)
B3. Much easier to understand (m1)

* Male students shown as m1 – m5, female students as f1 – f5.

Most of the comments in this area are from one student (m1), who spent an extra year after graduating high school to prepare for the university entrance examination, and suggests that English classes in *juku* (cram school; see sections 1.31 and 4.55b) are better than high school classes. Perhaps because high school teachers are too busy with guidance counselling and other (non-class teaching) issues to concentrate on teaching English, they are less enthusiastic than *juku* teachers. *Juku* classes, in comparison, are more focussed, have a clearer sense of purpose, and are therefore easier to understand and evidently serve their purpose (preparing students for the entrance examination). It is a shame that this purpose is largely irrelevant to communicative English – the highly focussed examination skills are of little use after entering university.

Another student commented that English lessons consisted of just reading and translating – as the questionnaire results suggest, high school English classes adopt a traditional way of teaching (see for example table 23, page 135).

6.31b University English classes

C. Assessment of university English classes
C1. Enjoying learning not only English but also all sorts of other stuff (m1)
C2. Not just reading and translating, but also getting to learn about other cultures (f2)
D. Degree of matching their expectations
D1. Low expectation before entering university (told that university English was no higher than average middle school level), but better than expected (f2)
D2. High expectation, but not impressed, actually disappointed (m2)
E. Demands for university English classes
E1. More teaching of communication skills (m3)
E2. More classes centred on use of English in real social situations (m3)
E3. More oriented to output instead of just getting input (m1)
F. Extracurricular Tutorials
F1. Helpful to learn extra English (f2)
F2. Interesting (m3)
F3. The only chance to speak English (f1, Group agrees)
F4. Role-play based on the textbook, practising asking and giving directions, etc (f1)
F5. Features discussions on some difficult themes; more basic, real-life kind of stuff would be better (f2)

Comments in category C indicate that students are enjoying learning culture through English. This coincides with the result of the second questionnaire conducted at the end of their first year; the mean score for learning about other cultures is exceeded only by reading (see table 36, page 156).

Students had various expectations for university English; one student with low expectations is pleasantly surprised, and one student with high expectation is disappointed, after two months of university English (category D).

Category E explains what students consider to be lacking in university English classes. All three comments suggest that students want to receive more teaching in or be more focussed on communication skills – the use of English in real social situations, output than input. It is apparent from the results of the first questionnaire that students expected to study these areas (see table 23, page 135) but after two months they have

realized that they are not focussing on these areas as much as they had expected and hoped.

Students talked about the extracurricular tutorial system a lot (category F). This system offers 90-minute English tutorials twice a week for an extra payment of about £215 sterling per half year. Around two thirds of the lectures are conducted by native-English speaking teachers, and the overall focus of the classes is on teaching a good command of English for business or ‘general matters’ (students can choose).

Students spoke enthusiastically about the tutorial system, as it (unlike the main English curricular classes) provides them with contents which meet their expectations for university English. The tutorials are focussed more on English for communication (involve role-plays and discussions), and are considered helpful and interesting. All the students in the interview agreed that the lessons provided by this tutorial system are the only chances for them to speak English on campus. This tutorial system was not dealt with in the questionnaires, but the volume and nature of comments here in the interviews makes it obvious that students are interested in the contents being taught in the tutorials and helps in interpreting the patterns of motivation revealed by the questionnaire results.

Comment F5 (that the tutorial discussions are sometimes on difficult themes, while more basic, real-life themes would be better) in particular is revealing of the students’ desire and need for communicative English. Even after years of English study, students need not English skills used for difficult discussions, but rather very basic communicative skills that can be used in real social settings.

6.31c English Learning outside university

G. At home
G1. Concentrating on English study during summer holiday (m1)
H. At private English school
H1. Forced to only speak English with a fine for speaking Japanese (f1)

There are few comments about learning English out of the classroom. This is

unsurprising in view of the results from the questionnaires, which suggested that on average students 'very seldom' or 'never' have (or try to have) any contact with English outside the classroom (see table 42, page 162). There are few situations where English is necessary in Japanese society out of the formal educational context – this is one of the reasons that students in private English schools are forced to speak English.

6.31d Assessment of self as an English learner

I. Lack of speaking skill and communication skill
I1. Not be able to communicate with foreign customers at all at part-time working place after 6 years learning English (m3)
I2. Be able to pick up what is said, but can't speak at all (f3)
I3. We first arrange all the grammar in their head and doing that, we falter (m3).

The comments in this section serve as good examples of the general inability of Japanese students to use even basic English to communicate. One male student talked about his experience in his part-time job as a waiter – after six years learning English, confronted with the need to say something to English-speaking customers (in Japan for the World Cup), he couldn't say even a single English word to them. He seems to suggest further that grammar focussed teaching works as an obstacle when speaking (comment I3). Another student agreed that, while they may understand some of what is being said by English speakers, they can't speak at all.

6.31e Students' attitudes to English-speaking countries, people and culture

J. Attitudes toward foreigners
J1. Foreigners should speak Japanese in Japan (f1. Group laughs agreement)
J2. Inferiority complex about Western people (f1)
J3. Foreigners look down on the Japanese a little (f1)
J4. Foreigners are more stylish (f2)
K. Attitudes toward foreign culture
K1. Heavy influence by foreign culture, through music, movie, commercials, and so on, since childhood (m2)
K2. Shop names look better in English than in Japanese (m2)
K3. It's cool to be able to speak English (m1)

In this section, the mixed feelings of Japanese students are shown. The comment J1 could be taken as implying a certain hostility towards foreigners, and expresses national pride. The fact that the members of the group laughed with agreement means that they

are sympathetic – though the laughter probably suggests that they realize that international business and tourism, even as conducted in Japan, cannot really be expected to be in Japanese, the language of only one country.

Contrasting with this national pride, comments J2 and J3 suggest that Japanese people have an inferiority complex towards Western people. J4, and also K2 and K3, express a similar sentiment, that Westerners and Western culture (including English), which is seen as stylish or cool – more stylish or cool than Japanese language or culture. (While it is undeniable that the older generation in Japan had an inferiority complex towards the West, particularly after being defeated in World War II, it is surprising that these attitudes continue in the younger generation.)

That Westerners and Western culture (including English) is seen as cool or stylish goes some way towards explaining comment K1, that Western culture has been deeply absorbed into Japanese society. It also agrees with the questionnaire results which showed that students do not think that English or ideas through English are considered hostile to Japanese culture or society (see Q69-71 on table 48, page 167).

6.31f Japanese society as a stage for English language use

L. English in real Japanese settings
L1. Hardly any English spoken. Japan must be very difficult for foreigners to move around in (m3)
L2. Foreigners cannot use English in Japan (f1)
M. Necessity of English in Japanese society
M1. Inevitable for the kind of jobs that recent graduates can do straight out of university (m1. Group indicates agreement)
M2. Not necessary for normal housewives (f1. Group indicates agreement)
M3. Even house wives should know a little English with the way English and Romanic writing-style text is increasingly present in Japan (m3)
M4. Companies have a certain level required for advancement (f1)
M5. There are lots of people in the train studying English for English proficiency tests recently (f1. Group indicates agreement)
N. Insular country
N1. There is a longing for the outer world (everyone agreed)
N2. Japan has almost no immigrants, which affects the environment here (m3)
N3. Coming into contact with something different is almost unknown in Japan (f1)
N4. Japan is not well understood internationally. Shocked to see a foreign program showing Japanese culture wrongly (m4).
O. Structured Society
O1. Vertically structured society, respect to the elderly, valuing politeness (f1)

Students are aware that most Japanese cannot communicate in English, and have come across situations where foreigners are struggling to make themselves understood in English, even with something as simple as buying train tickets in Tokyo Station (comments L1, L2).

At the same time, students realize that English (or, at least, a good score in an English proficiency test such as TOEIC) will be very important for their careers (comments M1, M4, M5). This agrees with questionnaire results showing that students are motivated to learn English 'for the future job' (Q77 on table 60, page 178). While students are aware that one can still comfortably live life in Japan without ever using English (comment M2), they are also aware that recently English words and Romanic text is sufficiently common in Japan that English is useful 'for the convenience of daily life' (M3; see also Q80 on table 60, page 178).

Students recognize that Japanese people are not used to people or things which are different from the homogenous Japanese norm (N2, N3), but that this insularity and

homogeneity creates a fascination with or longing for the outer world (N1). This complements the questionnaire results, which show that students do not consider geographic or cultural distance a disadvantage when learning English (Q67-8 on table 46, page 166). Indeed, it is possible that the fascination or interest generated by considerable geographic or cultural distance actually tends to reduce psychological distance – better to be distant and fascinated than close and disinterested.

The Japanese media fairly regularly present items (often clips of foreign programmes about Japan, or street interviews with people overseas) showing how poorly understood Japan is internationally. Comment N4 expresses the surprise and discomfort one of the students felt when watching one such programme. This connects to the questionnaire result showing that students are motivated to learn English 'to express my own country more to the world' and make foreign people understand Japan more (see Q98 on table 52, page 171).

Students recognise Japanese society as vertically structured and maintaining traditional values (O1). This social structure is deeply related to the Japanese character, dealt with in the section below.

6.31g Characteristics of Japanese people

Q. Passivity
Q1. Even if university starts compulsory English conversation classes, students (with current character) won't end up able to speak English (m1)
Q2. Need to be forced to speak English (f1)
R. Embarrassment (shyness?)
R1. Unable to speak English through sheer embarrassment (f1)
R2. Fear of speaking incorrect English (f1)
R3. With perfect native English speakers, Japanese feel timid (f1)
R4. For beginners English conversation should be held between non-natives (f1)
R5. At high school, students hesitated to ask questions because the teacher looked or acted bothered by questions (m3.Group indicates agreement)
S. Groupism (collectiveness)
S1. Do not want to stand out (f1) (Group indicates agreement)
S2. Being bullied starts with standing out (m1)
S3. National attitude is that everyone has to become the same (m2) (Group indicates agreement)
S4. Quick to follow the general view, such as people who speak English are better. That's why people are so embarrassed if they can't speak English (m2)
S5. Cooperative personality is very important (f1)
S6. Collectivism and cooperative personality are obstacles for learning English, but they are not bad in and of themselves (m1) (Group indicates agreement)
S7. Dislike returnees, because they are so proud of their English and look down on Japanese (f1)
S8. Japanese people put the interest of group before that of the individual (f1)
S9. The gains made in acting as one of members of a group are greater the gains that can be made by acting as an individual (f1)
S11. Not showing emotions and being formal (f1)
S12. Tend to be self-deprecating, stay silent even when they want to say something (f4)
T. Japanese way of communication
T1. Not putting things into words is the peculiarity of the Japanese culture, as in the ultra-short poem form *haiku* (f2)
T2. Japanese can understand each other though much is left unsaid (m1)
T3. Japanese way of communicating is opposite to American way. Japan's way can't be understood internationally (m3)
T4. Returnees cannot read the atmosphere of a social situation (f1)

Like the previous category (Japanese society), this category includes a comparatively large number of comments. Students talked a lot about their own society and characteristics, largely unprompted by the interviewer (comments Q1 to R4 above were made while the interviewer had asked only how students assess university English classes; further discussion was mostly in response to the question 'Will you explain what you mean by 'Japanese' there?', asked by the interviewer in response to f1's comment 'I think I'm really Japanese.'). This seems to be another characteristic of Japanese people,

as Hendry (1995) mentions:

> Japanese people are immensely interested in their own culture … [and] like to emphasise their uniqueness and homogeneity…. Hundreds of publications have appeared, by a variety of academics, journalists and amateur intellectuals, each with a theory to explain the special qualities of Japan in contrast with the rest of the world, which they tend to lump together. Many of these books reached the best seller list, and all bookshops have a section or corner for these examples of Nihonjinron, or 'theories of Japaneseness' (Hendry, 1995: 5).

Categories Q (passivity) and R (embarrassment/shyness) are generally considered typical Japanese characteristics. The students evidently consider these characteristics to be hindrances to learning or speaking English. Many of the comments were made in the course of a heated discussion about practising English conversation amongst Japanese people, that is, without the presence of a native English speaker. On the positive side, participants may be less shy, as they know that their peers do not speak or expect perfect English – on the other hand, students worried that without any authority to teach or correct, the results could actually be negative, with students reinforcing each others mistakes. However, the argument ended with the conclusion that practice between two non-native speakers is better than nothing – again showing how little chance students have to speak English.

Comment R5, that students stopped asking questions in school because the teacher seemed to find the questions troublesome, is again related to the vertically structured nature of Japanese society. The fact that the group indicated agreement suggests that all of the students had, or at least witnessed, the same experience. These incidents eventually enhance the students' passivity.

Category S (collectiveness/groupism) has the largest number of comments of any category. The students are very conscious of, and generally positive about, Japanese collectiveness (comments S1-S9), though they acknowledge that it is a hindrance to learning English (comment S6). While English and Western culture is cool and stylish, Japanese returnees who do not behave like part of the group are apparently disliked

(comment S7) – this is presumably more about their perceived arrogance ('looking down' on normal Japanese, being 'smug and critical') than about their English skill itself, since results for both questionnaires show that 'out of admiration for the fluent Japanese speaker of English' is the top-ranking motivation for learning English (see table 60, page 178). Comments S11 and S12 concern Japanese people's tendency to not speak out, even in Japanese – this tendency is presumably even stronger in English.

Category T concerns the peculiar Japanese way of communicating without relying entirely on speaking – the Japanese term is *ishindenshin,* a kind of communion of minds or sympathy creating tacit understanding. This kind of sympathy is possible only in a highly homogeneous and collective society, and students realize that this Japanese way of communicating cannot be used in or with people from other countries (comment T3).

All these Japanese characteristics tend to prevent people from being expressive in a language – particularly in a foreign one (this supports the discussion in section 1.4).

6.31h English-language education in general

U. Policy
U1. Start learning English at earlier age (m4)
U2. Disagree with the idea of earlier start of learning English (m1)
U3. Learning Japanese prior to English learning (m1)
U4. Good Japanese proficiency will help English learning (m2)

One student suggests that English should be learnt from an earlier age (comment U1), and then others disagree with the idea (comments U2, U3, U4). One student suggests that people cannot express complex ideas in English if their Japanese is not at a good level – another student was told by his high school teacher that students who have difficulty in English have some problem with their Japanese.

Whatever their opinions, English-language education at the primary school level recently started on a partial and experimental basis (see sections 2.61 and 2.74).

6.31i Students' motivation

V. Instrumental motivation
V1. To travel abroad (m3)
V2. For computers (m2)
W. Integrative motivation
W1.To communicate with people from all sorts of countries, not for absorbing English speaking countries' culture (m3)
W2. To know other cultures (f1)
X. Extrinsic motivation
X1. As an international language (f1), because widely spoken common language (m3)
Y. Intrinsic motivation
Y1. Out of admiration for Japanese people who can speak English (f1, m1)

There are not so many comments about motivation. The students were groping for an answer when asked why they are learning English – though if they had been asked in high school, they would no doubt have been able to answer easily ('for success in the entrance examination').

The answers are strongly related to previous comments. Comment V1 (to travel abroad) is directly related to Comment N1 (longing for the outer world). Student express a feeling of longing for the outer world. Comments X1, W1 and W2 are similar in being about the outer world – the fact that students are learning English for better understanding of all sorts of other cultures, not only English-speaking countries' cultures, shows that they are well aware of the importance of English as an international language.

Comment V2, learning English for computers, alludes to the the social change in Japan whereby English is starting to play a more important role in Japan as internationalization progresses. Comment Y1, learning English out of admiration for Japanese people who can speak English, contrasts interestingly with comment S7 (dislike of returnees) but corresponds well with the questionnaire results, which put 'out of admiration for the fluent Japanese speaker of English' at the very top of the ranking of all motivations (see table 60, page 178).

6.32 Summary of first group interview themes

Four months after entering university, students are not particularly satisfied with English classes (comments D1, D2), largely because they are not receiving as much teaching in English for communication as they had hoped (E1, E2, E3). However, they are enjoying learning about other cultures (C1, C2). Students are clearly eager to gain English skills for communication (F1, F2, F4), particularly for basic situations (F5, I1).

Students are generally positive towards English speakers and culture (J4, K2, K3, W2) and even acknowledge a feeling of inferiority compared to Western culture (J2), though they can be hostile towards returnee Japanese who show off their English skill (S7) and do not act as part of the group (T4).

As for their motivation for learning English, they are well aware of the importance of English as a medium for international communication (W1, X1) as for their future job (M1, M4, M5), but also more immediately to travel abroad (V1).

The students talked a lot about Japanese characteristics and society, and believe that these characteristics are an impediment to English learning (Q1, Q2, R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, S1, S6, S12, T3).

6.33 Comments on first group interview

As a whole, the first group interview has provided more information than expected. There are two main reasons for this: first, the group consists of classmates, peers in front of whom students are quite relaxed and willing to express their true opinions (*honne*). Second, the group situation created a good dynamic, more like a discussion or diverse debate than an interview, so students felt less pressure from the interviewer, who in reality played a role more like that of a facilitator or assistant.

An interesting social phenomenon, a kind of Japanese groupism, was observed throughout the interview. In Japan, group harmony takes priority over individual interests, and (perhaps somewhat counter-intuitively) this often means that an

individual is dominant during a discussion. The dominant person or opinion leader may be the acknowledged expert, an explicitly designated spokesperson, or (less formally) simply someone who feels comfortable and has something to say. Provided others do not have drastically different opinions from that person, they tend not to express their opinion, and instead play a supportive role by making regular noises of encouragement or agreement, nodding, laughing and listening. In this case the opinion leader was f1 (27 comments), followed by m3 (20 comments), while f5 and m5 did not speak a single word during the entire hour-long interview – though they joined in indicating agreement and support for the group. In a way, they play an important role without saying a single word, acting to indicate and reinforce group harmony.

6.4 Analysis of second group interview

The second group interview was steered or prompted by the interviewer with the initial intention of addressing four main questions:

5) How do you assess the English lessons at university so far (eight months after the start), compared with your expectations at the beginning of the university? Is there any change of your opinion since the first interview, and if so, why?
    - Related centrally to: First Questionnaire, Section C (expectations at the start of your university career), Second Questionnaire, Section C (experience and contentment regarding English classes at university), and First Group Interview, Question 1.

6) Are there any changes in your motivation, and if so, what?
    - Related centrally to: Second Questionnaire, Section F (motivation for learning and using English) and First Group Interview, Question 4.

7) Are you trying to do something to improve your English personally? What are you doing?
    - Related centrally to: Second Questionnaire, Sections D & E (self-perception as a learner and current attitudes to English), but also intended to broaden the discussion.

8) What do you want the university English instruction to be after you attended university English classes?
    - Related centrally to: Category E in the first group interview (requests for university English classes) and intended to deepen the discussion.

The analysis of the second group interview followed the same process as for the first

group interview.

6.41 Main categories for the second group interview

Five main categories were identified:

1) University English classes
2) English language learning outside university
3) Japanese society as a stage for English language use.
4) English-language education in Japan in general
5) Students' motivation

The above main categories can be related to the four main questions: 1 is related to questions 5 and 8, while 2 is related to question 7, and 5 is related to question 6. Main categories 3 and 4 do not directly concern any of the four main questions, but consist of comments which arose during the semi-structured discussion.

These main categories overlap those of the first group interview. However, the contents of each main category are quite different, as reflected in the subsidiary category headings.

6.41a University English classes

A. Assessment of university English classes
A1. The quality of English lessons hasn't changed (f1). The aim of English classes is not to improve skill with English (m2)
A2. Still interested in classes because I study topics I'm interested in (politics and economics) through English (m2)
B. Contact with native-English speakers within universities
B1. Very little chance, almost none at all (m1)
B2. Less chances than in high school (f3, m2)
B3. Less contact caused a drop in my conversational ability (f3)
B4. Foreign exchange students are segregated from normal students (f1)
C. Requests for university English classes
C1. All university classes should be operated in English (f1, f2, f3)
C2. More English classes (m2)
C3. More attractive English classes to motivate students (f4)
C4. Set up a course that involves required overseas study (f1)
C5. Make 500 points in TOIEC a requirement of graduation (f1)
C6. More effective ways to improve skills in English (m2)
C7. Imitate the system of universities where English teaching is successful (f1)
C8. More practice in understanding the English spoken by other non-native speakers (m2)
D. Tutorial system
D1. Too expensive (f2)
D2. Fee is reasonable compared with private English conversation schools (f1)

The students' comments on English classes at university do not differ a lot from the ones in the first interview: students complain that English classes have not provided enough skills in (communicative) English (comment A1), though one student appreciates the content of the classes, which is related to his interests (A2).

Students discussed the scarcity of contact with native English speakers on campus (B1, B2, B3, B4); this was not raised in the first group interview, and it seems that their expectation of a certain level of contact with native English speaking teachers and students at university has not been fulfilled. After eight months on campus, they have realised how rare such chances are – for some students, rarer than at high school (B1), though this was certainly a prestigious private high school which could afford to hire more native English speaking teachers than public schools. At any rate, despite increasing demands for a good command of English, the university offers little chance to speak with native English speakers.

These dissatisfactions and betrayed expectations lead to considerable discussion of

students' wishes and requests for university English classes. Some are relatively radical (that English should be a language of instruction for all subjects, C1; that a certain score in TOEIC or time studying overseas should be required for graduation, C4, C5), but many are suggestions for small changes to the current system (more, or more effective or attractive, classes: C2, C3, C6). Again, it is clear that students believe that the English-language education they are receiving on campus in insufficient, particularly in terms of English for actual communication. This discrepancy between what the students want and what they are actually receiving comes through again in the results of the second questionnaire, conducted two months after this interview (see tables 36 to 38, pages 156-159).

As for the tutorial system, there are not nearly as many comments as in the first group interview. Students talked about the additional payment for the tutorial; one said it is too expensive and another that it is reasonable. In a way both are right: on one hand, any addition to the already notoriously high university tuition is a burden to students, while on the other hand, the per-hour fee is low when compared to private conversation schools.

6.41b English language learning as an individual

F. At university
F1. Writing self-imposed English essay individually with correction by an American teacher at university (f4)
G. Out of university
G1. Listening to an English conversation text on CD (m2).
G2. Listening to English music (f2).

Some students have started studying English in their own time (F1, G1, G2). However, the discussion and small number of comments here shows that such study is still the exception rather than the rule.

6.41c Japanese society as a stage for English language use

H. Social change
H1. Under the recent recession, with foreign companies getting stronger, people who can't speak English will be unemployable (f1)
H2. TOEIC score is a big issue in Japan now, but a person with low TOIEC score was hired by a company because of his overseas experience (f2)
H3. Do not want to be judged a useless person by society because I can't speak English (f1)
H4. With more foreigners in Japan, Japanese people should at least be able to speak English to be friendly to them (m2)

In the second group interview, the students appear more aware of the value of English proficiency than in the first group interview, especially when they think of their future jobs (comments H1, H2) or recent social changes (H4). However, one student warns that English proficiency should not be used as a basis for judging people's value – the pressure to acquire English proficiency can be resented (H3).

6.41d English-language education in general

I. Policy
I1. English-language education in Japan is not going to improve unless something radical is done (m1)

This comment expresses the student's despair about the unchanging nature of English-language education in Japan. Even in this era of internationalization, the majority of English classes at university and at high school still use traditional teaching methods, as the questionnaires and first group interview show (see table 20, page 127; table 36, page 156; comments E1, E2, E3, section 6.31b).

6.41e Students' motivation

J. Demotivation
J1. Motivated purely for entrance examination, no longer feel English to be necessary, no goal (f3, m5). All English textbooks were discarded right after passing the university entrance examination (m1)
J2. Studied only to gain the value of the university (f3)
J3. University classes, including English, are becoming just a matter of getting credits and passing the tests (f1, m3)
J4. There is no guarantee that after a year English will be necessary to us, or that we'll be embarrassed by not being able to speak English (f3)
J5. Able to live without English. It's not like you'll be in real trouble or lose your life or anything (m1)
J6. More interest in the second foreign language, Chinese, which is allocated 3 classes a week, as opposed to English, which is allocated 1 class a week (f2)
K. Change of motivation
K1. No change from the beginning of the first year (f2)
L. More motivated
L1. For TOEIC test (f1)
L2. For a future job (f1)
L3. To go overseas (m3)
L4. Increase in motivation after experiencing studying overseas (f4)
L5. To speak better English to make friends with foreigners in Japan (m2)
L6. By realizing my pride in my Japaneseness (f4)

There were several comments on how students have become demotivated towards English learning, although there were hardly any such comments in the first group interview. A number of students agree that they have lost direction and interest after passing the entrance examination (comment J1), and are now motivated only by academic credits and graduation (J2, J3). Some students see little real use for English in Japanese society (J4, J5), and show more interest in their third language, which is taught more frequently than English at university (J6). Some students have lost interest in learning English after eight months at university.

On the other hand, however, other students are more motivated than previously, commenting that their motivation is now stronger and/or more definite than in the first group interview (L1-L6). Comments L1, L2 and L3 reflect instrumental motivation, while L4 and L5 reflect integrative motivation. One student comments that she is driven to study English by her consciousness of her own Japaneseness (L6) – a motivation perhaps most appropriately categorized as 'identified regulation', an internalized

variety of extrinsic motivation (see figure 2, page 67).

6.42 Summary of second group interview themes

In the first interview students talked a lot about Japanese society, culture and characteristics (see section 6.31g), while in the second interview, students talked more about their dissatisfactions with and wishes for university English classes (see section 6.41a). In the second interview students also talked more about motivation (see section 6.41e) – with some students declaring themselves less, others more or more specifically, motivated than previously. Thus, while some students maintain their motivation to learn English for proficiency test results, a job, or to study abroad, other students have lost motivation through dissatisfaction with their university classes or through simple lack of direction now the entrance examinations are over.

6.43 Comments on second group interview

Students talked less in the second group interview than in the first.

The same female student who made the most comments in the first interview also made the most comments in the second group interview (f1), though by a much narrower margin, as two other female students and two male students also made a number of (sometimes quite long) comments. The two students who kept silent all through the first group interview, and were interviewed individually, made only one or two comments each, though they again listened actively and showed consensus by nodding, smiling, and making small noises of agreement and encouragement (a quintessentially Japanese activity known as *aizuchi*). The two male students who were most vocal in the first group interview were less vocal – m3 dropping from 20 comments to just 4 and admitting to being primarily interested in getting good grades, and m1 dropping from 14 comments to 9 and admitting to having lost sight of his aim in learning English, and now suggests that people can live quite comfortably in Japan without English.

6.5 Analysis of individual interviews

Two individual interviews for the two students (one male and one female) who were the quietest in the first group interview were conducted between the first and second interview. These also were semi-structured interviews, using similar questions posed in much the same way as in the group interview, though only a quarter of an hour was allocated for each student.

The analysis was conducted in the same way as that for the group interviews.

6.51 Main categories for the individual interview of the female student

Two main categories were identified:

1) Motivation for learning English

2) Cultural difference

6.51a Motivation for learning English

A. Motivation
A1. To study in the U.S.A. to be an accountant after graduation
A2. Not putting a lot into the English classes, no particular thoughts

She is motivated very specifically to sit the CPA (Certified Public Accountant) examination in the U.S.A, and otherwise seems quite indifferent to learning English. This is a clear case of instrumental motivation.

6.51b Cultural difference

B. Characteristics of Japanese people
B1. Cooperative personalities, not suitable to speak English
B2. Shy – this is an obstacle to learning English
B3 Very considerate of other peoples feelings when they talk
B4. Individuals huddling right into the group; always having a sense of being a member of a group
C. Characteristics of people of an English-speaking country (Australia)
C1. Quick to give their opinions
C2. A lot of personal freedom
C3. A lot of respect for the individual
C4. The group was very much made of independent individuals

Though a relatively short list, the comments here are particularly interesting, coming as they do from the student's experiences during three weeks at an Australian high school.

She makes a very clear distinction between the typical Japanese personality and the typical Australian personality. She is positive about these Australian characteristics, noting a feeling of unity and warmth in combination with respect for individuality. The experience has clearly helped her perceive Japanese cooperativeness and collectivity upon her return – a kind of groupism she notes can be both good and bad: though warm and very considerate of others' feelings, it limits personal freedom and translates to a kind of shyness, which can be an obstacle to learning or speaking out in English.

It is interesting that she is so approving of the Australian experience of being, though in a group, an individual allowed to speak up. In the group interview she behaved as a typical Japanese student (as described by the group itself: see the comments on groupism in section 6.31g), remaining quiet about her own experiences and opinions.

6.52 Main categories for the individual interview of the male student

On the same day and under the same conditions, an individual interview was conducted with a male student. Although he did not utter a single word during the group interview, he participated in the interview by nodding and laughing his approval and support.

Three main categories were identified:

1) Motivation
2) English-language education in general
3) Characteristics of Japanese people

6.52a Motivation for learning English

A. Demotivation
A1. No goal after entering university
B. Motivation
B1. For communicating with people from overseas
B2. For a better job

The student's enthusiasm has dropped off since his year out studying hard for the entrance exams as a *ronin* (definition, page 120), and he now has no clear goals involving

English. Despite this, he realizes the importance of studying English, and is somewhat motivated both integratively (he wants to be able to talk with people from foreign countries) and instrumentally (realising that English is important in obtaining a better job).

This rather conflicted attitude (knowing, at least intellectually, that English is important, but nonetheless feeling demotivated) is fairly typical amongst Japanese university students – whether because they are worn out after exam study, or discouraged by being unable to communicate in English despite years of English study, or suspect that after years of never having to use English to communicate in real life they can live comfortably without it (despite paying lip service to its importance).

6.52b English-language education in Japan in general

C. Methods
C1. Starting abruptly with strict and formal English in middle school, don't understand the purpose
C2. Exam preparation helped English ability but not listening and speaking
C3. Start with something more fun
C4. More chances to express one's own opinion in English from middle school

He criticizes the way English was taught in junior high school, suggesting that starting suddenly with formal grammar doesn't give students any appreciation of what English is for – that more fun and output types of activities should be included even at this early stage.

In actuality, however, English even in junior high school is ultimately for examinations rather than fun or communication. This is quite explicitly the case in *juku* too – indeed, he notes that his year in *juku* preparing for exams helped improve his English ability, 'but not listening or speaking'. English ability excluding listening and speaking ability presumably includes grammar, translation, and reading – at least, insofar as these are test taking skills.

6.52c Characteristics of Japanese people

D. Groupism (Collectiveness)
D1. Accommodation of oneself to the group is normal
D2. Shyness is an issue

He notes that he has never had any direct experience of 'foreign individualism', but recognises that Japanese people (himself included) try hard to accommodate themselves to the surrounding group. While discussing studying English in Japan, asked whether shyness is an issue, he responds with a strong positive, but does not elaborate.

6.53 Summary of individual interview themes

Neither student is particularly positive towards English or English classes. Both recognise some motivation (to study accountancy overseas, to speak with people overseas or get a better job) but are otherwise indifferent or unenthusiastic.

Both students recognised that groupism (collectivity) and shyness are Japanese characteristics. The female student in particular, with the perspective of three weeks at school in Australia, realized that this shyness can be an obstacle in learning English.

6.54 Comments of individual interviews

Individual interviews with the two students involved a completely different atmosphere from the group interviews, which had a lively group dynamic. Because each of the two students had to directly face the interviewer-researcher (their teacher), and therefore effectively had to speak, they were appreciably more nervous than in the group interview.

As for *honne* and *tatemae* (see section 1.41), the assumption was that the students would tend to express *tatemae* when part of the group and *honne* when they became free of the group. However, the reverse was true, as the majority of students expressed their true opinions (*honne*) in the group interview, while students in the individual interviews were not particularly forthcoming. Likely reasons for this unexpected result are that:

1) the atmosphere of the group, consisting of peers/classmates, was very informal

2) the younger generation does not operate with such a definite distinction between *honne* and *tatemae* as the older generation

3) the initial assumption underestimated the level of nervousness or formality induced by being alone with their teacher, the researcher-interviewer

4) the students chosen for the individual interviews, being the quietest (or: least enthusiastic about English) of the entire group, were uncomfortable offering their opinions irrespective of whether they were doing so in front of the group or in front of the interviewer

The two students who participated in the individual interviews, while participating supportively in both group interviews and making one or two short comments in the second group interview, did not put their own opinions forward much – presumably, a combination of their admitted lack of enthusiasm for English or English classes and their collectivity or shyness kept them from speaking in front of other students. That students can realize that shyness or collectivity can be an obstacle to learning, while remaining so shy that they make no more than one or two comments during two hours of discussion, could be taken to suggest that these Japanese characteristics are very deeply rooted or important within Japanese society and people. This said, however, it is important not to draw sweeping conclusions from a sample of two – and, after all, classes in any culture or country could yield students who for their own individual and non-generalisable reasons play a purely supportive role to more vocal or extroverted students.

6.6 Difference in interview participation by gender of students

Similar comments about individual and non-generalisable reasons from a small sample apply also when examining the difference in interview participation by gender. While one female student (f1) made the most comments in each group interview, there was a similar mix of vocal and quiet students amongst each gender group. Female students made 41 and 29 comments in the first and second group interviews respectively; male students 43 and 22 comments.

In terms of difference in *content* by gender, while comments from female students concentrated somewhat more on emotional and psychological aspects (shyness, embarrassment when speaking, hatred of returnees, etc.), and comments from male students tended to concentrate somewhat more on the use of English (difficulties in use, English for future career, etc.), it is important to remember that most of these comments were made by the most vocal female student or two most vocal male students. That is to say, the difference in content may relate more to the characteristics of the individual rather than to any more general gender divisions.

6.7 Summary

Showing the advantages of conducting both quantitative and qualitative research, the interviews help illuminate and deepen the analysis offered in chapter five. Students, discussing English classes at university, or expressing their attitudes towards English learning, culture and people, thereby provide real-life examples and anecdotes that revisit many of the themes drawn from the questionnaire and thereby help confirm the validity of the analysis and the reliability of the research instruments.

The dynamism of the semi-structured group interview led the discussion in unexpected directions. On the negative side, this dynamism made the interview difficult to steer (luckily, students stayed on topic), but on the positive side, the presence of the teacher-interviewer was largely forgotten or ignored.

Some of the issues that thus arose were not covered explicitly in the questionnaire – these include extra-curricular tutorials (6.31b), encounters with foreigners outside the school context (6.31d), and Japan's inferiority complex towards Western culture (6.31e).

The main theme of the first interview (and one of the individual interviews) was the national characteristics of the Japanese and their (negative) effect on English learning (6.31g; 6.51b). This issue received only peripheral treatment in the

questionnaire (section D, confidence/anxiety in English class and when speaking with foreigners; section E, Japanese attitude to English and English proficiency).

As the main interest of the students in the first group interview was 'Japaneseness' in relation to English learning, so in the second group interview it was general dissatisfaction with university English classes, which were generally deemed ineffective, and involving too little contact with native speakers of English.

The following (final) chapter, draws together conclusions and discussions from both questionnaires and interviews to address the ten subsidiary and one main research question.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, Considerations and Implications

7.1 Introduction

This chapter answers the original overall research question by first reviewing the results and conclusions of previous chapters to answer the ten subsidiary questions, and then bringing all of these together, to offer a comprehensive conclusion and suggestions for further research.

7.2 Background to the research

English-language education in Japan has been in turmoil – the subject of a number of ongoing and controversial debates – since around the end of last century, when Japan was forced to begin internationalising.

A number of factors have recently combined to bring Japanese universities under great pressure to make innovative reforms in their English-language education systems. The main factors (discussed in Chapter 1) are (1) rapid internationalisation in the business sector in response to the prolonged recession, (2) severe competition among universities for students creating a need to be seen to have an attractive English-language education programme, and (3) poor results in international English proficiency tests suggesting that the current education system is failing students.

The urgency and breadth of the required reforms is increased by the fact that schools and universities in Japan employ a traditional way of teaching English, similar to the grammar translation method, focused on reading and grammar (discussed in Chapter 2). Despite prolonged debates, and with the exception of some short periods during foreign occupation or when the country was first opened to foreign influence, English in Japan has been taught primarily as an academic subject. Throughout the school system, classes generally neglect practical uses (communication) in favour of

teaching academic English for entrance examinations. This is the case even now, though curriculum guidelines issued by Ministry of Education clearly promote English for communication rather than grammar-translation teaching, because the all-important entrance examinations have an inertia all of their own and generally continue to examine only grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and translation.

Awareness of university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English is essential to successful reforms, though in the strictly hierarchical society of Japan, students are hardly ever consulted. This is true at the individual level, at the classroom level, and even at the level of academic research – only a very small body of research into Japanese students' motivation for English learning exists. The scarcity and lack of agreement amongst this research (conclusions suggest variously that instrumental motivation is primary, or that integrative motivation is primary – see section 3.35) points to a need for further careful enquiry concentrated on Japan.

The main research question, 'What are first-year university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English?', is posed in the hope that the answer will help address this need and direct the required reform of the English-language education system at universities.

Ten subsidiary research questions were posed (see section 4.2) to map a manageable approach to the main research question. These subsidiary questions will be addressed in the following section.

7.3 Research methods and the researcher

Various approaches and methods have been utilized in reaching the answer to the research question. These include pilot and preliminary research, two questionnaires bracketing the students' first year at university, two group interviews at respectively four and nine months into the year, and two individual interviews between the group

interviews. Research methods were designed to include quantitative and qualitative research methods with both positivist and somewhat more interpretivist approaches (see section 4.3). This multifaceted approach determined the students' previous experience and experience during their first year at university, from their initial expectations to a final summation at the end of the year (see figure 4, page 95, for an overview of the research schedule).

This is one of the first studies of this sort in Japan. Indeed, certain aspects of the Japanese context effectively limit the sample to students of the researcher (see section 4.21). While this places a limitation on how general the conclusions of this research can be taken to be, there are no obvious reasons to believe the three universities surveyed to be unrepresentative, and the results obtained here should be considered a solid base for further broader research.

All research was carried out in the presence of the researcher, who is also the teacher of all the students used in the sample. The influence of this teacher-researcher situation, and the subjective aspects of being a more senior member of Japanese society than students, and of being Japanese but having a comparatively Western view after studying abroad, is discussed as part of the effort throughout the research to be fully reflexive. Maintaining awareness of how these different selves affect the data gathering and analysis has helped produce more insightful and balanced results (see section 4.33).

7.4 Answering the ten subsidiary research questions

The overall research question 'What are first-year university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English?' was split into ten individually more manageable questions (see section 4.2), which will be addressed in this chapter.

Part A: Before University

Q1: What was the nature of students experience with learning English before

university?

Before university, in both junior and senior high school, the focus of learning in English classes was grammar, reading, and rote learning. This focus is even tighter in senior high school, as classes are designed to prepare students for the entrance examination, which tests reading comprehension and knowledge of grammar and vocabulary without testing proficiency of communicating in English, such as listening or speaking (discussion in section 1.32; results, sections 5.22 and 6.31a, 6.52b). As a result, students generally complete six years of English-language education (from the first year of junior high until university entrance) without learning English for practical communication, and thus have a largely academic knowledge of the language, unable to produce even a simple sentence like 'have you finished?' in a real social setting (see section 6.31d).

Before university, the students have contact with native English-speaking teachers mainly through the government-sponsored JET programme, though the amount of contact is not enough (see table 23, page 135; table 36, page 156) and there is often not a favourable atmosphere for the JET teachers to teach English for communication (discussion in section 2.72). There is a need to promote an atmosphere in which these native-English speaking teachers can be fully utilized to teach speaking, listening and culture – areas which Japanese teachers (the vast majority of whom have learnt English only through the same grammar-translation dominated system) struggle to teach.

Students at junior and senior high school neither enjoy English classes nor think of them as useful for communication (see table 21, page 129). However, students show some appreciation for classes focused on entrance examination requirements, despite the lack of usefulness for communication, as such classes help them succeed in gaining a place in a university of their choice (see table 21, page 129). In the interview, they express gratitude to the *juku* (preparatory schools) for their enthusiastic teachers and

teaching focussed clearly on success in the entrance examinations – again largely unrelated to English for practical use (see section 6.31a).

So long as the entrance examination system remains in place, and while competition for places in the best universities remains fierce and society a *gakureki-shakai* (organised by educational results – see section 1.31), it will be almost impossible to change the style of English teaching at junior and senior high school, however well-meaning the directives from the Ministry of Education (see section 2.71). This backwash from the entrance examination system is critical not only in shaping English-language education before university but also in shaping the students' motivation for learning English, as shown by the gratitude to the *juku,* mentioned above.

Q2: What expectations do students have for university English as they enter university?

The students are very clear about what they expect for English classes at university: teaching concentrating on the areas which students consider were lacking at junior and senior high school – speaking, culture learning, and listening – and centred on gaining a good working knowledge of English (see table 23, page 135).

They also expect a more active style of learning, including group study and creative study. Before university, from primary to senior high school, students are generally very passive in class. It is clear that they expect a more active, or more autonomous style, of learning at university (see table 23, page 135).

It is widely believed among lecturers that students lose enthusiasm for studying after matriculation, as they have been worn out by working hard to succeed in the entrance examinations and enter university (discussion in section 1.32). However, opposed to the conventional view of the students as exhausted examination-worriers with hardly any motivation, students immediately post-matriculation seem to be relatively positive learners. They expect to enjoy university English significantly more

than high school English (though, to put this in perspective, this still only makes the mean response 'average' – see table 23, page 135). They expect to gain communication skills; the ability to use English in a job, to study abroad, or to read for their major; and a good knowledge of English-speaking countries and people (see table 24, page 137). They expect to make progress, and disagree that they take English only to gain course credit (see table 25, page 138).

Given that '[m]ost university language teachers in Japan lament the apparent lack of motivation and positive attitude toward language their students show shortly after their matriculation to university' (Berwick & Ross, 1989: 193; discussed in section 1.32), this big discrepancy between the lecturers' perception of their students and the students' actual expectations for English classes will not contribute to the creation or execution of successful university English classes.

Q3: What relation is there between the answers to Q1 and Q2? (What relation is there between students' prior experience and their expectations for university English?)

As mentioned in the discussion for Q2 above, there is an interesting relation between the students' experience before university and their expectations at the beginning of university. Students expect that university English classes will involve less of the traditional teaching-style contents that were the main focus in high school (less grammar and rote learning), and more of those contents which were not focussed on in high school (more speaking, creative study, culture study, group study, listening, contact with native speakers; see table 23, page 135).

Students are aware of the shortcomings of school English (see the discussion for Q1 above) – they are particularly negative about its usefulness for communication, and about class quality in general, did not enjoy lessons, and even doubt that it is sufficient preparation for higher education (see table 21, page 129). Students evidently expect that, since university classes should be free of the grammar-translation backwash from the

entrance-examination system, these shortcomings will be redressed by concentrating on those content types which are more useful for communication – and, perhaps not incidentally, are also more enjoyable (see table 22, page 131).

Q4: What are students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they enter university?

In terms of social, geographic and linguistic distance between the learners and the target language society, the students feel that linguistic distance between Japanese and English is a burden. Students apparently do not feel so much social or geographic distance (see table 29, page 143). Thanks to the media, including the global internet, the students often encounter other cultures, albeit usually at one remove, through the filter of some form of Japanese media. Also, forty-one percent of the students had some experience of travelling to an English-speaking country (see table 18, page 125). These facts make the students feel social and geographic distance less acutely than the previous generation. This is supported by comments in the interview that since childhood students have been exposed to foreign movies (subtitled in Japanese, of course), commercials, music, etc.: culturally they have been deeply influenced by the West (see section 6.31e: K1, K2).

However, some comments in the interview suggest that Japan's geographic isolation *is* an obstacle for learning English: perhaps less because this isolation currently prevents travel to and from overseas (given the comments in the paragraph above), but more because this isolation historically has helped create a homogenous and insular culture which 'affects the atmosphere here' and makes encountering something different unusual (see section 6.31f: N2, N3). Such a social context, where there are very few foreigners, let alone English-speaking foreigners, even in Tokyo (see discussion in section 1.41), and hardly any chances to use English, does not help stimulate students to practise English outside the classroom (see section 6.31f: L1). There is a sense in which

educational organizations bear more responsibility in Japan than in other countries where English is a second language or some kind of *lingua franca*, even if only with higher numbers of visitors and tourists. Whatever the reasons, Japanese students seldom study or use English outside the classroom (see table 26, page 139).

However, this same geographic isolation can also generate a 'longing for the outer world' (6.31f: N1). This suggests that Japan has two aspects; one is open to foreign cultures, especially from the West, and the other is averse to something foreign or strange. The latter one is backed by Japanese collectiveness or groupism, the former by the 'longing for the outer world'. As a stage for English education, Japanese society is rather complicated and unique.

Overall, though, students consider attitudes to English language in Japan to be generally positive. They do not think that English proficiency is regarded as a symptom of a negative attitude toward Japanese culture, or that foreign ideas through English are a threat, though these were hotly contested issues only a generation ago. They are, overall, neutral (rather than disbelieving, hostile, or amused) about adopting English as a second language, and enjoy the encouragement of their parents in learning English (see table 48, page 167). These facts illustrate that the status of English in Japanese society is rapidly changing, though echoes of positions common a generation ago can be heard in students' comments that foreigners should speak Japanese while in Japan (see section 6.31e: J1).

As for their motivation at the beginning of university, the students are highly motivated to learn English, contrary to the conventional belief that students lose all motivation to study after completing the entrance examination. As mentioned above in the discussion for Q2, students expect to make progress, and disagree that they take English only to gain course credit (see table 25, page 138).

The top five reasons to study English (from 24 items canvassed in the first

questionnaire) are: (1) out of admiration for fluent Japanese speakers of English, (2) to enjoy foreign culture, (3) to acquire an international language, (4) to widen one's horizons and (5) to communicate with varied people in the world (see table 60, page 178). Their motivation for learning English is not to communicate exclusively with people from English-speaking countries, but to communicate with people from various countries – English is not bound to native English-speaking cultures and people, but plays an important multicultural role as an international language (see for example table 31, page 147).

As to the relative importance of the general types of motivation, students at the beginning of their university first year are primarily motivated by extrinsic variables, followed by integrative and instrumental variables. However, the differences were not huge, and no single prominent type of motivation was observed (see table 59, page 177).

Q5: What relation is there between the answers to Q1 and Q2 on the one hand, and Q4 on the other hand? (What relation is there between students' prior experience and their expectations for university English on one hand, and their attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they enter university on the other hand?)

Students' experience of English education is notably lacking in communicative English (Q1), and therefore (Q3), students expect that university English will concentrate more on communicative English (Q2). Since students *want* to be able to speak English (Q4), they therefore have a relatively positive attitude towards university English – they expect to enjoy it, and to make gains in their communicative abilities. In other words, students' expectations for English at university positively affect their attitudes to and motivation for university English. One reply to the open question in the first questionnaire nicely summarizes many of these themes: 'Through middle and high school they just had us memorizing grammatical constructions, so now at university I want to learn English that I can actually use as I live my life' (comment 5 in section

5.25).

In some cases, however, prior experience is demotivating – the characteristically Japanese 'examination hell' and its associated educational style can exhaust students, or work against them developing educational goals beyond university entrance. Two students in the interview, who failed to enter the university on the first attempt and spent an extra year at a *juku*, admitted to having lost motivation since reaching their goal (see sections 6.41e: J1, 6.52a: A1). This is an example of the backwash from the fierce competition in university entrance examinations.

Students may be expecting that English at university would concentrate more on communicative English for some reason dictated by the government, or by industries and companies under the pressure of internationalization. However, they may also be expecting that their own motivations for learning English will be taken more into account – which would constitute a further causal relation between their motivations and expectations.

Part B: At University

Q6: What is the nature of students' experience with learning English at university?

During their first year at university, they have learned mainly reading (mostly texts on foreign cultures), and much less grammar and rote learning than at high school (see table 36, page 156). While they enjoy learning about foreign culture, they have little or no opportunity to learn the communication skills (speaking and listening), and little chance to engage in the learner-centred learning (group study and creative work), which they had been expecting and looking forward to. The students have mixed feelings about their experience: they were interested in learning about different cultures (something comparatively neglected at high school), and generally tended to agree that they enjoyed the classes (perhaps in part because of the teaching about foreign cultures, but probably in part also due to the atmosphere of university and a comparative absence of

examination pressure), but were unhappy that they had not been taught communicative skills.

In the interview, they talked a lot about an extracurricular 'tutorial system' taught mainly by native teachers, which focuses exclusively on teaching the students how to use English for communication (see section 6.31b: B). Students show a particularly strong interest in this system because it is exactly what they want to learn.

Q7: How does students' experience with learning English at university (Q6) compare or contrast with their expectations (Q2)?

The volume of each content or teaching type experienced in English classes at university was below expectation in all areas except reading (which rated 'as expected') and learning about foreign culture ('more than expected'), and also overall enjoyment (slightly higher than expected – see table 36, page 156). This relative lack of teaching in expected areas means that students consider they achieved relatively little, except in their knowledge of foreign cultures (see table 37, page 158). Overall, university English was quite different to students expectations, and they achieved less than they had hoped, though they enjoyed it somewhat more than expected, singling out learning about foreign cultures as particularly interesting (see section 6.31b: C; 6.41a: A2).

One below-expectation area that students picked out to discuss in the interviews was the lack of contact with native English-speakers. They apparently have few opportunities to communicate with native English-speakers on campus (see section 6.41a: B) – indeed, the campus itself is like a model of Japanese society, in which people do not need to use English.

Overall, there was a discrepancy between the contents and teaching style students expected and looked forward to, and the actual classes – and, likewise, between the gains in communicative skill students expected and looked forward to, and the actual very modest or non-existent gains. This is confirmed in table 40 (page 161), where we see

that although students initially expected to make significant progress during the year, they rated actual progress as low.

Q8: What are students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as they finish their first year at university?

Students generally have a good attitude towards English and English learning as they finish their first year at university (table 47, page 166). They are still strongly motivated to learn English (see table 49, page 168; table 51, page 170; table 53, page 172; table 55, page 174; table 57, page 175).

Part C: Changes during the first year of university

Q9: Are there any changes in students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English, between their entering university (Q4) and finishing their first year at university (Q8)?

Generally the students' attitudes to English language have become slightly more positive than a year ago (see table 48, page 167 – though most of the changes are not significant at the 5% level). The more conscious students are of the society or workplace which they will join after graduation, the more they realise the importance of learning English, which is now virtually essential in the business sector (see sections 1.21, 1.34; 6.31f: M1, M4, M5; 6.41e: L). However, some students still have negative attitudes to learning English, suggesting in the interviews that English is probably not necessary for life in Japan and they study it only for credit (see section 6.41e: J1-J5).

Attitudes to extracurricular English study have likewise changed very little, though students have started reading English materials privately more often (see table 42, page 162). This is presumably an effect of the university English classes, which focus mainly on reading and sometimes use non-textbook materials, such as English-language newspapers, journals, or material from the Internet. Through these activities, the students have become more familiar with such materials. However, the percentage of

students who very often or often read English materials out of class is still low (around eight percent).

Overall, the students' motivation has also changed very little: of the 24 motivational variables surveyed, only one showed a change (towards higher motivation) significant at the 5% level (see table 50, page 169; table 52, page 171; the one significant change on table 54, page 173; table 56, page 174; table 58, page 175). The top five motivations for learning English are the same as at the beginning of the year, with only slight changes of the order; 1) out of admiration for fluent Japanese speakers of English, 2) to enjoy foreign culture, 3) to widen one's horizon, 4) to communicate with varied people in the world, 5) to acquire an international language (see table 60, page 178).

However, some students said in the second interview that they have become demotivated, studying English becoming more a matter of gaining credit (see for example section 6.41e: J3). Presumably the lack of statistically significant change in overall attitudes and motivation as shown by the questionnaire is a result of such individual movements being relatively small, relatively unusual, and/or tending to balance out as some students become more motivated and others less.

It is interesting to note that despite this overall lack of statistically significant change in a large number of variables measuring attitude to and motivation for English learning, response to a question measuring expectations for university English classes showed a significant change (table 40, page 161). There was a significant increase in the mean response to 'I lack expectations and am studying only for credit'. Students overall still tended to disagree with this statement, meaning that the majority of students were still attending university classes with some aim other than just obtaining credit, but it is nonetheless difficult to reconcile the significant change here with the overall constancy in attitude to and motivation for English learning. This apparent paradox can be resolved if we consider that English learning and university classes are two different

things. Students can remain positive and motivated with regard to English learning (as per the discussion for Q8 above) while simultaneously being sufficiently disappointed with the contents and results of university English classes (Q6 and Q7 above) that they no longer have high expectations of progress, and instead are more aware of the need to sit through and gain credit for the course.

Q10: If there are changes (Q9), what possible explanations underlie them?

There are few changes during the year – there are some changes in the attitudes or motivations of particular individuals, but a high degree of overall constancy. There are of course many possible reasons why some students become more motivated while in other cases students became demotivated. Since, as noted above, these individual movements are not apparent in the questionnaire results, possible explanations will be drawn from the interview results.

Comments made in interviews about motivation and becoming more motivated centre around three themes. Firstly, some students have become more aware of the importance of English in modern Japanese society, particularly in the job market (see sections 6.31f: M1, M3-5; 6.41c: H1-2; 6.41e: L1-2; 6.51a: A1; 6.52a: B2). Secondly, they simply want to be able to communicate with foreigners – a desire sometimes prompted by coming across foreigners in Japan (see section 6.31d: I1, I2, 6.41c: H4, 6.41e: L5; 6.52a: B1; 5.34: comment 7). A third theme can be found in the responses to the open question regarding motivation in the second questionnaire, where students discuss English as the language of international communication rather than the language of English-speaking countries in particular (section 5.34, comments 2, 4, 8, 9) – almost any desire to go overseas, whether for work, world peace, learning about foreign cultures, travel, etc., constitutes a motivation to learn English. Indeed, four of the top-five motivations for learning English (as listed in table 60, page 178) are best interpreted as such 'international language' motivations.

Comments made in interviews about lack of motivation and demotivation centre around three themes. Firstly, students are disappointed with the contents of university English classes – there was a large discrepancy between their expectations/hopes and the teaching they actually received (see table 23, page 135; table 36, page 156; 6.31b: E; 6.41a: A1, B, C) – and with their failure to learn as much as they had hoped (see table 38, page 159). Secondly, students whose only goal in learning English was success in the university entrance examinations, and who do not find some other new motivation, become demotivated (see section 6.41e: J1-3; 6.52a: A1). Thirdly, some students feel that English is not crucial for their lives and therefore become demotivated (see section 6.31e: J1; 6.31f: M2; 6.41c: H3, 6.41e: J4-5). Japan is indeed still a largely monolingual insular island nation (see sections 1.41, 1.42) despite the widespread use of English proficiency tests such as TOEIC in the business sector, and the amotivation or demotivation which can result from this realisation may be worsened by the lack of contact with foreigners even at university.

Throughout this section, when considering these answers to the ten subsidiary research questions, it is important to keep the nature of this research in mind. It is not the nature of largely questionnaire-based research to clearly determine cause and effect (see the characterisation of the research as *ex post facto* in section 4.2). Even relatively simple correlations admit of various causal interpretations; for example, it seems clear that students' enjoyment of communicative contents (see table 22, page 131), coupled with their belief that university English classes will involve more communicative contents than high school (see table 23, page 135), could cause them to expect that they will enjoy university English more than those at high school. Alternatively, if we assume that students believe that university English aims to either entertain students or genuinely improve their English, the same beliefs regarding the lack (and the enjoyable nature) of communicative English can be seen as causing their belief that university

English classes will involve more communicative contents than high school.

In some places, the interviews assisted in the interpretation of correlations. For example, students discuss reasons for demotivation and reasons for continuing or heightened motivation (see especially sections 6.41a and 6.41e), helping us speculate more fruitfully regarding the causal relationships of these factors.

7.5 Overall conclusion: 'What are the first-year university students' attitudes to and motivation for learning English?'

7.51 Attitudes to and motivation for learning English

Japanese university students have generally good attitudes to learning English throughout their first year. Students generally realise that English, as an international language, is very important for their futures, and greatly admire Japanese people who can speak English fluently (see the detailed discussion and reference to results in section 7.4). Students' attitudes towards learning English generally changed very little during the year, but there is a small drift in a direction favourable to English, English learning, and the perception of the status of English in Japan.

However, some students still have negative attitudes to learning English, suggesting in the interviews that English is probably not necessary for life in Japan. Throughout the year, fewer than 10% of the students think that learning English is a waste of time or personally unimportant, while 15-20% are neutral, and the remainder disagree, most of them 'strongly'.

Students are strongly motivated to learn English throughout their first year (again, see the detailed discussion and reference to results in section 7.4). Students' motivations for learning English generally changed very little during the year, though some small movements were observed in both directions.

The top-ranking motivation overall was 'out of admiration for fluent Japanese speakers of English', underlining students' positive attitudes to English. The next four top-ranking motivations concern English as an international language, for widening horizons and enjoying foreign cultures – for Japanese students, English is the doorway to the world, rather than the language of any particular countries.

The two bottom-ranked motivations actually drew a negative response. At the very

bottom was 'for the enjoyment of grasping grammatical constructs in English': Japanese students generally consider that they've learnt enough grammar in high school, and realize that it hasn't been useful in improving their communicative ability. Only slightly better received was 'for assimilation into English-speaking countries' – Japanese students evidently have a strong sense of, and pride in, their own Japaneseness.

Indeed, students dwelled on the idea of 'Japaneseness', suggesting that the characteristic groupism and shyness works as a hindrance in learning English learning (this issue was not anticipated by the questionnaire, but became the main theme of the first group interview – see section 6.31g; also 6.51b, 6.52c).

However, as noted above as a qualification on the result that Japanese students have a good attitude to English learning, a small number of students (fewer than 10%) displayed amotivation by agreeing that learning English is a waste of time or personally unimportant. These students presumably study English only to gain credit.

Interestingly, significantly more students than the 'fewer than 10%' above agree that they study English only for credit (see the discussion for Q9 in section 7.4). That is, some students are apparently motivated with regard to English learning, but comparatively amotivated with regard to university English. This is probably because students are motivated largely to learn communicative English, but university English is almost entirely reading, and some students are disappointed with their lack of progress in communicative skills.

Grouping motivation variables into types shows that extrinsic motivation ranks highest, followed by integrative, instrumental and intrinsic motivation; however, there are only small differences between these types, with none really a clear leader. Returning to the earlier discussion of the theory of motivation (see section 3.3), it seems that the motivations of Japanese students (part of a hierarchical, groupist, exam-dominated society) can be understood in the terms of self-determination theory

(see section 3.32c) as being centred on integrated regulation towards personal values. Students feel some considerable pressure from society (for example, a force for groupism), and they integrate and internalise their extrinsic motivation into a more personal set of values, that is, the students 'perform extrinsically motivated actions with an attitude or willingness that reflects an inner acceptance of value or utility of a task' (Ryan & Deci, 2000: 55, see also section 4.55f). This explains how extrinsic motivation (that is, extrinsic motivation: integrated regulation towards personal values) ranks highest (though by only a small margin), and how students' motivation remains strong throughout the year despite their dissatisfaction with university English classes.

7.52 Result clashes with the common view

This result – that first-year Japanese university students have good attitudes to, and are highly motivated for, English learning – clashes strongly with the common view of students. As discussed in section 1.32, '[m]ost university language teachers in Japan lament the apparent lack of motivation and positive attitude toward language their students show shortly after their matriculation to university' (Berwick & Ross, 1989: 193). They believe that students 'endure English classes only to accumulate enough credits to graduate' (Matsumoto 1994: 210) and lack any aim or will to study (see also the comments from Akimitsu 2001 and Kurihara 2004 in section 2.63).

In clear contrast with this view, the results of this research suggest that despite having studied English for at least seven years and still being generally unable to communicate at all well in it, despite a year of being dissatisfied with classes which didn't fit their expectations, despite making considerably less progress than they had expected to, students retain high motivation for and good attitudes to English learning. That students list wishes and demands for the education system (see for example 6.41a: C) rather than giving up in disgust underscores again just how highly motivated students are to learn communicative English (see the discussion for Q5 in section 7.4).

However, the fact that some students *do* give up on university English is clear from section 7.51 above. The general view goes wrong in assuming that this minority amotivation with regard to university classes (or, more generally, the dissatisfaction with the contents of classes, and with the amount of progress made) equates to amotivation with regard to English learning. To the contrary, students are generally high motivated, and simply frustrated by classes that fail to meet their needs or expectations.

7.53 Implications

Students are strongly motivated to learn English for communication, but are disappointed by university classes which fail to offer chances to improve such communicative skills. They may become demotivated in these classes while retaining their motivation to learn communicative English. Universities, then, need to improve their curricula to enhance rather than lessen students' motivation.

Such improvements seem likely to include offering English classes that focus more on using English for communication, and creating more opportunities for students to interact with English-speakers in the classroom and on campus, while retaining some focus on learning about other cultures (something which students enjoy, and links also to successful international communication). For example, Japanese teachers of English could spend some portion of the year concentrating on reading about foreign cultures (thereby helping students not only improve their English, but also gain knowledge of other cultures, something important for intercultural communication), while native English-speaking teachers spend the remainder of the year concentrating on teaching communication skills.

One practical way to increase opportunities for students to interact with English-speakers is to facilitate that interaction via the internet. For example, Japanese learners could participate in joint projects via the internet with English-speaking

students in other countries for a variety of learning, culture and communicative purposes. Computing facilities and internet connection speeds now commonly available on campus and in homes allow not only email communication but also easy video conferencing (the necessary software is built into recent versions of Microsoft Windows™ and is, with an internet connection, otherwise free to use). Especially as students are strongly motivated to learn English as an international language, such contact need not be with native speakers of English. Interaction with other students of English, especially with some teacher supervision and provided the students are not Japanese, can offer valuable practice in the use of English as a language of international communication. However, such activities are slow to appear in Japanese university classrooms, probably in large part because of a low level of Information Technology (IT) awareness among university teachers and administrators alike. Implementing virtual group activities in university English classrooms would require staff to become more familiar with the Information Technology involved – lecturers to push for, use, and integrate the activities, and administrators to (for example) provide facilities, adjust class sizes, and establish links with foreign universities to enable joint classes or projects.

Implications for the students as learners of English is that they need to increase their contact with English outside the classroom. This could be, for example, by reading English materials, writing things in English, or actively seeking out situations where they need to communicate in English. The research results indicate that students currently do these things 'never' or 'seldom'.

Implementation of these improvements would seem to be good for the students (who want and need to learn communicative English) and good for the universities (helping to maintain students numbers as the college-age population drops; keeping students more motivated in class). It will arguably be good even for Japan, which in this

era of internationalization needs workers and cultural ambassadors who can communicate in the common international language.

Indeed, it appears that some parts of the government share this realisation – the Ministry of Education policy statement for English-language education in high school now clearly indicates that the objective of English-language education is to teach students communicative skills and English for international understanding. While this is laudable, actual teaching in high schools will continue to reflect the content of the all-important university entrance examinations, which must therefore in turn be reformed. Similarly, actual teaching will continue to reflect the skills and training of teachers, the vast majority of whom are Japanese who learnt English as an academic subject in the exam-dominated system – many high school teachers in particular have little or no experience of using English for communication. The government now needs to take initiatives not only in reforming the university entrance examination system to test those communicative skills named in the policy objectives, but also in training or retraining teachers so they are able to help their students meet these policy objectives and therefore pass the reformed examinations.

Further and continuous research on university students' attitudes and motivation is required, because they will be changing as society itself is changing.

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Appendices

Appendix One – First Questionnaire (English Translation)

ABOUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear university students,

I have the pleasure to benefit from your frank and clear answers to the present questionnaire. Your responses to the questionnaire will be extremely useful in helping authorities in making their future plans for the teaching and learning of English at school and at university.

May I therefore thank you in advance for your co-operation in completing the questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,

Taeko Seki

A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF

Please provide information about yourself by ticking the appropriate box:

1. Gender: male female
2. Age: 18-19 20-21 22 or over
3. Have you ever been to an English-speaking country? Yes No
4. If in 3. above you ticked YES, please estimate the total amount of time you have spent there: less than 3 months 3-12 months 1-2years more than2 years
5. If in 3. above you ticked YES, in which countries did this take place? (Please state)

____________________ ____________________ ____________________

Appendix One – First Questionnaire (English translation)

B. YOUR EXPERIENCES OF ENGLISH PRIOR TO UNIVERSITY

AT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL	
Please indicate how much or how little you received of the following, by ticking the most appropriate box Very much---5 Much---4 Some---3 Not much---2 Little or none---1	
6. How much teaching of grammar did you receive?	5 4 3 2 1
7. How much listening to English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
8. How much speaking in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
9. How much reading in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
10. How much writing in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
11. How much work in small groups did you do in class?	5 4 3 2 1
12. How much learning by heart did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
13. How much creative work in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
14. How much teaching of the culture of English-speaking countries did you receive?	5 4 3 2 1
15. How much contact with native-speakers of English did you have?	5 4 3 2 1
16. How much English learning did you receive in *Juku* (private supplemental school)?	5 4 3 2 1
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
17. My English lessons were very interesting	5 4 3 2 1
18. My English lessons helped me to use the language in communication with others	5 4 3 2 1
19. The quality of English-language teaching was very high	5 4 3 2 1
20. My English lessons prepared me well for senior high school	5 4 3 2 1
AT SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL	
Please indicate how much or how little you received of the following. Very much---5 Much---4 Some---3 Not much---2 Little or none---1	
21. How much teaching of grammar did you receive?	5 4 3 2 1
22. How much listening to English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
23. How much speaking in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
24. How much reading in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
25. How much writing in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
26. How much work in small groups did you do in class?	5 4 3 2 1
27. How much learning by heart did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
28. How much creative work in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
29. How much teaching of the culture of English-speaking countries did you receive?	5 4 3 2 1
30. How much contact with native-speakers of English did you have?	5 4 3 2 1
31. How much English learning did you receive in *Juku* (private supplemental school)?	5 4 3 2 1
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
32. My English lessons were very interesting	5 4 3 2 1
33. My English lessons helped me to use the language in communication with others	5 4 3 2 1
34. The quality of English-language teaching was very high	5 4 3 2 1
35. My English lessons prepared me well for university	5 4 3 2 1

Appendix One – First Questionnaire (English translation)

C. YOUR EXPECTATIONS FOR ENGLISH LESSONS AT UNIVERSITY

Please indicate how much or how little you expect to receive of the following. Very much---5 Much---4 Some---3 Not much---2 Little or none---1	
36. How much teaching of grammar do you expect to receive?	5 4 3 2 1
37. How much listening to English do you expect to do?	5 4 3 2 1
38. How much speaking in English do you expect to do?	5 4 3 2 1
39. How much reading in English do you expect to do?	5 4 3 2 1
40. How much writing in English do you expect to do?	5 4 3 2 1
41. How much work in small groups do you expect to do in class?	5 4 3 2 1
42. How much learning by heart do you expect to you do?	5 4 3 2 1
43. How much creative work in English do you expect to do?	5 4 3 2 1
44. How much teaching of the culture of English-speaking countries do you expect to receive?	5 4 3 2 1
45. How much contact with native-speakers of English do you expect to receive?	5 4 3 2 1
46. How much enjoyment do you expect from your class?	5 4 3 2 1
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
By the end of my first year at university I expect that ….	
47. …. I will be able to read references in English for my major	5 4 3 2 1
48. …. I will be able to write essays in English for my major	5 4 3 2 1
49. …. I will be able to give presentations in English.	5 4 3 2 1
50. …. I will be capable of studying abroad in an English-speaking country	5 4 3 2 1
51. …. I will be able to communicate fluently in English	5 4 3 2 1
52. …. I will have a good knowledge of English grammar and structure.	5 4 3 2 1
53. …. I will be capable of using English in a future job.	5 4 3 2 1
54. …. I will have learnt a lot about different countries and cultures in which English is used, and of the different peoples who speak English.	5 4 3 2 1
55. …. I will not have made much progress in English.	5 4 3 2 1
56. I do not have any expectations. I learn English only for getting credits.	5 4 3 2 1

Appendix One – First Questionnaire (English translation)

D. YOU AS A LANGUAGE LEARNER

Please indicate how often or how rare you have with following. Very often---5 Often---4 Sometimes---3 Seldom---2 Never---1	
57. I read materials written in English, such as newspaper, books and journals.	5 4 3 2 1
58. I write things in English, such as letters, notes, diaries and reports.	5 4 3 2 1
59. I study English through language programme on TV or on the radio.	5 4 3 2 1
60. I attend a private language school to learn English conversation.	5 4 3 2 1
61. I try to grasp every opportunity to use English outside classroom.	5 4 3 2 1
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
62. I will be able to reach the level of English proficiency at which I am aiming.	5 4 3 2 1
63. I am easily distracted from learning English.	5 4 3 2 1
64. When I enter the English class, I feel very relaxed and confident.	5 4 3 2 1
65. When I have an opportunity to speak English with a native speaking person, I feel anxious.	5 4 3 2 1

E. YOUR CURRENT THOUGHTS ABOUT ENGLISH

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
66. Learning English is difficult because it is too different from Japanese language.	5 4 3 2 1
67. Geographical isolation from the West makes it difficult to contact English culture and people.	5 4 3 2 1
68. Japanese cultural distance from the West makes it difficult for Japanese to understand people from Western culture, even when a Japanese person has reasonably good English.	5 4 3 2 1
69. Proficiency in English is generally regarded as a negative attitude towards Japanese culture and society.	5 4 3 2 1
70. The importation of foreign ideas through learning English threatens Japanese culture.	5 4 3 2 1
71. Japanese society is xenophobic, towards both foreigners and foreign languages.	5 4 3 2 1
72. While the possible adoption of English as a second language in Japan is currently topic of debate, I think it is good for Japan.	5 4 3 2 1
73. The languages of neighbour countries (e.g. Korean, Chinese) should be learned before English.	5 4 3 2 1
74. My parents will be happy if I become proficient in English, because they encourage me to learn English for the future.	5 4 3 2 1

Appendix One – First Questionnaire (English translation)

F. YOUR CURRENT MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
75. I learn English because I want to meet and converse with more and varied people in the world.	5 4 3 2 1
76. I learn English because I want to better understand the culture, society and people of English-speaking countries.	5 4 3 2 1
77. Learning English enable me to get a more prestigious job in the future.	5 4 3 2 1
78. I learn English because I want to behave in ways similar to English-speaking people.	5 4 3 2 1
79. Learning English will enable to enhance my identity as a Japanese person in the modern world by understanding foreign ideas through English.	5 4 3 2 1
80. English is prevailing in Japan's daily life, such as English-language advertising, preference for English use by the media, therefore learning English is very important for daily life in Japan.	5 4 3 2 1
81. I learn English because I want to study abroad.	5 4 3 2 1
82. I learn English because it is beneficial when travelling abroad.	5 4 3 2 1
83. To get a high score in TOEFL, TOIEC, STEP (State English exam) is very important for my future.	5 4 3 2 1
84. Learning English will widen my horizons	5 4 3 2 1
85. I want to enjoy foreign music, sports, or movies by learning English.	5 4 3 2 1
86. Learning English will help when I learn other languages.	5 4 3 2 1
87. I admire the fluent Japanese speaker of English.	5 4 3 2 1
88. Learning English is important because it is an international language.	5 4 3 2 1
89. Learning English is important for my personal development.	5 4 3 2 1
90. Learning English is essential to operate a computer.	5 4 3 2 1
91. Learning English is essential because I want to work overseas.	5 4 3 2 1
92. I cannot see why I study English and frankly, it means nothing to me.	5 4 3 2 1
93. I find English interesting because it gives me insight into my own language, Japanese.	5 4 3 2 1
94. I experience 'high' feeling while speaking in English.	5 4 3 2 1
95. I will be out of a circle of my friends if I do not study English.	5 4 3 2 1
96. I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying English.	5 4 3 2 1
97. I experience the enjoyment when I grasp a difficult construct in English.	5 4 3 2 1
98. Learning English enable me to make foreign people understand Japan more.	5 4 3 2 1
If there is/are other personal reason(s) for learning English, please state.	

Appendix Two – First Questionnaire (Japanese original)

アンケート調査：　英語学習について

学生の皆さんに：

これは大学１年生の英語学習に対する意識調査のアンケートです。ここでの意見が、学校及び大学での今後の英語教育の方針を立てる際に大きな助けとなります。率直な意見を聞かせてください。ご協力感謝します。

関　妙子

第１部　あなた自身について

1. 性別：　□男性　□女性
2. 年齢：　□18－19 歳　□20－21 歳　□22 歳以上
3. 今までに英語圏の国を訪ねたことがありますか。　□はい　□いいえ
4. 3 の質問に「はい」と答えた人は、トータルでどれくらい滞在したか答えて下さい。

　□3 ヶ月以内　□3 ヶ月—12 ヶ月　□1 年—2 年　□2 年以上

5. 3 の質問に「はい」と答えた人は、国名を書いてください。

Appendix Two – First Questionnaire (Japanese original)

第２部：　中学、高校での経験

該当する番号を丸で囲って下さい。

５－非常に多く　　４－多く　　３－普通　　２－あまり　　１－ほとんど/ 全くない

中学校の英語の授業で、どれくらい…….	
6. 文法を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
7. Listening を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
8. Speaking を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
9. Reading を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
10. Writing を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
11. グループ学習をしましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
12. 暗記をさせられましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
13. 英語を使ったクリエイティブな学習をしましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
14. 英語圏の国々の文化を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
15. 外国人教師、外国人学生と接する機会がありましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
16. 塾で、英語を学びましたか。	5　4　3　2　1

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

17. 授業は面白かった。	5　4　3　2　1
18. 授業で習った英語はコミュニケーションに役立つものだった。	5　4　3　2　1
19. 授業の質は高かった。	5　4　3　2　1
20. 授業の内容は高校への進学に十分足りるものだった。	5　4　3　2　1

５－非常に多く　　４－多く　　３－普通　　２－あまり　　１－ほとんど/ 全くない

高等学校の英語の授業で、どれくらい…….	
21. 文法を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
22. Listening を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
23. Speaking を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
24. Reading を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
25. Writing を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
26. グループ学習をしましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
27. 暗記をさせられましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
28. 英語を使ったクリエイティブな学習をしましたか	5　4　3　2　1
29. 英語圏の国々の文化を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
30. 外国人教師、外国人学生と接する機会がありましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
31. 塾で、英語を学びましたか。	5　4　3　2　1

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない ２－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

32. 授業は面白かった。	5　4　3　2　1
33. 授業で習った英語はコミュニケーションに役立つものだった。	5　4　3　2　1
34. 授業の質は高かった。	5　4　3　2　1
35. 授業の内容は大学への進学に十分足りるものだった。	5　4　3　2　1

Appendix Two – First Questionnaire (Japanese original)

第 3 部： 大学の英語教育に対する期待

５－非常に多く　４－多く　３－普通　２－あまり　１－ほとんど/ 全くなし

大学の英語の授業で、どれくらい……	
36. 文法を習うと思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
37. Listening を習うと思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
38. Speaking を習うと思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
39. Reading を習うと思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
40. Writing を習うと思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
41. グループ学習をすると思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
42. 暗記させられることがあるとおもいますか。	5 4 3 2 1
43. 英語を使ってクリエイティブな学習をすると思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
44. 英語圏の国々の文化を習うと思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
45. 外国人教師、外国人学生と接する機会があると思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1
46. 授業が楽しいと思いますか。	5 4 3 2 1

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

英語の授業を受けて、1 年生の最後までには、	
47. 自分の専攻の参考文献が英語で読めるようになることを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
48. 自分の専攻のレポート、論文を英語で書けるようになることを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
49. 自分の専攻に関する発表が英語でできるようになることを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
50. 留学できる程度の英語力が身につくことを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
51. 英語で十分なコミュニケーションが図れるようになることを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
52. 英語の文法、構造などの知識が深まることを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
53. 将来の仕事のために十分な英語力が得られることを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
54. 英語圏の国々、人々、文化について多くの知識が得られることを期待している。	5 4 3 2 1
55. あまり英語の力が伸びるとは思わない。	5 4 3 2 1
56. 何も期待していない。単位を取るために勉強するだけだから。	5 4 3 2 1

Appendix Two – First Questionnaire (Japanese original)

第４部：　英語の学習者として

５－ほとんどいつも　４－よく　３－時々　２－たまに　１－ほとんど/全くない

項目	5	4	3	2	1
57. 英語で書かれた新聞、本、雑誌などを読む。	5	4	3	2	1
58. 手紙、メモ、日記、レポートなどを英語で書いている。	5	4	3	2	1
59. テレビ、ラジオの英会話番組で勉強している。	5	4	3	2	1
60. 英会話学校に通っている。	5	4	3	2	1
61. 授業以外で、できるだけ英語で話しをする機会を捕らえようとしている。	5	4	3	2	1

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

項目	5	4	3	2	1
62. 自分が目指しているレベルの英語力は獲得できると思う。	5	4	3	2	1
63. 英語を勉強している時に気が散りやすい。	5	4	3	2	1
64. 英語の授業はリラックスして、落ち着いて受けられる。	5	4	3	2	1
65. 外国人と英語で話をする時、不安になる。	5	4	3	2	1

第５部：　英語に対する現在の考え

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

項目	5	4	3	2	1
66. 英語と日本語では、言語の構造、性格がずいぶん違うので、それが英語習得を困難にしている。	5	4	3	2	1
67. 地理的に離れていることが、英語圏の人々、文化との接触を困難にしている。	5	4	3	2	1
68. 日本と英語圏の文化には大きな隔たりがあるので、たとえ英語ができても英語圏の人々を理解するのは難しい。	5	4	3	2	1
69. 日本では、英語に堪能なのは日本社会、文化への軽視の表れと考えられる。	5	4	3	2	1
70. 英語を学ぶことで外国の考え方が入ることによって日本の文化が脅かされる。	5	4	3	2	1
71. 日本の社会はもともと外国の人や物に対して拒否反応があり、外国語に対しても同様である。	5	4	3	2	1
72. 近い将来英語を公用語にするとの議論がされているが、それは日本にとってよいことだ。	5	4	3	2	1
73. 英語以前に、隣国の言語、韓国語、中国語などを学ぶべきだ。	5	4	3	2	1
74. 両親は将来のために英語を勉強するように薦めているので、私が英語に堪能になれば喜ぶ。	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix Two – First Questionnaire (Japanese original)

第６部：　英語習得に対する現在の動機

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

75. 英語を学んで世界中の多くの、さまざまな人々と会って話をしたい。	5	4	3	2	1
76. 英語を学んで英語圏の文化、社会、人々をもっと理解したい。	5	4	3	2	1
77. 英語を学ぶと将来もっとよい職業につける。	5	4	3	2	1
78. 英語を学んで英語圏の人々と同じような行動、振る舞いができるようになりたい。	5	4	3	2	1
79. 英語の学習で外国の人々の考え方に触れることにより、日本人としてのアイデンティティーが確立できる。	5	4	3	2	1
80. 英語は、宣伝、メディアなどの分野で日本の社会に深く浸透しているので、日本で日常生活を送る上でも、英語の学習は重要である。	5	4	3	2	1
81. 英語を学んで将来留学したい。	5	4	3	2	1
82. 英語を学んで、海外旅行の役に立てたい。	5	4	3	2	1
83. TOIEC、TOEFL、英検でよい点をとることは大切である。	5	4	3	2	1
84. 英語を学習することで自分の視野が広がる。	5	4	3	2	1
85. 英語を学んで、外国の音楽、スポーツ、映画などを楽しみたい。	5	4	3	2	1
86. 英語の学習は他の言語を学ぶときの助けとなる。	5	4	3	2	1
87. 英語を流暢に話せる人に憧れる。	5	4	3	2	1
88. 英語は国際語なので習得する必要がある。	5	4	3	2	1
89. 英語の学習は自らの成長に役に立つ。	5	4	3	2	1
90. 英語はコンピューターを使用する上で不可欠である。	5	4	3	2	1
91. 将来外国で働きたいので英語は絶対に必要である。	5	4	3	2	1
92. 率直に言って、なぜ英語を勉強しなければならないのかわからない。	5	4	3	2	1
93. 英語を学習することで、自分の言語、日本語がもっと理解できる。	5	4	3	2	1
94. 英語を話している自分を想像するとワクワクする。	5	4	3	2	1
95. 英語を勉強しないと、周囲から置いて行かれるような気がする。	5	4	3	2	1
96. 本心をいえば、英語を勉強するのは時間の無駄だ。	5	4	3	2	1
97. 英語の難しい構造を習得するのに喜びを感じる。	5	4	3	2	1
98. 英語の学習をすることで、外国の人々に日本をもっと理解してもらうように働きかけることが可能になる。	5	4	3	2	1
上記以外に英語を学習する理由がある人は書いてください。					

Appendix Three – Second Questionnaire (English Translation)

ABOUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear university students,

This is a sequel to the questionnaire which you were asked to answer this April.
I have the pleasure to benefit from your frank and clear answers to the present questionnaire. Your responses to the questionnaire will be extremely useful in helping authorities in making their future plans for the teaching and learning of English at school and at university.
May I therefore thank you in advance for your co-operation in completing the questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,
Taeko Seki

A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF

Please provide information about yourself by ticking the appropriate box:

1. Gender: male female
2. Did you go to an English-speaking country this academic year? Yes No
3. If in 3. above you ticked YES, please estimate the total amount of time you spent there: less than a week more than a week more than2 weeks more than 3 weeks more than a month more than two months
4. If in 3. above you ticked YES, in which countries did this take place? (Please state)
5. If in 3. above you ticked YES, was that your first trip to an English-speaking country? Yes No

Appendix Three – Second Questionnaire (English translation)

B. EXPERIENCE AND MEETING OF EXPECTATIONS: UNIVERSITY ENGLISH

Please indicate how much or how little you received of the following and how they met your expectations. Very much---5 Much---4 Some---3 Not much---2 Little or none---1		
6	a. How much teaching of grammar did you receive?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
7	a. How much listening to English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How much did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
8	a. How much speaking in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
9	a. How much reading in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
10	a. How much writing in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
11	a. How much work in small groups did you to do?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations	5 4 3 2 1
12	a. How much learning by heart did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
13	a. How much creative work in English did you do?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
14	a. How much teaching of the culture of English-speaking countries did you receive?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
15	a. How much contact with native-speakers of English did you receive?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
16	a. How much enjoyment did you receive from your class?	5 4 3 2 1
	b. How did it meet your expectations?	5 4 3 2 1
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1		
After learning English for a year at university….		
17. I feel I have made considerable progress in reading references in English.		5 4 3 2 1
18. I feel I have made considerable progress in writing essays in English.		5 4 3 2 1
19. I feel I have made considerable progress in giving presentations in English.		5 4 3 2 1
20. I feel considerably more capable of studying abroad in an English-speaking country		5 4 3 2 1
21. I feel I have made considerable progress in communicating fluently in English		5 4 3 2 1
22. I have a good knowledge of English grammar and structure.		5 4 3 2 1
23. I feel I have made considerable progress in learning English for a future job.		5 4 3 2 1
24 I have learned a lot about different countries and cultures in which English is used, and the different peoples who speak English.		5 4 3 2 1
25. I have not made much progress in English.		5 4 3 2 1
26. I did not have any expectations. I learned English only for getting credits.		5 4 3 2 1

Appendix Three – Second Questionnaire (English translation)

C. YOU AS A LANGUAGE LEARNER

Please indicate how often or how rarely you do the following. Very often---5 Often---4 Sometimes---3 Seldom---2 Never---1	
27. I read materials written in English, such as newspaper, books and journals.	5 4 3 2 1
28. I write things in English, such as letters, notes, diaries and reports.	5 4 3 2 1
29. I study English through language programme on TV or on the radio.	5 4 3 2 1
30. I attend a private language school to learn English conversation.	5 4 3 2 1
31. I try to grasp every opportunity to use English outside the classroom.	5 4 3 2 1
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
32. I will be able to reach the level of English proficiency at which I am aiming.	5 4 3 2 1
33. I am easily distracted from learning English.	5 4 3 2 1
34. When I enter the English class, I feel very relaxed and confident.	5 4 3 2 1
35. When I have an opportunity to speak English with a native speaking person, I feel anxious.	5 4 3 2 1

D. YOUR CURRENT ATTITUDES TO ENGLISH

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
36. Learning English is difficult because it is too different from the Japanese language.	5 4 3 2 1
37. Geographical isolation from the West makes it difficult to contact English culture and people.	5 4 3 2 1
38. Japanese cultural distance from the West makes it difficult for us to understand people from Western cultures, even when a Japanese person has reasonably good English.	5 4 3 2 1
39. Proficiency in English is generally regarded as constituting a negative attitude towards Japanese culture and society.	5 4 3 2 1
40. The importation of foreign ideas through learning English threatens Japanese culture.	5 4 3 2 1
41. Japanese society is xenophobic, towards both foreigners and foreign languages.	5 4 3 2 1
42. The possible adoption of English as a second language in Japan is currently topic of debate: I think it would be good for Japan.	5 4 3 2 1
43. The languages of neighbouring countries (e.g. Korean, Chinese) should be learned before English.	5 4 3 2 1
44. My parents will be happy if I become proficient in English, because they encourage me to learn English for the future.	5 4 3 2 1

Appendix Three – Second Questionnaire (English translation)

E. YOUR CURRENT MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Strongly agree---5 Agree---4 Neutral---3 Disagree---2 Strongly disagree---1	
45. I learn English because I want to meet and converse with more and varied people in the world.	5 4 3 2 1
46. I learn English because I want to better understand the culture, society and people of English-speaking countries.	5 4 3 2 1
47. Learning English will enable me to get a more prestigious job in the future.	5 4 3 2 1
48. I learn English because I want to behave in ways similar to English-speaking people.	5 4 3 2 1
49. Learning English will enable to enhance my identity as a Japanese person in the modern world by understanding foreign ideas through English.	5 4 3 2 1
50. English is prevalent in daily life in Japan (in, for example, English-language advertising, preference for English use by the media, etc), and therefore learning English is very important for daily life in Japan.	5 4 3 2 1
51. I learn English because I want to study abroad.	5 4 3 2 1
52. I learn English because it is beneficial when travelling abroad.	5 4 3 2 1
53. To get a high score in TOEFL, TOIEC, STEP (State English exam) is very important for my future.	5 4 3 2 1
54. Learning English will widen my horizons	5 4 3 2 1
55. I want to enjoy foreign music, sports, or movies by learning English.	5 4 3 2 1
56. Learning English will help when I learn other languages.	5 4 3 2 1
57. I admire the fluent Japanese speaker of English.	5 4 3 2 1
58. Learning English is important because it is an international language.	5 4 3 2 1
59. Learning English is important for my personal development.	5 4 3 2 1
60. Learning English is essential to operate a computer.	5 4 3 2 1
61. Learning English is essential because I want to work overseas.	5 4 3 2 1
62. I cannot see why I study English and frankly, it means nothing to me.	5 4 3 2 1
63. I find English interesting because it gives me insight into my own language, Japanese.	5 4 3 2 1
64. I experience a 'high' feeling while speaking in English.	5 4 3 2 1
65. I will be out of a circle of my friends if I do not study English.	5 4 3 2 1
66. I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying English.	5 4 3 2 1
67. I experience enjoyment when I grasp a difficult construct in English.	5 4 3 2 1
68. Learning English enable me to make foreign people understand Japan more.	5 4 3 2 1
If there is/are other personal reason(s) for learning English, please state.	

Appendix Four – Second Questionnaire (Japanese original)

アンケート調査：　英語学習について

これは４月に実施した大学１年生の英語学習に対する意識調査の後追いのアンケートです。ここでの意見が、学校及び大学での今後の英語教育の方針を立てる際に大きな助けとなります。率直な意見を聞かせてください。ご協力感謝します。　関　妙子

第１部　あなた自身について

1. 性別：　□男性　□女性

２．４月から学年末までの間に英語圏の国を訪ねましたか。　□はい　□いいえ

３．３の質問に「はい」と答えた人は、トータルでどれくらい滞在したか答えて下さい。

□１週間以内　□３週間以内　□３週間―１ヶ月月以内　□１ヶ月―２ヶ月以内

□２ヶ月以上

４．３の質問に「はい」と答えた人は、国名を書いてください。

５．３の質問に「はい」と答えた人はそれが英語圏の国への最初の旅行でしたか。

□はい　□いいえ

Appendix Four – Second Questionnaire (Japanese original)

第２部：　大学の英語教育に対する期待と期待への適合の度合

５－非常に多く　４－多く　３－普通　２－あまり　１－ほとんど/ 全くなし

大学の英語の授業でどれくらい次の事柄について習いましたか。それはどれくらい期待に添いましたか。		
6	a. どれくらい文法を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
7	a. どれくらい Listening を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
8	a. どれくらい Speaking を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
9	a. どれくらい Reading を習いましたか	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
10	a. どれくらい Writing を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
11	a. どれくらいグループ学習をしましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
12	a. どれくらい暗記学習をしましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
13	a. どれくらい英語を使ったクリエイティブな学習をしましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
14	a. どれくらい英語圏の国々の文化を習いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
15	a. どれくらい外国人教師、外国人学生と接する機会がありましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1
16	a. どれくらい授業は楽しかったですか。	5　4　3　2　1
	b. それはあなたの期待にどれくらい添いましたか。	5　4　3　2　1

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

英語の授業を受けて、１年たった今、	
17. 自分の専攻の参考文献を英語で読むために、かなりの成果があったと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
18. 自分の専攻のレポート、論文を英語で書くために、かなりの成果があったと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
19. 自分の専攻に関する発表を英語でするために、かなりの成果があったと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
20. 留学を現実のものとして考えることができる程度の英語力が身についたと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
21. 英語でコミュニケーションをはかるために、かなりの成果があったと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
22. 英語の文法、構造などの知識が深まったと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
23. 将来の仕事のためにかなりの英語力が得られたと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
24. 英語圏の国々、人々、文化について多くの知識が得られたと思う。	5　4　3　2　1
25. あまり英語の力が伸びたとは思わない。	5　4　3　2　1
26. 何も期待していなかった。単位を取るために勉強しただけだから。	5　4　3　2　1

Appendix Four – Second Questionnaire (Japanese original)

第３部：　英語の学習者として

５－ほとんどいつも　４－よく　３－時々　２－たまに　１－ほとんど/全くない

27. 英語で書かれた新聞、本、雑誌などを読む。	5　4　3　2　1
28. 手紙、メモ、日記、レポートなどを英語で書いている。	5　4　3　2　1
29. テレビ、ラジオの英会話番組で勉強している。	5　4　3　2　1
30. 英会話学校に通っている。	5　4　3　2　1
31. 授業以外で、できるだけ英語で話しをする機会を捕らえようとしている。	5　4　3　2　1

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

32. 自分が目指しているレベルの英語力は獲得できると思う。	5　4　3　2　1
33. 英語を勉強している時に気が散りやすい。	5　4　3　2　1
34. 英語の授業はリラックスして、落ち着いて受けられる。	5　4　3　2　1
35. 外国人と英語で話をする時、不安になる。	5　4　3　2　1

第４部：　英語に対する現在の考え

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

36. 英語と日本語では、言語の構造、性格がずいぶん違うので、それが英語習得を困難にしている。	5　4　3　2　1
37. 地理的に離れていることが、英語圏の人々、文化との接触を困難にしている。	5　4　3　2　1
38. 日本と英語圏の文化には大きな隔たりがあるので、たとえ英語ができても英語圏の人々を理解するのは難しい。	5　4　3　2　1
39. 日本では、英語に堪能なのは日本社会、文化への軽視の表れと考えられる。	5　4　3　2　1
40. 英語を学ぶことで外国の考え方が入ることによって日本の文化が脅かされる。	5　4　3　2　1
41. 日本の社会はもともと外国の人や物に対して拒否反応があり、外国語に対しても同様である。	5　4　3　2　1
42. 近い将来英語を公用語にするとの議論がされているが、それは日本にとってよいことだ。	5　4　3　2　1
43. 英語以前に、隣国の言語、韓国語、中国語などを学ぶべきだ。	5　4　3　2　1
44. 両親は将来のために英語を勉強するように薦めているので、私が英語に堪能になれば喜ぶ。	5　4　3　2　1

Appendix Four – Second Questionnaire (Japanese original)

第５部：　英語習得に対する現在の動機

5－非常にそう思う 4－そう思う 3－どちらでもない 2－あまりそう思わない 1－全くそう思わない

45. 英語を学んで世界中の多くの、さまざまな人々と会って話をしたい。	5	4	3	2	1
46. 英語を学んで英語圏の文化、社会、人々をもっと理解したい。	5	4	3	2	1
47. 英語を学ぶと将来もっとよい職業につける。	5	4	3	2	1
48. 英語を学んで英語圏の人々と同じような行動、振る舞いができるようになりたい。	5	4	3	2	1
49. 英語の学習で外国の人々の考え方に触れることにより、日本人としてのアイデンティティーが確立できる。	5	4	3	2	1
50. 英語は、宣伝、メディアなどの分野で日本の社会に深く浸透しているので、日本で日常生活を送る上でも、英語の学習は重要である。	5	4	3	2	1
51. 英語を学んで将来留学したい。	5	4	3	2	1
52. 英語を学んで、海外旅行の役に立てたい。	5	4	3	2	1
53. TOIEC、TOEFL、英検でよい点をとることは大切である。	5	4	3	2	1
54. 英語を学習することで自分の視野が広がる。	5	4	3	2	1
55. 英語を学んで、外国の音楽、スポーツ、映画などを楽しみたい。	5	4	3	2	1
56. 英語の学習は他の言語を学ぶときの助けとなる。	5	4	3	2	1
57. 英語を流暢に話せる人に憧れる。	5	4	3	2	1
58. 英語は国際語なので習得する必要がある。	5	4	3	2	1
59. 英語の学習は自らの成長に役に立つ。	5	4	3	2	1
60. 英語はコンピューターを使用する上で不可欠である。	5	4	3	2	1
61. 将来外国で働きたいので英語は絶対に必要である。	5	4	3	2	1
62. 率直に言って、なぜ英語を勉強しなければならないのかわからない。	5	4	3	2	1
63. 英語を学習することで、自分の言語、日本語がもっと理解できる。	5	4	3	2	1
64. 英語を話している自分を想像するとワクワクする。	5	4	3	2	1
65. 英語を勉強しないと、周囲から置いて行かれるような気がする。	5	4	3	2	1
66. 本心をいえば、英語を勉強するのは時間の無駄だ。	5	4	3	2	1
67. 英語の難しい構造を習得するのに喜びを感じる。	5	4	3	2	1
68. 英語の学習をすることで、外国の人々に日本をもっと理解してもらうように働きかけることが可能になる。	5	4	3	2	1
上記以外に英語を学習する理由がある人は書いてください。					

Appendix Five – First Group Interview (English translation)

Appendix Five– First Group Interview (English translation)

I: How do you assess the English lessons at university so far (2 months after starting), compared with your expectations at the beginning of university?

M1: As someone who took an extra year of preparation after finishing high school to enter university [a *ronin*], I really worked hard for the entrance exam. I never really got the high school classes, but the preparatory school [*juku*] had much easier to understand classes, and as we were studying with a real sense of purpose, I feel that my English ability improved tremendously there.

F1: How are *juku* English classes different to high school classes?

M1: Firstly, the teachers have a different sense of purpose. In *juku*, if they give good classes, they'll get more students and therefore more money. My impression is that it's not so important for high school teachers to actually teach – what with educational guidance and guidance counseling, they only spare 20-30 percent of their efforts on classes. *Juku* teachers can concentrate 100% on the classes.

I: How do you assess English education after entering university?

M1: I am enjoying not only learning English but also all sorts of other stuff through English. I'm thinking of concentrating on English during the summer break.

F2: Honestly, I didn't have very high expectations for English education at university, because I'd heard that the level was no higher than the average at middle school, but it's been way better than I expected. It's not just reading and translating English into Japanese like at high school, we also get to learn about other cultures and so on. There're tutorials there if we want them, too, so I think it's basically good.

M2: Unlike [her], I had high expectations for English education at university, so now I've actually tried it, I wasn't at all impressed, in fact I was disappointed.

M3: I'm taking the tutorials, and they're more interesting than I had expected. In that regard, I'm happy I came to university.

F1: Yeah, because we don't have any other chance other than the tutorials to speak English. [*Group agrees*]

M3: I have a part-time job at a wedding hall. Recently a 100 or so Mexicans came for dinner, something related to the World Cup, and while I was distributing and collecting food and so on I was saying 'excuse me' and 'I'll clear this for you' in Japanese, and wondering all the time how to say them in English. I tried asking 'OK?' [*Group laughs*], and one of the Mexicans said 'Finished', and I was left thinking 'I know that word, it's so simple, but after six years of English study I couldn't use it'. I wish we could have classes that were centered around real situations, like asking for directions and so on, where we can really try asking and answering. I'm sure translation is good study, but it was quite a shock to decide I wanted to say something and then not be able to say it.

F2: Don't you do that kind of stuff in tutorials?

F1: We sometimes do a kind of role-play based on the textbook in tutorials.

F2: Yeah, but that's always a discussion on some difficult theme, right? Wouldn't it be better to have more real-life basic kind of stuff? What kind of stuff do you do?

M3: For basic kind of stuff, we practice asking and giving directions, things like that.

F1: I'm doing inter-media, and we practice fairly normal conversations, talking about what you liked about a recent trip and so on.

M3: I once saw a foreigner buying a ticket in Tokyo Station, saying something to the attendant there. The attendant didn't understand at all, and I thought that it must be really difficult for foreigners in Japan.

F1: Foreign people think that they'll be able to use English normally in Japan. But no

way, right? I mean, as a Japanese, I want to say 'if you come to Japan, speak Japanese!' [*Group laughs agreement*]

M3: But, for us to study English so long and then not be able to actually use it … Myself, I think English is to be used, I want to be able to actually use it, because it's such a widely spoken common language and all.

M1: I agree that we need more practical English classes oriented to output instead of just getting input. Though there are some people who went through the traditional system and can speak English, right? Yeah, I guess I don't mind keeping on studying English. But I think that even if this university were to decide to make English conversation compulsory from next year, students, with their current character, wouldn't end up able to speak English.

F1: There's no way around that. I'm going to a private English Conversation School, and we have to speak only English there. If we use Japanese, we have to pay 1000 yen [5 pounds]. You have to speak and communicate in English. I don't think Japanese students English will improve unless they are forced like this to speak English.

M1: Sure such foundations are necessary, but to some extent we understand what we hear in English even if we can't speak. I think we need to know which of the stuff we've learned so far we should actually pick up and use.

F1: I think it's a Japanese characteristic to be unable to speak through sheer embarrassment. You worry that "maybe my English is wrong" and so on and end up unable to say anything, so I think maybe for beginners, English conversation practice should be between non-natives. Between two non-natives even just single words is OK, but with a native speaker, they speak perfect English, so you end up feeling timid and unable to speak, I think.

I: What do you think of the idea that Japanese are shy? Shy enough that it is a barrier to language learning?

M3: In high school, I asked the teacher questions and it was OK at first, but somewhere along the way the teacher started looking fed up, so … [*Group indicates agreement*]

I: Have you ever held back from saying something because you're part of a group?

M3: It's not so much being shy as not wanting to be thought to be such a serious student.

F1: You don't want to stand out, right? [*Group indicates agreement*]

M1: It's said that being bullied starts with things like that.

M3: I went to public schools, and in middle school the students were at so many different ability levels. In high school though, the classes were more even, and I had more of a chance to ask questions.

F3: Just before, about two nonnative speakers practising together – I've done that in class, but it didn't do my English any good at all.

F4: Me, too – because you're both Japanese, neither of you can even be sure that your partner's English is correct, so you can't correct each other – it's pretty meaningless. And besides, even if you're speaking in English, you can more or less understand each other just because you're both Japanese.

F1: Certainly when both people are Japanese, the English can end up utterly broken, but … well, I think it's good in the sense that it's still a chance to speak English.

F3: Slightly better than nothing, you could say? [*Group laughs agreement*]

I: Is there any Japanese characteristic or a social context which works as hindrance when learning English?

F2: Well, there are hardly any contexts in which there's a chance to speak English. About the only chance is if you happen to be accosted by a foreigner.

M3: But recently the number of shops with some staff who can speak English are increasing, right?

M2: Maybe the sense that being able to speak English is to be taken as a given is

spreading even amongst Japanese?

F1: It certainly looks like you'd better take TOEIC or something before looking for a job. Apparently each company has a certain TOEIC level required for advancement.

M3: Is TOEIC really so important? Everyone makes a real fuss about it, but …

F1: I guess that's because more and more companies won't employ you, let alone promote you or give you a raise, if you have a low score, isn't it?

M3: It sounds strange, but it seems you *have* to sit the TOEIC test.

F1: There are lots of people in the train studying English problems recently, aren't there. [*group indicates agreement*]

M3: What use is TOEIC, anyway?

F3: I know someone who has a score of over 800 points, but they can't even hold a basic conversation. Even if you handle listening, speaking is an entirely different issue. At high school we had listening classes and I could understand what the teacher said, but I couldn't speak at all.

M3: Japanese people can pick up what is said, but when they come to say something, they first arrange all the grammar in their head, and then speak, right? And doing that, they falter.

F1: I've been going to an English Conversation school for over a year now, and I've just recently started to be able to speak in English.

I: So what do you think we should be doing to make our English study more effective?

M4: Japan has the lowest TOEIC score of all the Asian countries, so I think we need to get people in contact with English from an early an age as possible.

M1: I think, on the other hand, that we ought to study Japanese more. I think you need to properly master one language first, and other languages can come afterwards. I don't agree with the idea of starting English education off at kindergarten age, making kids listen to English and so on.

F1: Why is that? It's no good?

M1: I think you can't handle complex ideas if your Japanese isn't at a good level.

M2: My high school teacher said that students who have difficulty doing well in English have some problem with their Japanese. That if your Japanese is up to scratch, you'll learn foreign languages comparatively easily.

I: Why do Japanese people find it English so difficult? Is something getting in their way?

F1: I think Japanese people, faced with foreigners, have a real inferiority complex. And perhaps the foreigners look down on the Japanese a little too.

I: Do you think that complex is a continuation of the inadequacy Japan felt in the face of Western culture that led to the Meiji Restoration? Or because of the defeat in WWII?

F2: Nothing so deep.

M3: Others countries have lots of immigrants, but there are almost none into Japan, it's just us Japanese. That has a big effect on the environment here, right? And then, Japan is an island, too.

F1: Coming into contact with something different is almost unknown.

M2: The national attitude is that everyone has to become the same. [*Group indicates agreement*] People are really quick to follow if the general view is that, for example, thin women are better, or people who speak English are better. That's why people are so embarrassed if they can't speak English.

F1: That said, I really think that people who can speak English are cool.

I: In what way?

F2: Looks. It's obvious that foreigners are more stylish.

[*More than one voice, heated:*] But that's just what you've been made to think!!

I: What do you find stylish?

M2: All through the time we're children, we come more into contact with foreign

commercials, movies, music, etc, and even the Japanese ones we come into contact with are heavily influenced. So the foreign stuff seems like the real thing, the genuine article.

I: Meaning you're all left admiring English?

M3: Admiration? Better to say I think that I want to go to lots of places, so I'll be stuck if I can't speak English. Because for a wide range of experiences, it's overseas …

M1: And after all, it's cool to be able to speak English. [*Group laughs*]

M2: Even shop names look better written horizontally rather than in Japanese-style.

F2: And song lyrics are mostly English, too, right? Sometimes with some Japanese thrown in.

M1: So if it's just being written horizontally, Russian would be fine too, right?

F1: It's just that English is of more importance now, so everyone learning English …

I: As an island nation, do we have a longing for the outer world?

[*group*:] Yes, yes!

F2: Just like bilingual people being so cool.

F1: Japanese girls who've come back from living overseas with their families, I guess in a sense it's a given thing that they'll speak English, though they're different from people who went overseas because they wanted to study. Are there any such returnees here? If not, I'll carry on, because I hate these returnee girls. Somehow, they're so proud that they can speak English, and they look down on those who can't.

M3: I guess there are people like that.

F1: They're so smug and critical. Of Japanese for not showing their emotions, or being formal, etc.

M3: I'm really open to that, I mean, they have a different image to us, but I don't think that's such a negative thing.

F1: I think I'm really Japanese.

I: Will you explain what you mean by 'Japanese' there?

F1: Japan is a vertically structured society, right? I'm used to this, so I value politeness highly, always use honorifics when speaking of the elderly; but Japanese girls who've come back from living overseas, they can't read the atmosphere of a social situation, they say things that shouldn't be said, things like that. This individualism is OK too, but Japanese people put the interests of the group first. I think that kind of cooperative personality is very important in Japan.

I: The fact that you're part of a group is that important?

F1: Yeah, because the gains that can be made in acting as one member of a group are greater than the gains that can be made by acting as an individual. Japanese collectivism.

M1: This collectivism and cooperative personality and so on are obstacles when learning English, but I don't think that they're bad in and of themselves. [G*roup indicates agreement*] The good part of being Japanese is that we can understand each other even though much is left unsaid.

F2: Not putting things into words is the peculiarity of the culture. Like when, from a couple of words in a *haiku* poem, we all imagine the same scene.

F4: But Japanese have a real tendency to be self-deprecating. We're so quick to stay silent, or to fall silent part way through even though you're something you want to say, right? I think that's a real shame. Because we can't be understood except by other Japanese.

M3: And then, America is at the opposite extreme, right, there is no middle way. Japan's way can't be understood as the moderate, middle path internationally.

M4: I saw a TV program introducing Japanese cuisine from England – it was totally different, I was really surprised. I guess Japan isn't really known that well. I don't like the idea of being so misunderstood.

I: So do you study English to better express Japanese culture, people and society to

make foreign people more understand us? Or do you study English to better know their culture, people and society, and take on those ways of thought?

M1: The latter, I think.

M3: I'm a little different – I'm studying it as a means to communicate with people from all sorts of countries, so absorbing the culture isn't my goal.

F1: I think the point of learning languages, not just English, is to know about each others culture.

I: Do you think English is necessary in Japan?

F1: As long as you're in Japan, no. But if you want to have some contact with international culture, you can't avoid English.

M1: Depends on your job, too.

F1: True. But it isn't necessary for a normal housewife. [*Group indicates agreement*]

M1: But English is definitely required for the kinds of jobs that recent graduates can do straight out of university. [*Group indicates agreement*]

M2: And computer stuff is all in English, too.

F1: English is certainly becoming more and more *the* international language.

M3: And with the way English and text in the roman writing-style is increasing, even housewives have to know a little English. [*Group indicates agreement*]

I: Thank-you very much.

Appendix Six – First Group Interview (Japanese original)

I：　入学直後の期待と現時点での評価。入学直後の期待から始めます。
M1:　浪人して入学した僕としては受験勉強は頑張りました。高校の授業のことはよくわからないですが、予備校は授業もわかりやすいし目的意識を持って勉強してるからその一年間で学力が成長したというのは感じます。
I：　学校の授業と予備校の授業の違いは？
M1:　まず、先生の目的意識が違います。予備校というのは良い授業をすれば生徒が集まって給料も高くなるから。聞いた話によると、高校の先生は授業を教えると言うことは重要ではなくて、それよりも生活指導や進路指導で手いっぱいだから授業に割く労力は 20～30％ぐらいだって。予備校の先生と言うのは 100%授業に集中できる。
I:　高校は私立ですか？公立ですか？
M1:　公立です。
I:　現時点での評価はどうですか？
M1:　英語だけでなく色んな知識を得ることができるので授業に出ていて楽しいです。夏休みは英語だけは勉強しようと思っています。
I:　他に何かありますか？
F2:　正直言って、大学での英語の授業に期待はしていませんでした。大学の英語のレベルは中学並に低いと聞いていたので、それに比べれば期待よりは遥かに高かったので良かったと思います。英語を和訳するだけでなく知識も得ることができるので。やろうと思えばチュートリアルも取れるし自分でオプションが付けられるので、基本的には良かったと思います。
M2:　僕はフクハラとは違って、大学の英語教育には期待していたので実際やってみたら大したことはなかったので失望しました。
M3:　俺はチュートリアルを取ってるんだけど期待以上に面白かった。そういう点では俺は大学に入って良かったなと思う。
F1:　私たちはチュートリアル以外に英語をしゃべる機会がないからね。
M3:　僕は結婚式場でバイトしていて、この間ワールドカップの関係でメキシコ人が 100 人ぐらいで食事をしに来た時、料理を出したり下げたりする時の「失礼します」とか「こちらをお下げいたします」というのが英語では何て言えばいいのかわからなくて言えなかったんです。それで空いた皿を下げる時に「OK?」と聞いて下げてたんですけど（一同笑う)、メキシコ人が「Finished」と言ったのを聞いて「あぁ、簡単な言葉で言えるんだ」というのがわかったのと同時に、知っている単語なのにそれが言えないのは実践の場がないからだと思ったんです。
I:　実践の場がないというのは大きいですよね。
M3:　英語の授業をするのでも、実際にそういう場面を作ってみて、例えば道を聞かれる場面とか、それでどう答えるかとかをやってみるほうがいいのかなと思いますね。確かに英語の文章を訳すのは力がつくかも知れないけど、いざしゃべろうと思ってもしゃべれないっていうのが一番ショックが大きかったな。
F2:　チュートリアルではそういうことはやらないの？
F1:　チュートリアルはテキストがあって一応ロールプレイングみたいなのもたまにやるけど。
F2:　でもそれは難しいテーマが出てディスカッションでしょ。もっと実用的な日常会話のほうが良くない？どういうのがあるの？
M3:　ベーシックでは道を聞かれて答えたりするのもあるよ。
F1:　私はインターミディア取ってて、例えば旅行に行って良かったことを説明してくださ

いっていう普通の会話の練習がある。

M3: 前に、東京駅で外人が切符を買ってる時に窓口でなんか言ってるんですよ。駅員もわかってなくて外人は特に大変だろうなと思った。

F1: 外人ってさ、日本に来て普通に英語が通じると思ってるでしょ。でも通じるわけないよね。日本人としては日本に来たら日本語しゃべれと思う。

M3: でも、僕たちは何年か英語の勉強をしてきてるのに実際に使えないっていうのは･･･俺は、英語は使うためにあると思うし、英語は共通語だからしゃべれるようになりたいなと思う。

M1: 今、実践的な英語の授業が必要だっていう話が出てましたけど、先生の時代は普通の授業だったんですよね。それでもしゃべれる人はしゃべれるんですよね。

M1: 英語をやってて損だとは思ってないんですよね。だけど、この大学で来年から英会話の授業を必修にしましょうということになっても、今の学生気質ではしゃべれるようにはならないと思うんですよね。

F1: 必然性の問題だと思うんですよね。私は英語学校にいってるんだけども、その学校は校内に入ったら英語しかしゃべっちゃいけないの。日本語をしゃべったら罰金なの。英語でコミュニケーションするしかないから絶対にしゃべらなきゃいけないの。そういう必然性を作らないと日本人は英語が上達しないと思う。

M1: 確かに基礎も必要ですけど、話せないけど言われればわかる言葉があるじゃないですか。だから今まで習った中でどれをピックアップして使えばいいかという勉強も必要だと思います。

F1: 実際に日本人の気質だと思うんだけど、恥ずかしくてしゃべれないということがあると思う。「私の英語は間違っているんじゃないか」とか心配になってしゃべれなくなっちゃうから、特にノンネイティブの初心者にとってはいい勉強方法かも知れませんね。ノンネイティブ同士だと最初は単語の羅列でも大丈夫だけど、最初にネイティブとしゃべると向こうが完璧な英語をしゃべるから臆してしまってしゃべれなくなってしまうということがあるかも知れませんね。

I: 日本人が恥ずかしがるという点はどうですか？知らないことはどんどん質問すれば上達も早いはずですよね。恥ずかしいというのは、本当に本質的に恥ずかしいということでしょうか？

M3: 高校の時なんか、教師に質問に行っても最初はいいんですけど、そのうち鬱陶しがられたりするから。

I: 集団の中で恥ずかしいから発言を控えるということがありますか。

M3: 恥ずかしいというより「あいつは真面目だ」とか思われたりするし。

F1: 目立っちゃうのはやっぱり避けたいよね。(皆同意する)

M1: いじめの原因はそこにあるって言われてるし。

M3: 俺の場合は公立だったんですけど、中学って色んなレベルがいるんですよ。だけど高校になればある程度レベルが揃っちゃうから、中学の時に比べたら質問はするようになるけど、中学生だったらそれこそ優等生と思われて疎まれるし、それに色んなレベルがいるから一人だけ目立っちゃうと、出る杭は打たれるみたいな感じでまずい。

F3: さっきのノンネイティブ同士が話すっていうのを私は授業でしたことがあるんだけど全然成長しなかった。

F4: 私も今、それをやってるんだけどお互い日本人だから相手の英語があっているのかもわからないし訂正もできないからあまり意味がないと思う。それに日本人同士で英語をしゃべろうとすると、何となくわかっちゃうんだよね。

F1: 確かに non-native 同士だと、すごくブロークンな英語になっちゃうけど、まぁ英語を話す機会を得るっていう意味ではいいと思う。

F3: ないよりはマシという程度かな。(一同笑いながら同意)

I: 日本人独特の気質、日本の社会特有の状況で何か英語学習の妨げになってるものがあると思いますか？　本当に英語を話す機会はないですか

All students: ない。

Appendix Six – First Group Interview (Japanese original)

F2:　話し掛けられでもしないかぎりはない。
M3:　でも最近では英語を話せる店員さんがいる店が増えてるよね。
M2:　日本人の中でも英語が話せて当たり前っていう意識が広まってるのかな？
F1:　確かに、就職のことを考えたら TOEIC とか取ったほうがいいみたい。会社によっては TOEIC の点数が何点以上ないと出世できないんだって。
M3:　実際 TOEIC って大事なんですか？みんな TOEIC って騒いでいるけど。
F1:　それは、点数が低いと入社もできなければ給料も上がらないし出世もさせてもらえない会社とかが増えてきたからじゃない？
M3:　言い方はおかしいけど TOEIC を受けないといけないという風潮になってきたっていう感じはあるよね。
F1:　最近、電車の中で問題やってる人良く見るよね。
All students:　いるいる。
M3:　TOEIC って使えるようになるため？
F3:　私の知ってる人は TOEIC800 点以上あるけど初級の会話もできない。
F3:　Listening が出来てもしゃべるのとは全然違うと思う。高校の時 Listening の授業が会って先生の言うことは分かるんだけど、全然しゃべれなかった。
M3:　日本人って聞き取りはできるけど、何かを言おうとするとまず頭の中で文法を組み立ててから話そうとするでしょ。そうすると詰まっちゃう。
F1:　私は英会話学校に一年以上通って、最近では英語で話せるようになりました。
I:　最後に英語を効率よく学習するためにはどうすればいいと思いますか？
M4:　日本はアジアの中で TOEIC のスコアが一番低い国だからできるだけ早い時期から英語に触れる環境を作るべきだと思う。
M1:　俺は逆に日本語をもっと勉強をした方がいいと思う。一つ言葉がしっかりしていれば他の言葉は後からでいいと思う。逆に幼稚園の頃から英語を聞かせたりする英才教育は僕はあんまり賛成できない。
FI:　それはなんで？なんでダメなの？
M1:　日本語がしっかりしていないと深い考えが出来ないと思う。
M2:　僕の高校の先生も言ってたけど、英語の成績が伸び悩む人は日本語に問題があるって言ってました。日本語がきちんとしていれば比較的楽に外国語を覚えられるって。
I:　一体なぜ私たち日本人は英語が苦手なんでしょうね？何が妨げになってるんでしょうね？
F1:　今までの意見以外に外人に対するコンプレックスも大きいと思います。むこうもこっちに対してちょっと蔑視の目とかもあると思うし。
I::　それって、何が原因なんでしょうね？明治維新の西洋文化に対する崇拝?　第２次大戦で負けたから？
F2:　そんなに深い理由じゃない。
M3:　他の国とかやっぱり移民が多いけど、日本にはほとんど入ないから、日本人だけだから。そういう環境って大きく影響しているんじゃないかな。島国だからって言うこともあるし。
F1:　違うものに触れるということ自体がほとんどないから。
M2:　みんな同じにならなきゃいけないような考え方をする国だから（一同賛同する)、逆に宣伝なんかで、女の人は細い方が良いとか、英語が出来た方が良いとか言うと、みんなそっちの方向にいくから、だから英語が出来ないと恥ずかしいとか思うんだよね。
F1:　やっぱり英語がしゃべれる人は格好いいと思う。
I:　具体的に何が格好いいの？
F2:　見た目。外人の方がスタイルがいいというのは絶対だと思う。
All students:　でもそれは植え付けられたイメージでしょ。(激しい口調で)
I:　どういうものを見て格好いいと思う？
M2:　私たちが生まれた頃から CM とか映画とか音楽とか、日本のものより外国のものに接する機会が多いし。日本の音楽もものすごく影響受けていて、むこうのものが本場み

たいな感じもあるし。

I: そうすると、みんなの中に英語に対するあこがれとかありますか？

M3: あこがれというか、自分はいろんなとこに行きたいと思ってるから、英語がしゃべれないと困るじゃないですか。色々な経験をするためにやっぱり海外に行きたいから。

M1: でもやっぱり英語しゃべれるとかっこいいと思うよね。(一同笑う)

M2: 店の名前でも単純に横文字のほうが格好いいと思ったり。

F2: 歌の歌詞なんかも英語が多いよね。どきどき日本語挟んだりして。

M1: 横文字なら英語じゃなくてロシア語でもいいわけだよね。

F1: でも今は英語の重要度が高いから、みんな英語を習っているだけでしょ。

I: 日本という島国にいて外に対する憧れがある？

All students: うん、あるある。

F2: 海外経験がないのにバイリンガルの人がいたら格好いいよね。

F1: 帰国子女が英語を話せるのはある意味で当たり前だし、希望して留学した人とは違うんだけど。ここに帰国の人がいる？いないなら話すけど、私は帰国子女が嫌い。何故って帰国子女は往々にして、英語を話せない人を見下しがちだから。

M3: それはあるかも。

F1: やたらに日本を批判する態度がいやだ。日本人は感情を出さないとか、形式的だとか。

M3: 僕は逆にすごくオープンで、自分たちとは違うなというイメージがあるけどそんなにマイナスなイメージじゃないな。

F1: 私が凄く日本的なのかもしれない。

I: 日本的ってどういうことか説明してください。

F1: 日本は縦社会でしょ。私は縦社会に慣れているから、礼儀とか重んじて、年上の人に対しては敬語じゃなきゃいけないと思っているのに、帰国子女は場の空気が読めないというか、平気で言ってはいけないことを言ったりする。個人主義もいいけどやっぱり日本人は集団の利益を優先させるから。協調性も日本ではとても大切だと思う。

I: グループの一員であることはとても重要ですか。

F1: ええ。何故かというと、グループの一員として行動して得られる利益の方が、個人として行動したときに得られる利益より多い。日本的集団主義とも呼ばれていますが。

M1: この集団主義とか協調性は英語を学ぶ時には障害になることがあるかもしれないけど、そのもの自体は悪いことではないと思う。

Other students: 私もそう思う。

M1: 日本人のいいところは全部を言わなくても分かり合えるというところだよね。

F2: 言葉にしないという独特の文化がある。例えば俳句の枕詞から同じ風景を思い浮かべたり。

F4: でも日本人は自分のことを卑下するところがあるというか、何かあるとそこで黙っちゃったり言いたいことを途中でやめちゃったりするじゃないですか。それはすごく残念に思います。日本以外では理解されないから。

M3: その点、アメリカは逆に善か悪かしかないというか中庸がない。日本の中庸も国際的には理解されないと思う。

M4: テレビの番組で見たけど、イギリスの日本料理を紹介してて、それが全然違うので驚いたことがある。日本の事はあんまり知られていないんじゃないかな。間違った日本文化のイメージを持たれるのはいやだな。

I: 皆さんは英語を日本を世界に知って貰うために、学びますか、それとも英語圏の社会、文化を理解しその思考形態を取り入れたいのか、どちらですか。

MI: 後者だと思う。

M3: 僕は,ちょっと違って、色々な国の人とコミュニケーションするための手段として学ぶので、その文化を吸収するのが目的じゃない。

F1: 私は英語に限らず言葉というのはお互いの文化を知るための手段だと思います。

I: 日本での英語の必要性は？

F1: 日本にいる限りは英語の学習は必要ないと思う。でもこれから少しでも国際社会と関

わっていこうと思うなら避けては通れないけど。
M1: 職業にもよると思う。
F1: それはそうだと思う。でも一般の主婦なんかは必要ないと思う。
Other students: そう思う。
M1: でも大学入っているような人が就職するような職業だったら、絶対に英語は必要だよ。
All students: そうだね。
M2: それとパソコン関係が全部英語なんですよ。
F1: 英語が国際語に成りつつあるというのは実感するよね。
M3: あとに日常の生活でも横文字がどんどん増えていて、主婦でも多少英語を知らないと困るよ。(一同賛同)
I: どうも有難うございました。

Appendix Seven – Second Group Interview (English translation)

I: In the spring interview, two months after starting university, I asked everyone about their expectations for university English when they started, and how the reality was shaping up. Now, eight months in, I'm asking for your present estimation of university English education, whether it's the same as your previous estimation or different, and why.

F1: The value of English education itself hasn't changed at all, if anything has changed it's a problem of all the student's motivation. The school side of the system hasn't changed at all. As I said last time, that's not bad as it is.

I: Can you tell me a little more about the 'problem of all the student's motivation'?

F1: It's not something I'm proud to say in front of a teacher, but university classes, including English, are becoming just a matter of getting credit – even the 'study' is more and more just about passing the tests. I think nearly everyone around me thinks the same way.

I: Is there a cause?

F3: If there's a test, we'll study for it, but there's no guarantee that after a year English will be necessary to us, or that we'll be embarrassed by not being able to speak English – we're just floating comfortably through university life.

M2: Maybe it's just the classes I'm taking, but in all my classes, I'm not so much studying English as studying politics and economics in English, and since personally I like politics and economics, I'm satisfied with my current classes.

I: Anything else?

M3: Sure enough, wanting to get good points in tests is a big thing. Personally, that's because I want to get scholarship money, so I come to class and try hard – but as for the classes themselves, I'm really only interested in getting good grades in the tests. I guess that might change if I got more interested, but …

F3: There's a feeling, stemming from the university entrance exams, that 'as long as you get through the exams, whatever!' Then when we were first set free when the entrance exams were over, everyone was just partying and mucking around until September, October, so our English was probably better back in third-year high school. But recently, I've realized that if you don't set yourself some goal, you don't study at all, so if you don't find some goal for your English study, in the end, you'll be in trouble when it comes time to look for a job, so I'm looking for a goal.

M1: So basically, it's down to the individual as to whether to do it or not, and while overall motivation has dropped, some people with the will to do it are getting better, while the rest without any will to do it are deteriorating, right?

M2: Just to add to that, it seems to me that the aim of English classes isn't to improve skill with English. So it's not like you come to class because English is necessary to you. There are other more effective ways to improve your English skill. So when talking about motivation, I don't think there are so many people who come to class because they like English.

I: So how are classes now, eight months in?

F2: When you enter university, you have to start with a second foreign language, right? I'm taking Chinese. The second foreign language is something you have to start from scratch, and even though I can't actually speak English, it's something I worked at really hard, so it's more or less inevitable that you end up putting more weight on the second foreign language than on English.

I: How many hours a week do you have of the second foreign language?

F2: Three hours.

Appendix Seven – Second Group Interview (English translation)

F3: Personally, with English, if I don't take the tutorials or English III (optional), I end up doing just one hour a week.

I: How about contact with teachers who are native speakers of English?

M: Since coming to [university], I was surprised at how little chance we have to meet foreign people. I thought there would be more chances. If we don't get out there and search ourselves, there are no chances at all.

F3: My high school was a Christian school with a sister school in Australia, so every two or three months, a group of students from there would come over, so we had a lot of contact with native speakers. Also, there were four fulltime foreign teachers, and every two weeks we had an 'English lunch', where we chatted with the four teachers over lunch, so there were lots of chances … but since entering university, I have only one English class a week and no chance at all to come into contact with foreigners, and I think my conversational ability has dropped.

M2: I agree with the opinions so far, I had more opportunity to come in contact with foreign teachers in high school, and the lack of chances in university is a real shame. Though in the international students' meeting in October I had some chance to interact with foreign people and communicate, those foreigners were from India and Asia, and though they were English speakers, their intonation was really different and difficult to understand, and I felt that we need more practice in understanding the English spoken by other non-native speakers.

F1: And the foreign exchange students here are segregated from the normal students. I guess it's a problem with initiative, but especially in [university] we're kind of given responsibility ourselves, in that we don't get information about things unless we look for it ourselves.

F2: I'm taking an English conversation class called Tutorial English, and though the content of the class is really good, I can't help but wonder why it takes an extra 40,000 yen [215 pounds] in class fees.

F1: If you decide to learn English by going to a private English language school, you'd pay around 300,000 or 400,000 yen [1,600–2,150 pounds], so I think 40,000 for half a year is pretty cheap.

M3: That's true, but it would be better if the university were to create some system and take responsibility for that. Class fees are supposed to be included in the school fees, and I can't figure out what the university is thinking charging extra class fees.

F1: It's probably to pay the wages of the teacher and so on, right? I think that if they include that extra cost in the school fees, they should make everyone take the subject by making it compulsory.

I: Next, I'd like to ask if and how your motivation towards English has changed after a year of life as a university student.

F2: I don't think that my motivation was changed in any basic way. The reason is, we study Japan at university, and I've realized how little I know my own country; also, it has rather been my interest in my second foreign language, Chinese, that has grown. I'm interested in the English-speaking world, but my interest in China has grown stronger.

M1: As for me, my motivation has dropped. There's no chance to meet native speakers at school, I've had just one chance to speak to a native speaker since I entered university. That and I think that it won't be the end of the world if I lose the ability to speak English. I guess some people are hoping to be doing business on the international stage in the future and so on, I myself don't have to speak English, and it's way more fun reading novels than it is studying English. The one time I spoke to a native speaker was when I spoke with some hippy in Shinjuku, where just isolated words alone was enough, but I can't speak at the kind of level needed in those big firms. I'd like to be able to speak it well enough to become friends, though.

Appendix Seven – Second Group Interview (English translation)

F4: Since I've entered university, I've had a chance to study overseas, I've applied to join the International Division, and my motivation has really gone up, but without some kind of immediate goals to aim for, or signs to mark your progress during the four years of university, over and above any big goals you have for the distant future, people won't stay motivated, that's really necessary I think.

I: Who should set those goals?

F4: In my case, the sign was my pride as a Japanese. I was made to realize my pride in my Japaneseness, and after that I felt the necessity of English. Though I guess no-one will have any idea of what I'm talking about!

M1: I think it's really great that she has a goal like that. I think if you look at the body of students as a whole the overwhelming majority will be like me, with a really low motivation towards English. I mean, you can live without English, it's not like you'll be in real trouble or lose your life or anything. I'd study it if I were told "no food from tomorrow unless you can speak English", but … I don't think English education in Japan is going to improve unless something as radical as that is done.

F3: Since I came to university, I've realized that people who entered saying something like "I entered this university because I want to do blah-blah" were studying a lot harder. I wanted to enter the university before I had an "I want to do blah", so I was aiming just at the entrance exams, I guess I wanted the name value of the university, and then when I got in, it felt like it was all over, and I'm studying less and less. Of the people I know, the ones studying loads of English are at ICU, the International Christian University. At ICU they're reading a huge volume of English stuff. My friend wasn't so hot at English, but I saw her in spring and she said she was getting through three thick books a week, said that you just have to study that much at ICU. So I guess if you want to study English, ICU is the best.

F1: I'm in ESS (English Speaking Society) and just recently I went to a four-university Performing-in-English convention – [four of the "famous six" universities]. And a judge told me, "[Your university's] English is the worst".

F4: Still, people who don't want to do it shouldn't have to do it – not just for English, either.

F1: But if you look at people who have made it big, there are clearly a lot of people who speak English in the group; it's essential in a way. Talking about getting a job, I was told by a 4th year students at my part-time job that you can't get into a foreign company unless you have 800–900 TOEIC, and just like everyone else I want to get ahead. In the past you could get a job even if you couldn't speak English, and everyone knew you could still get a good salary; but since then Japanese companies have got into an even worse shape, and with foreign companies getting stronger and stronger, I think it will likely end up that people who can't speak English will be unemployable.

F2: I know someone a few years ahead of us who just got into a big American company, even though their TOEIC score and so on was lower than mine and they can't speak English at all. I think the reason is, they took a year overseas and packed in a lot of experiences, I think those experiences must have tipped the scales and got them in. Everyone talks about TOEIC, TOEIC, but I realized that that's not all there is.

M1: There's no way I'll ever be able to speak English; even if English becomes so necessary, I hope it doesn't change so much that just because I can't speak English I'm judged useless as a person. I want to be me …

M2: When I travelled around Southeast Asia in September, it seemed that if you can speak English, you can go just about anywhere. I think that English is going to be even more important as developing countries and so on put more effort into English education. In Japan too there are lots of foreign people coming over, it seems that we should at least be able to speak English, it seems unfriendly otherwise.

Appendix Seven – Second Group Interview (English translation)

M1: About this "if Japanese people can't speak English it seems kind of unfriendly", is that really true? That's the same as Japanese people who go to America and say "why can't Americans speak Japanese!?".

M2: But in reality, if you go to a country where English isn't understood, you get irritated. "Why can't they at least speak English" …

I: What kind of English study are you doing yourselves?

F5: I'm writing essays. About every week I write an essay and hand it in to an American teacher at the university here and have him look at it.

F2: Not much at all, I'm only going to class when I have to present something.

M2: I'm listening to an English conversation CD. Not music, conversation and speeches in English.

M1: I'm doing anything right now but I'm thinking of studying overseas in winter, so I'm going to have to do something soon.

F2: I'm listening to English music.

F1: I'm writing speeches at ESS, and going to a conversation school, too.

M5: I'm listening to music CDs too.

I: Finally, what would you like to see happen in university English classes?

F1: I think if you want to improve English ability, you have to imitate other universities that are really good at English. I hear that Chuo University is really trying hard. And also Keio and ICU as I said before, you need to take on the same methods as them.

F2: There's a new department being created, right? I heard that there will be classes given in English there, and thought that sounded really good. We need more of that kind of thing.

M3: To be honest, such classes would be too difficult for me.

M2: I want more classes where we do English.

F3: I think maybe we should have all of our classes in English.

F4: I think those that people with the motivation should do things like that, but I think there's a need for some kind of attractive class to give people a chance to start being interested in English.

M1: I think just the people who want to study it should study it. I'd like to ask everyone here – how many of you have been overseas? [*four people from the other nine raise hands*] … as I thought. I've never been, but those who have been, have the motivation and go for it.

M3: I've never been, so I really want to go. I want to be able to speak English, and I think the choices available to me will increase if I go overseas.

F1: There's something like this at some other universities, but for example, make it so you can't graduate unless you have more than TOEIC 500, or make everyone study overseas, or give classes in English … these would be effective, I think.

M5: Studying English for the entrance exams, I was motivated because I wanted to get into university, but now I don't know, because I no longer feel English to be necessary.

M1: I threw all my textbooks out the moment I knew I'd passed … sorry!

I: Thank-you very much.

Appendix Eight – Second Group Interview (Japanese original)

I: 春のインタビューで皆さんに、大学に入学して大学英語に期待すること、それから二ヶ月たった時点でそれについてどう思うかということを聞いてから、更に八ヶ月たちますが、現時点で大学の英語教育をどう評価するか、以前と同じ意見かそれとも違うのか、そしてその理由を聞かせてください。

F1: 英語教育については評価自体は変わってないですが、変わったとすれば生徒側のモチベーションの問題だと思います。学校側の体制は全然変わってないと思います。前回、話したようにそれはそれで悪くないと思います。

I: 学生全体のモチベーションの問題とおっしゃったけどそれについて話してください。

F1: 先生の前でこんなことをいうのは恐縮なんですが、正直に言って、英語を含め大学の授業は単位が取れればいいというものになってしまっていて、勉強と言ってもテストのためだけというふうになりがちだと思います。ほとんどの周りの人も私と同じ考えだと思います。

I: 原因はありますか？

F3: テストがあればテストのために勉強はするけれど、一年後に英語が絶対に必要になることや英語を話せないと恥をかくということはないし、大学というぬるま湯の中で生活していけるから。

M2: 自分の取っている授業だけかも知れないですけど、英語を学ぶというよりも英語で政治・経済を学ぶっていう授業が全てで、個人的には政治･経済が好きなので今の授業には満足しています。

I: 他には何かありますか？

M3: やっぱりテストでいい点を取りたいっていうのがあるんですよ。何でかというと個人的には奨学金がもらいたいので大学の授業には真面目に出て頑張っていますけど、大学の授業ということに関しては、俺はテストでいい点を取れればそれでいいです。それ以上に興味を持てるようになれば考えが変わるのかも知れませんが。

F3: 大学に入って受験勉強から開放されて「試験さえ何とか乗り切ればいいや」という感じになってます。受験が終わって初めて自由が与えられたから 9 月、10 月くらいまで遊びまくってたので高三の時のほうが英語はできたと思います。でも最近、自分に目標みたいなものを与えないと自分が勉強しないことがわかってるから、何か目標を見つけて英語をやらないと、最終的に、就職の時とかに自分が困るだろうなと思って目標を探しています。

M1: 総括すると、結局やるかやらないかは本人次第というか、全体的にモチベーションが下がってるっていうけど、その中でもやる気のある人は伸びていくだろうし逆にやる気のない人は低下していくんじゃないでしょうか。

M2: さっきの意見の付け足しになりますが、英語の授業が英語力を高めるという目的じゃないような気がします。だから英語が必要となった時に授業に出てくるかと言えばそうじゃないと思うんです。それに大学に行かなくても他で英語力はもっと効率よく上がると思うし。だから Motivation といっても、英語が好きだから授業に出るっていう人はそんなにいないんじゃないかな。

I: 八ヶ月たった時点で英語の授業はどうですか？

F2: 大学に入ると第二外国語が加わるじゃないですか。私は中国語をとっているんですが、第二外国語はまた一から新しい言葉を習い始めるわけで、英語というのは話せないけど今まである程度は一生懸命やってきたことだから、どうしても第二外国語のほうにウェイトが置かれるのはしょうがないことだと思う。

I: 第二外国語の授業は週に何時間ぐらいですか？

F2: 三時間です。

F3: 英語は個人的にチュートリアルとか英語 をとらないと週に一時間になっちゃう。

Appendix Eight – Second Group Interview (Japanese original)

I:　英語関係のネイティブの先生との接触とかはどうですか？

M:　[この大学]に来てすごく思ったんですけど、こんなに外国人に会う機会が少ないのかなと思ったんですよ。もっと会えると思ってたんです。自分から探さないと機会はないなと思いました。

F3:　私の高校はキリスト教系の学校で姉妹校をオーストラリアに持ってたので、二ヶ月か三ヶ月に一回、向こうの学生が団体で来たりしていたのでネイティブとの接触が多い学校だったんですよ。それに常勤講師に四人の外国人がいたので、二週に一回イングリッシュランチという英語を話しながら四人の先生とランチを食べるという会もあったので向こうの人と接する機会も多かったんですけど、大学に入って週に一回しか英語の授業がないし外国人と接する機会もないので、大学に入ると会話力も落ちたような気がします。

M2: 今まで出た意見と同じで、高校までのほうが外国の先生と接する機会が多かったので、大学に入って残念だなと思ったんですが、10 月にインタイで外国の人たちと多少、接する機会があってコミュニケーションを取ったりしたんですけど、その外国人というのがインドなどアジアで英語を使う人で、全然イントネーションが違って分かり難かったので、英語を母国語としない人が話す英語を聞き取る訓練の必要性を感じました。

F1:　やっぱり外国人留学生と私たち一般の生徒は隔離されていると思いました。これも積極性の問題かも知れませんが、特に[この大学]は放任だから自分で何か探さないと情報が入ってこないという感じです。

F2:　私はチュートリアルイングリッシュという英会話のクラスをとっているんですけど、授業内容はすごくいいんですが一講座あたり 4 万円の高い費用が別にかかるのが不思議です。

F1:　会話を学ぼうと思って民間の英会話学校に通うなら、一年間に 30 万か 40 万円は覚悟しないといけないわけだから、半年で 4 万円は安いと私は思う。

M3:　それはそうだけど、大学の中にそういう機関を設けて大学側が負担してもおかしくないと思う。授業料は学費の中に含まれるべきなのに、学費とは別に授業料が必要というのは大学側の意図がわかりません。

F1:　おそらくそれは講師を雇っての給料を払ったりしないといけないからだと思う。その費用を学費に組み込むのであれば、強制で必修科目にすればいいと思う。選択科目はそれでいいと思う。

I:　次は、大学生活を一年過ごしてみて英語に対するモチベーションが変わったかということを聞きたいんですけれども。

F2:　英語に対するモチベーションは基本的には変わってないと思います。理由は大学で日本のことを勉強していて、自分がいかに日本のことを知らないかということがわかって第二外国語の中国への興味のほうが高くなったと思う。英語圏に興味はあるけれども、より中国への興味が強くなったので。

M1:　僕に関してはモチベーションは下がってます。学校でネイティブの人に会うこともないし、僕が大学に入ってからネイティブの人としゃべったのは一回ぐらい。そういうこともあるし、英語がしゃべれなくても何とかなると思うし、そもそも何で英語が必要なのかなって思う。将来、意識の高い人は国際社会でビジネスをしたりという希望があるのかもしれないけど、僕個人は英語はしゃべれなくてもいいから英語を勉強するより小説を読んだりするほうが楽しいし。ネイティブの人と一回しゃべったっていうのは新宿でヒッピーの人としゃべったんですけど、単語だけでも何とか通じたんで、企業とかで話す英語は僕は話せないけど、友達になる程度には話せるようになりたいなとは思います。

F5:　私は大学に入って留学する機会もあったし国際部の聴講に応募したりして、モチベーションは上がったんですけど、将来的な大きなビジョンの他に身近な必要性—例えば、大学に四年いるんだったらその間に目印のようなものを置いてもらわないと普通の人はモチベーションは上がらないと思うし、それは絶対必要だと思う。

I:　それは誰が置かなきゃいけないんですか？

Appendix Eight – Second Group Interview (Japanese original)

F5: 私の場合、その目印は日本人としてのプライドでした。日本人としてのプライドに気付かされて、その後に英語の必要性を感じた。ちょっといってることが分からないかも知れませんが。

M1: ヨシノさんは目標をもってるから素晴らしいと思うけど、学部全体からみたら僕のような英語に対するモチベーションの低い学生が圧倒的に多いと思う。英語が話せなくても生きていく上で困らないし命をとられるわけじゃないから。英語を勉強しないと明日から食事なしと言われたら僕だって勉強するけど。それくらいのことをしないと日本の英語教育は良くならないと思う。

F3: 大学に入って思ったことは「○○をしたいからこの大学に行きたい」って言った人は大学に入ってからもきっと勉強してるんですよ。私は「○○がしたいから」っていう前に大学へ行きたかったからとりあえず受験勉強して、とにかくネームバリューが欲しかったから大学に入っちゃったら終わりみたいな気持ちがあって、どんどん勉強をしなくなったという部分があるんですよ。私の周りですごく英語を勉強しているのは ICU（国際基督教大学）だと思います。ICU だとものすごい量の英語を読んでるんですよ。私の友達はそんなに英語ができたほうではないのに、夏に会ったら分厚い本を週に三冊も読んでるって言ってて、ICU だと勉強せざるを得ない状況にさせられるって言ってました。だから英語を勉強したいんならあそこの大学が一番いいんじゃないかなと思います。

F1: 私は ESS に入ってて、この間４大学英語劇大会っていうのがあって、[６大学の中の４校]なんですが「[あなとの大学]の英語が一番ひどい」ってジャッジに言われました。

F5: でも英語に限らず、したくないと思う人はやらなくていいと思う。

F1: でも、世間で勝ち組と言われてる人の中には明らかに英語を話せる人が多いしその必要性はあると思う。就職の話をすると、バイト先で 4 年生の人から聞いたら TOEIC で 800～900 ないと外資系企業には入れないし、誰でもそうだけど私もできるだけ上のほうにいたいし。むしろ今までは英語ができなくても就職できたし、それでお給料ももらえるという意識があったから、英語ができなくてもよかったけれど、もしかしたらこの後、日本の企業がさらにだめになって、海外の企業がどんどん進出してきて英語が話せないやつは使い物にならないっていうことになるかもしれないし。

F2: 先輩で今年アメリカの企業に就職した人がいるんですけど、その人 TOEIC とか私より低くて全然英語しゃべれないのに受かったんですよ。なんでかというとその人は留年してるんですけどそれを利用して色んな経験をした人で、その経験が反映して合格したんじゃないかなって。みんなは TOEIC、TOEIC っていうけれど、それが全てではないんだなと知りました。

M1: 僕は英語を話せるようには絶対になれないですけど、英語が必要になる時代が来ても英語が話せないからという理由で人間性まで否定されるような世界にはなってほしくないです。自分は自分らしくありたいので。

M2: 9 月に東南アジアを旅した時に、英語がしゃべれれば大体どこでもやっていけるなと思いました。これから先は発展途上国でも英語教育に力を入れれば、より英語の重要性が上がっていくんではないかなと思います。日本も海外から人がたくさん来てる国だから、せめて英語くらいは話せないと不親切なのではないでしょうか。

M1: 今、フジワラ君は日本人も英語を話せないと不親切って言いましたが、それは果たしてそうでしょうか？それは日本人がアメリカに行って「アメリカ人はなんで日本語がしゃべれないんだ！」って言ってるのと同じだと思います。

M2: でも実際に、英語の通じない国に行くと腹がたつよ。「なんで英語ぐらい話せないんだ！」って。

I: 個人的に英語の勉強はしていますか？

F5: エッセーを書いてます。エッセーを書いてアメリカからここの大学に来てる先生に週に一回ぐらいで見てもらってる。

F2: 今は無の状態で、授業で発表しなきゃいけない時しかやってないです。

M2: 英会話の CD を聞いてます。音楽ではなくて、英語の会話とかスピーチです。

Appendix Eight – Second Group Interview (Japanese original)

M1: 今は何もしていないけど冬に留学したいのでそろそろ何かやろうとは思ってます。

F2: 私は英語の音楽を聞いています。

F1: ESS でスピーチを書いたり会話の学校にも通っています。

M5: 音楽の CD を聴いています。

I: 最後に、大学の授業がどうあって欲しいか。

F1: 英語のスキルを上げたいと思うのであれば、他の英語がすごくできる大学の真似をすればいいと思います。中央大学が頑張っているとよく聞くので。あとは慶応とかさっき言った ICU とかと同じ方法を導入すればいいと思います。

F2: 今度、新しい学部ができますよね。そこでは英語で授業をするというのを聞いていいなと思います。そういうのを広げて欲しいです。

M3: 正直それほど知識がないので難しいです。

M2: 英語でやる授業を増やして欲しい。

F3: 全部の授業を英語でやるほうがいいかなと思います。

F5：やる気のある人だけ頑張ればいいとは思うけど、英語への興味のきっかけ与えるようなアトラクティブな授業をして欲しいと思います。

M1: やりたい人はやればいいと思う。みんなに聞きたいんだけど、この中で海外にいったことのある人どれくらいいる? （9 人中 4 人挙手）やっぱりね。僕は行ったことが無いんだけど、行ったことがある人が、やる気があって出て遺訓じゃないかと思うね。

M3: 僕は行ったことがないから行きたいなと思うし、英語が話せるようになりたいと思うし、海外に行くことで選択肢が増えるんじゃないかと思う。

F1 ; 他の大学でもやってるところがあるらしいんですけど、例えば TOEFL500 点以上を取れなければ卒業できないとか、全員留学させるとか、英語で授業をするということが有効だと思います。

M5: 受験の時の英語の勉強は、大学に入りたいからモチベーションを上げたけど、今は英語を話す必要性を感じていないからわかりません。

M1：受かった瞬間にテキストとか捨てました。済みません。

I:: 有難うございました。

Appendix Nine – Individual Interviews (English translations)

Part One – Female student

I: Well, now half a year has passed since the group interview, I'd like to hear your impression of and feelings towards English and English classes.
F: I'm not really putting a lot into those classes, so I don't have any particular thoughts about English.
I: So what are you interested in?
F: I'm going to an accountancy school, and that study is taking up quite a lot of my time.
I: So what's your aim in studying English?
F: I want to study overseas after I graduate, so I'm studying for that.
I: You want to carry on to become an accountant?
F: Yes.
I: For your study overseas, are you thinking of going to America or England?
F: America.
I: Do you think there's anything about the personality of Japanese people relevant to their study of English?
F: Japanese have very cooperative personalities, while English-speaking people are very quick to give their own opinion – in that sense, I think Japanese people aren't really set up very well to speak English.
I: Have you been overseas before? When was that?
F: Yes, to Australia. When I was a third-year middle-school student.
I: And how long for?
F: Three weeks.
I: What did you think at the time?
F: I went to an Australian school, and there's a lot of personal freedom there, with earrings, hair-style, make-up, etc – in Japan, if you did things like that, everyone would think you were messed-up, but over there, it was much freer, and I thought that was really great. Also, there's a lot of respect for the individual, when you're talking with friends everyone has their say and is warmly received.
F: Did you participate in group conversations when you were there?
F: I'm not that good at speaking in front of people, shy I guess, just not that good at talking in front of large groups …
I: What you said just before, about people there being comparatively more able to speak their own opinions – what kind of impact do you think being Japanese, comparatively unable to speak out, or as you said about yourself 'shy', has on learning English?
F: I think there's a part of the Japanese personality that is an obstacle in learning English. I think Japanese people are very very considerate when they speak, they think of people's feelings when they're talking.
I: If so, do English speakers generally not think of the feelings of others?
F: I don't mean to imply that people over there are cold, no, and there were ways in which I thought people were really kind. So bright and cheerful, and at parties and so on I felt there was a real feeling of unity, a very warm atmosphere – but, I found it to be a different kind of warmth to that in Japan. I think both kinds have their good points, but … over there, the group was very much made of independent individuals, while in Japan, it's more a feeling of individuals huddling right into the group, and that can be both a warm thing and, I guess, a bad thing.
I: So do you always have a sense of being one member of a group?
F: Yes, I do.
I: And for people who are so involved in thinking of the feelings of others, with being considerate, English can be a little difficult to use?

F: That's right, yes.
I: Well, thank-you very much.

Part Two – Male student

I: How was the interview the other day?
M: I was pretty nervous.
I: Well, a little time has passed since the last interview. What do you think of university English classes at this point?
M: As I'd thought, I can't speak.
I: Did you spend time as a *ronin* [taking an extra year of study before entering university]?
M: Yes, I did.
I: Do you feel there's any difference between *ronin* and non-*ronin* students?
M: Maybe *ronin* study less than students who enter university directly.
I: What do you mean?
M: It's the students who can study hard and unflaggingly that get straight in.
I: Did you get tired of studying during the extra year?
M: That too. *Ronin* become *ronin* because they don't study so much in the final year of school, they're not such a study-loving group.
I: So when they get into university they take it easy? … in the spring interview, you didn't express any opinion, but did you have an aim in studying English when you entered university?
M: Of course I want to be able to speak with people from overseas, and also I think English has a really important role in getting a job.
I: I see. Have your goals changed at all since then?
M: I understand how important English is, but my motivation isn't that high.
I: How has that level of enthusiasm changed since spring?
M: The amount of study I have to do has reduced considerably since my *ronin* days, and I think my enthusiasm has dropped off with it.
I: Is there a reason for that? Busy with other classes, for example?
M: It's because I've no clear goal. When I was a ronin, passing the entrance exam and getting in here was the goal, but …
I: Well, when you're studying English in Japan, is there anything that makes you think 'this really makes it hard'?
M: I think that we don't understand the meaning of it at all, starting abruptly with strict and formal English in middle school. I think we need to start off with something a bit more fun.
I: Any other problems? How about barriers to getting through the exams?
M: I think the English studied to get through exams is really important.
I: Did your English skill improve through exam preparation?
M: Yes, I think so, though speaking and listening didn't improve at all.
I: In the previous interview, there was some discussion about Japanese group consciousness – what do you think about all that?
M: I've never really had direct experience of the foreign individualism so I don't know, but in Japan, it's certainly the case that accommodating oneself to the surrounding group is normal.
I: How about you yourself?
M: Yes, I sometimes fit myself to those around me.
I: Is there anything else about the Japanese personality – being shy, whatever – that has some influence?
M: Of course! That's an issue.
I: Do you have any other suggestions for English education in Japan?
M: I think that we need more chances to express our own opinions in English. It would be good to have that kind of study right from middle school.
I: Thank-you very much.

Appendix Ten – Individual Interviews (Japanese originals)

Part One – Female student

I : 自分の英語と授業に対する、何か感想があったら教えてください。
F : 自分は、今は授業に真剣にあまり取り組んでないので、英語に対して特別なことを考えたりは全然してないです。
I: じゃあ何に興味があるの？
F: 今は会計専門学校に通っているので、その勉強に結構、時間が割かれています。
I: では英語を勉強する目的はなんですか？
F: 卒業後に留学したいので、そのために勉強をしています。
I: 卒業後に会計士という方向に進みたいわけですね。[はい。]
I: 具体的にアメリカとイギリスのどっちの大学への留学を考えていますか？
F: アメリカです。
I: では、日本人の性格で英語を勉強する上で何か影響してるというものがあるとしたら、それは何だと思います？
F: 日本人は、すごく協調性を重視するけれど英語を話す人たちは、むしろ自分の意見をどんどん言う人たちなので、やっぱり日本人はそういう意味で、英語を話すのには向いているとは言えないと思います。
I: 海外に行った経験はありますか？
F: はい。オーストラリアに。
I: それはいつですか？
F: 中学三年生の時に。
I: どれくらい？
F: 三週間です。
I: その時にどんなことを思いました？
F: その時にオーストラリアの学校に通ったんですけど、向こうではピアスや髪型、化粧など自由だけど、日本でそういうことをすると乱れてると思われるのに、向こうはそれが自由だからすごくいいなと思いました。そして個人を尊重していて、友達と話すときもみんなが自分の意見を言うことを最優先している思いました。
I: あなた会話のグループにいる時にあまり発言しなかったですね？どういうわけで話さなかったの？
F: 自分は人前で話すのが苦手というか人見知りをするほうで、なかなか大勢の前で話すことが苦手なので･･･
I: さっき言ってたように向こうの人が自分の言いたいことを言うから英語がぴったり合っているということと比べて、日本人の性格の控え目な部分は日本人が英語を学習する上でどういう関係があると思いますか。
F: 日本人の性格は英語教育の妨げになっている部分があると思います。日本人は話していてすごく思いやりがあるというか人の気持ちを考えてしゃべると思います。
I: あなたが言ったとおりだとすると、英語を話す人はほとんど人の気持ちを考えないということですか？
F: だからといって向こうの人が冷たいわけじゃなくて、もちろんすごく優しいなって思ったところもあるんです。すごい明るくて、パーティーなどをしても団結力があると思ったし、暖かい雰囲気はもちろん向こうもあるんですけど、それはまた「日本とは何か違う暖かさだ」ということを思ったんですよ。どちらにもいいところはあると思うんですけど。向こうは個人個人が自立した上で成り立っているけれど、日本は、個人と個人が寄り添う感じで、それが暖かく感じられるところでもあると同時に悪いところでもあるのかも知れないし。
I: なるほど。そうすると相手の気持ちを考えたり思いやりがある人たちにとっては英語

というものはちょっと使いにくいものなんですね。
F: そうです。[ありがとうございました。]

Part Two – Male student

I: 先日のインタビューはどうでしたか？
M: 緊張していました。
I: それでは、この間のインタビューから今回まで少し時間がたっていますが、今の時点で大学の英語の授業についてどう思いますか？
M: やはりあまりしゃべれそうにないです。
I: 浪人してますか？[はい。一浪してます。]
I: 浪人した生徒と浪人していない生徒の差を感じることはありますか？
M: 多分、浪人してる生徒は現役の生徒よりも普段の勉強が少ないと思います。
I: どういう意味ですか？
M: それはコツコツ勉強している人が現役の生徒だと思うので。
I: 浪人している一年間で勉強に疲れてしまったからですか？
M: そうですね、浪人した人は現役の時にあまり勉強をしなかったから浪人したということですから、そんなに勉強が好きではないのではないでしょうか。
I: だから大学に入ったらのんびりしてしまうのですかね。春のインタビューではあなたは意見がなかったんですけれども、あなたが入学した時に英語を勉強する目的というのはありましたか？
M: やっぱり他の海外の人とも話したいしこれから就職するにあたっても英語はかなり重要な位置を占めていると思うので。
I: そういうことが目的だったんですね。入学当時と今では違いがでてきていますか？
M: 英語の重要性はわかっているんですけれど、そこまでモチベーションは高くないです。
I: あなたの英語を勉強する熱意は春と比べて今はどうですか？
M: 浪人の時より勉強量はかなり減っているので熱意も減っていると思います。
I: 理由はありますか？例えばクラスが忙しいとか。
M: 明確な目標がないからです。浪人時代は、受験でここに合格するためには必要だからというのがあったんですけど。
I: では日本で英語を学習するにあたって「こういうことが妨げになっているな」と思うことが何かあれば教えてください。
M: いきなり中学校の堅苦しい英語から始まっているから全然、興味がわかないと思います。もうちょっと楽しく始められたらいいなと思うんですけど。
I: それ以外に何か不満はありますか？受験の弊害はありますか？
M: 受験勉強でやっている英語もかなり重要だと思うんですけど。
I: 受験のための勉強で英語力はついたと思いますか？
M: それは思いますが、スピーキングとかリスニングに関しては全然伸びてないです。
I: この間のインタビューでは日本人のグループ意識についての発言があったんですが、それについてはどう思いますか？
M: 実際に海外の個人主義というのを目の当たりにしてないのでわからないですけど、日本はやっぱり周りに合わせることが多いですね。
I: あなた自身も周りに合わせることが多いですか？
M: 周りの人によっては合わせることもあります。
I: それ以外に日本人の性格―例えば恥ずかしがるとか―が影響していると思うところはありますか？
M: それはもちろんありますよ。
I: それ以外に日本の英語教育についてのサジェスチョンはありますか？
M: やっぱりもうちょっと自分の意見を英語で言えるような機会が増えればいいと思うんですけど。そういう勉強を中学時代からもっとやった方がいいと思います。
I: ありがとうございました。