



Study Abroad Research Artifacts: Exploring the Effects of Survey Implicature in a Likert Agreement Scale

by Tim Newfields & Ken Groger

Abstract

How do the wording of agreement scales about studying abroad and L2 self-efficacy influence informant responses? What rationales do the respondents offer for their opinions? This paper explores how 219 undergraduates at three universities in Japan responded to an agreement scale questionnaire about study abroad and L2 self-efficacy that also contained comment elicitation tasks. Using binary antipodal questionnaire forms, we compared the responses to positively and negatively worded statements about overseas study and L2 learning. Using two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-tests at $p \leq .01$ significance levels, cross-form and cross-gender differences were analyzed. We also compared the 524 informant comments in terms of character length, discourse style, and response rates. Evidence that survey implicature can skew responses appeared in only one of the twelve survey items: in most cases, implicature did not appear to impact responses. The data also revealed some possible gender differences concerning study abroad and L2 self-efficacy. Overall, the written comments were noteworthy for their lack of logical support for stated opinions: tacit, oblique, and hyphenated references characterized this sample. The most prominent research finding was the widespread lack of L2 self-efficacy among the respondents. This paper concludes by discussing the pedagogical implications of the findings as well as the relevance to the findings to study abroad programs.

Keywords: study abroad, L2 self-efficacy, questionnaire implicature, expectancy artifacts, questionnaire design

「海外留学に関する調査論文：リッカート尺度法を用いた調査の影響を探る」

概要

この論文は、日本の大学に在籍する学生を対象に実施した「海外留学と第二言語における自己効力感」について調査したものである。調査は三大学 219 人の学生を対象にリッカート尺度法によるアンケートを使用して行った。

調査内容は次の 2 点である。1 点目：二者択一問題を使い、リッカート尺度法で用いる言葉遣いが回答者の回答にどのような影響を及ぼすのか、学生が海外留学と第二言語学習について楽観的な言葉遣いの記述に対する回答と悲観的な言葉遣いの記述に対する回答を比較した。2 点目：回答者は自分の意見に対し、どのような根拠を提示するのか、アンケートに含まれる海外留学の自由記述について調査した。

分析には、マンホイットニーの U 検定の変数 $p \leq .01$ を使い、回答の傾向や男女間の意見の相違に注目した。また回答者からの 524 の自由記述についても文字数、ディスコースおよび回答率を比較した。調査の結果、調査で使用した言葉遣いが回答に片寄りを与えたという証拠は、12 の調査項目のうち、1 つのみに見られた。その他の項目においては、調査方法による回答への大きな影響は見られなかった。さらに海外留学と第二言語に対する自己効力感において、男女間には、いくつかの相違が見られた。また、正式な学術論文とは対照的に自由記述には、自分の意見に対する論理的な裏付けを欠いている点が注目される。学生のコメントは暗示的で、あいまいで、省略された言葉遣いが特徴的であった。

この調査で最も明らかになったのは、回答者の中に自分の英語能力に関する自己効力感の不足が広がっていることである。最後に本稿では、海外留学プログラム実施との関連性とこれらの調査結果の教育との関連性について検討している。

キーワード： 留学、第二言語の自己効力感、アンケート含意、予想アーティファクト、アンケートのデザイン

An ongoing concern among social science researchers is data validity. This may be particularly salient when teacher-researchers use their own students to elicit information. Owing to power disparities, some students might be tempted to respond as they think their



teacher-researchers wish. Technically, this is known as *expectancy bias* (Brown, 1988, pp. 33-34), and it is a quandary not only in quantitative research, but qualitative research as well. It is all too easy for some informants to discern contextual cues from survey or interview questions, then match researcher expectations. This problem is compounded by the fact that in many small-scale classroom research settings informants lack true anonymity: their responses might be ostensibly confidential, but it is quite possible for teachers or program administrators to discern the source of at least some of the responses.

This study explores how the wording of survey items influence responses. Specifically, it contrasts how a large sample of students at three Japanese universities responded to two versions of a 12-item, 5-choice Likert-type agreement scale about study abroad and how the informants viewed themselves as L2 learners. It also examines the reasons informants gave for their beliefs. Ways that the nuance of the survey items may have skewed responses are considered. Finally the rhetorical strategies students use to support their beliefs are also examined.

Literature Review

This paper weaves together four threads: (1) the concept of L2 self-efficacy, (2) the notion of implicature, (3) ways that response options might influence survey results, and (4) other types of research artifacts. Before outlining the methodology, let us clarify how these terms are used.

(1) *The concept of L2 self-efficacy*

We accept Bandura's concept of self-efficacy as "people's beliefs in their capabilities to produce desired effects by their own actions" (Bandura, 1997, p. vii, cited in Todaka, 2013, p. 359). Many authors have extended this concept to "L2 self-efficacy" – the reputed beliefs that second language learners have about their ability to achieve desired tasks in a target language (Templin, Guile, & Okuma, 2002; Graham, 2004; Amuzie & Winke, 2009). What seems noteworthy is that self-efficacy is distinctly more task-related than *self-esteem*. L2 self-efficacy is also thought to be more context-dependent than *L2 identity*: L2 students who feel competent while interacting with their peers might lack that feeling when asked to do the same task with unfamiliar persons in actual business contexts.

"... self-efficacious learners are likely to ascribe failures to a lack of adequate preparation, whereas those with low self-efficacy are likely to ascribe the same result to inability..."

L2 self-efficacy is especially important in terms of *attribution theory*: the systematic study of the reasons people give for their success or failure (Heider, 1958). A prevalent belief is that self-efficacious learners are likely to ascribe failures to a lack of adequate preparation, whereas those with low self-efficacy are likely to ascribe the same result to inability (Cheng & Chiou, 2010). Not surprisingly, those with low levels of self-efficacy often avoid tasks that might result in failure. By contrast, it is conjectured that those with higher degrees of self-efficacy are more willing to engage in unfamiliar tasks (Hsieh, Sullivan, & Guerra, 2007; Tabernero & Wood, 2009). In this study, ways that 524 learner belief statements were supported were examined in light of Heider's attribution theory. We are particularly interested in *task avoidance* (a tendency of persons not to engage in a task to reduce the risk of failure) because that is thought to be a hallmark of low self-efficacy.

(2) *The notion of implicature*

For the purpose of this paper, we describe implicature as an expectancy effect that is probably inherent in every value statement: it is a form of bias that makes one response appear to be more socially preferable than others. One convenient way to study implicature is through *agreement scales*, in which respondents indicate agreement or disagreement with given



statements. For example, would those responding to a prompt such as “I am keen about study abroad” tend to differ from those reading a prompt on the same topic with an obverse implicature? Agreement scales provide a fertile ground to explore how item implicature might – or might not – sway responses.

Although this paper focuses on implicature in just one particular context, it is good to remember implicature has a broader range of meanings relating to discourse in general. For those seeking a fuller discussion of implicature, we recommend either Carston and Hall (2012) or Goodman and Stuhlmüller (2013).

(3) *Response options and survey results*

A wide number of studies have been conducted about the way that response options can influence performance. For example, evidence that response order can influence outcomes is provided by Krosnick and Alwin (1987). Using split-ballot research design in which two groups of respondents rated the qualities of children based on a dozen descriptors that were read in differing order, evidence of a *serial position effect* (Ebbinghaus, 1885 cited in DeLecce, 2013, par 5) was obtained. In other words, the 1351 raters tended to select the qualities that either appeared first and last on the list as more important, ignoring those that were in the middle. This is a type of *memory bias* that is particularly relevant to questionnaires with a large number of response options.

Another important study by Oppenheimer, Meyvis, and Davidenko (2009) explores how many survey respondents tend to *satisfice* (Simon, 1957, pp. 261, 270-271) their responses. Because it often takes time and energy to think carefully about optimal survey responses, to minimize the energy investment some respondents will glibly select the first solution that seems sufficiently satisfactory. The tendency to *satisfice* (a portmanteau of *satisfy*, *suffice*, and *sacrifice*) is particularly high if (i) the linguistic and cognitive skills of informants are considered low, (ii) the issue being explored does not seem salient to the respondents, or (iii) the survey questions are complex. All three of these conditions can occur in study abroad research contexts. Oppenheimer, Meyvis, and Davidenko describe *satisficing* as a form of confounding “noise” that reduces statistical power of a test. To detect that noise, they developed a tool is useful in online survey contexts.

Newfields and Groger (2012) also explored how response options can influence results, using three forms of a survey-test on 170 EFL university students with different response formats: (i) multiple-choice, (ii) scrambled sentence, and (iii) open-ended sentence item types. Not surprisingly, they found that response rates were higher for multiple-choice items than for open-ended tasks. Probably it takes more effort for most informants to construct a sentence than to merely select the best sentence from a list of four possible response options.

(4) *Research artifacts: expectancy bias and social desirability bias*

Two confounding factors that studies generally seek to avoid – or at least control – are *researcher expectancy* and *social desirability bias*. The former occurs when the researcher’s agenda or desired outcome is too obvious to the subjects or informants. The latter can be described as a form of subject reactivity in which informants feel compelled to alter their responses to avoid appearing in a negative light. Particularly in study abroad contexts, there is often a tendency for researchers (who frequently have multiple roles as teachers/chaperones/program administrators) to self-validate their own programs. As such, the informants – who often have confidentiality but not true anonymity – may feel pressured to match researcher expectations and say more or less what they consider socially desirable. Both researcher expectancy and social desirability bias are potential validity threats. In this study, we attempt to control for researcher expectancy by presenting paired antipodal statements in two different survey forms. Although we cannot eliminate social desirability bias, it is present to an equal degree across forms.



Research Questions

Three questions are systematically explored in this paper:

1. How does the wording of agreement scale Likert items about study abroad and L2 self-efficacy appear to influence informant responses?
2. What written reasons did the informants tend to offer in support of their positions?
3. To what extent do L2 self-efficacy and interest in study abroad appear to vary with gender?

Method

Sampling

This sample consisted of 219 students at three universities in Japan. 99% ($n=216$) were Japanese undergraduates – three foreign students were not excluded from this sample because their statistical impact was so small. 93% ($n=204$) stated both of their parents were monolingual and another 93% indicated that neither parent had studied abroad. 56% ($n=123$) reported never venturing outside of Japan and 25% ($n=55$) mentioned having only one previous overseas trip. A further 9% ($n=20$) reported 2-3 overseas trips and the remaining 8% ($n=18$) stated that they had been overseas four times or more. The average reported TOEIC score was 452 and cross-gender score differences were not significant ($U = 1910$, $p = 0.194$, $Z = -1.30$, $r = 0.09$). However, 37% of the respondents ($n=81$) did not indicate any score.

Other demographic characteristics of this sample are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. *A Demographic Profile of this Study's Respondents*

	Gender*		Age*					Academic Year*					Major		
	M	F	18	19	20	21	22+	1	2	3	4	NR	Edu.	Eco.	Other
Form A	55	52	37	38	24	8	0	48	50	7	2	0	46	44	17
Form B	67	44	31	41	23	10	6	39	58	10	5	1	41	39	31
Total	122	96	68	79	47	18	6	87	108	17	7	1	87	83	48

* a few respondents left their gender, age, or academic year blank

As in most university EFL classes for non-English majors in Japan, first- and second-year students predominate. Although males are over-represented in this sample in terms of national averages, in other regards this appears to be a typical sample of Japanese university-level EFL learners.

Instrument

A questionnaire modeled after earlier questionnaires by Goldstein & Kim (2006); Lane, (2011); and Newfields (2012a) with some original questions by the authors was used in this study. After nine demographic questions, twelve Likert agreement scale items with a blank space beneath each item appeared. The entire questionnaire was in Japanese and informants were instructed to write comments in Japanese or in English after completing each of the twelve Likert-scale items.

The Likert agreement scale used in this questionnaire is illustrated in Figure 1:

全く反対 やや反対 どちらでもない やや同意 全く同意

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5



Figure 1. The 5-point Agreement Scale Used in This Questionnaire

1 represents “completely disagree” [*mattaku hantai*] and 5 “completely agree” [*mattaku doi*], with 3 indicating “no particular opinion” [*dochira demo nai*]. Although 5-point Likert scales such as this are widely used, on hindsight we acknowledge that a 6-point scale would have been more appropriate to reduce the tendency of many informants to offer no clear cut opinion (Krosnick, et al., 2002, p. 400).

Form A consisted of a dozen positively worded statements and Form B had the same number of negatively worded ones. To clarify how these differed, let us compare one statement from both forms:

FORM A:

1. 私の英語は、留学するのに十分です。 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

コメント : _____

FORM B:

1. 私の英語は、留学するのに十分ではありません。 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

コメント : _____

Figure 2. One Questionnaire Item from Forms A and B

The Form A statement might be translated as, “My English is adequate for study abroad.” and Form B as, “My English is not adequate for study abroad.” In other words, Forms A and B were binary antipodals. Whereas Form A consisted of statements of positive ability or interest, Form B consisted of statements of inability or disinterest. Will persons completing these two forms tend to respond differently due to the shift in implicature? Exploring that question is one of the purposes of this study.

Procedure

The time frame and significant steps of this study are outlined in Figure 3.

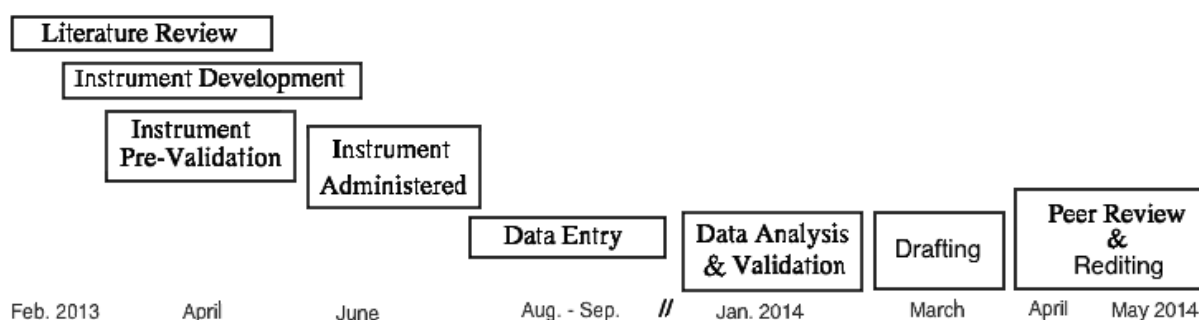


Figure 3. The Research Timeline for This Study

After a critical reading of the studies mentioned in the Literature Review, we developed a draft questionnaire. Using the translation-validation procedures described in Newfields and Groger (2012, p.6), this was piloted with five students. Three minor changes were made and then the revised questionnaire was administered in May 2013. Ten minutes at the end of a lesson were devoted to the questionnaire. Half of the classes were randomly given Form A and the other half received Form B; no students were asked to complete both forms.

No special incentives to complete the questionnaire were offered. As the questionnaire's Informed Consent Statement suggests, students could easily opt out. If over 50% of the agreement scale items were unanswered, it was considered a de facto opt out. The response rate was over 98%, with 5 students leaving their responses either mostly or entirely blank. The



Informed Consent Statement at the head of the questionnaire made it clear that informants could skip any question without penalty.

Analyses

After the questionnaire was administered, the demographic information and Likert agreement scale items were entered into Excel spreadsheets. To facilitate cross-form comparison, the transposition process outlined in Figure 4 was performed.

	completely agree	somewhat agree	no particular opinion	somewhat disagree	completely disagree	
FORM A (Positive Statements):	5	4	3	2	1	NR
(No transposition)	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
FORM B (Negative Statements):	1	2	3	4	5	NR
(Mirror transposition)						

Figure 4. The Procedure Used to Transpose the Form B Agreement Scale Responses

Strongly agreeing with a negative statement was considered equivalent to strongly disagreeing with a positive one. Similarly, “somewhat agreeing” to negative statements was equivalent to “somewhat disagreeing” with positive ones. In this research paper, we accept the belief that agreement with a negative statement is a scalar equivalent to disagreement with a positive one. However, we also acknowledge that on some level, positive and negative implicatures might not be neatly scalar.

Two types of sub-group comparisons were made: (1) inter-form differences, and (2) gender differences. For both comparisons, two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-tests at $p < .01$ significance were performed.

The 524 written comments were typed into separate text files for each agreement scale item, then coded post-hoc by the primary author. The secondary author then verified the coding, checking for incongruities and validating the transcription. Although independent coding by each author would have been better, this was considered impractical given the time constraints.

Finally, differences in the character length of the written comments between Form A and B were analyzed using two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-tests at $p < .01$. Gender and cross-form response rate differences were analyzed the same way.

Results

Let us first examine the results in terms of the twelve survey questions.

(1) L2 Adequate for Study Abroad?

The first questionnaire item was whether or not respondents felt their English was “good enough” to study abroad. A majority considered their English was inadequate for that purpose. As Figure 5 illustrates, this lack of self-efficacy was apparent across both forms.

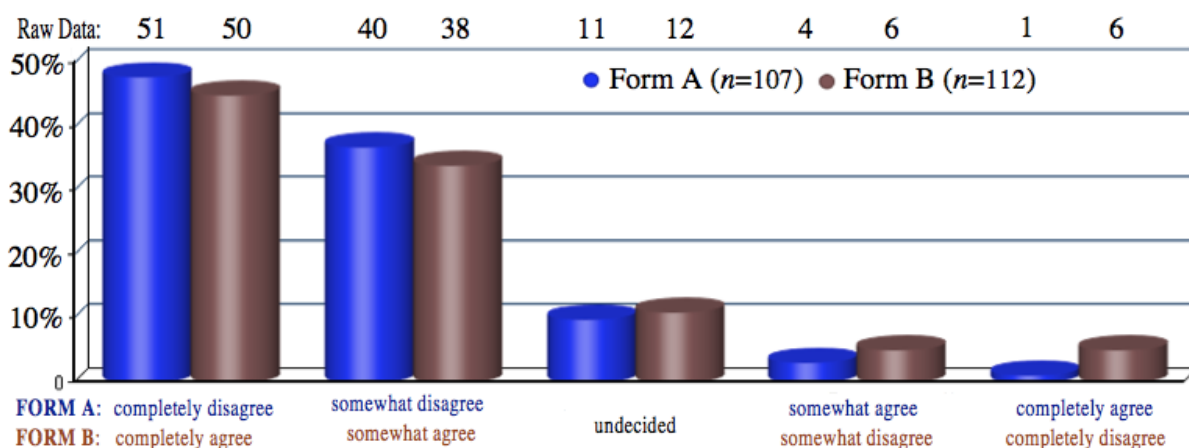


Figure 5. Responses to the statement “My English is (Form A) is not (Form B) adequate for study abroad.”

85% ($n=91$) of Form A and 79% ($n=88$) of Form B respondents regarded their English as insufficient for overseas study. Only 8% ($n=17$) felt up to the task of studying in an English-speaking country. The 79 written comments suggest a similar trend. 81% ($n=63$) lamented their lack of linguistic skills or inability to communicate. Typical responses were:

外国人と会話できません。	[I can't converse with foreigners.] (Respondent 68)
まったく英語がない	[I have absolutely no English.] (Respondent 55)
あまり自信がありません。	[I don't have much confidence.] (Respondent 98)

Only 5% ($n=4$) expressed a degree of confidence in handling study abroad tasks. Another ten cautiously limited the scope of their abilities through disjunctive phrasing, as in these examples:

授業ではできるかもしれない。しかし、日常会話は難しい。
[Perhaps (my English) is okay for classes, but daily conversation is difficult.] (Respondent 19)

聞き取りはできると思うが、話すことは上手ではないから。
[I can understand what is being said, but cannot speak well.] (Respondent 2)

Did responses to Forms A and B differ significantly? The Mann-Whitney U-test results ($U = 5803$, $p = 0.40$, $Z = 0.85$, $r = -0.01$) suggest not. Moreover, male and female respondents were essentially the same ($U = 5265$, $p = 0.24$, $Z = 1.18$, $r = 0.07$).

(2) Study Abroad Costs

Next we looked at perceptions about study abroad costs. As Figure 6 makes it clear, the widespread belief is that study abroad requires considerable sums of money.

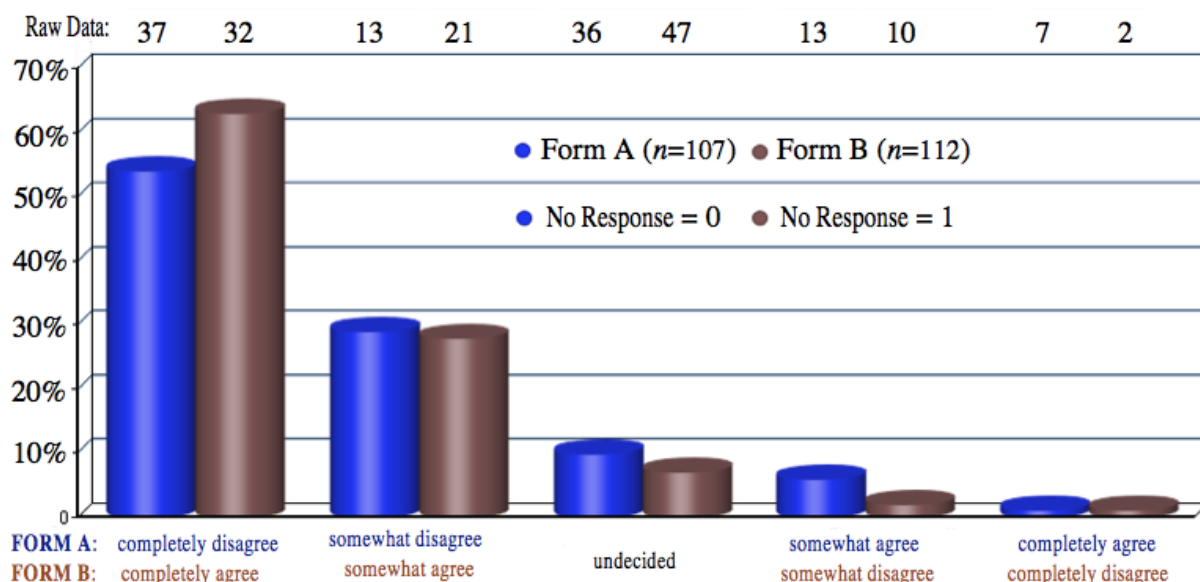


Figure 6. Responses to the statement “Study abroad does not (Form A) does (Form B) require much money.”

The written comments reflect these Likert trends. 83% ($n=48$) of the 58 narratives emphasize the high cost of studying overseas. Another seven use hedging techniques to point out how the financial burden can be ameliorated through scholarships. Only one person decisively disagreed with the survey implicature, asserting that school scholarships can defray study abroad costs. We should remember that 73% ($n=161$) of the respondents wrote no written comments. In general, the comment response rates tended to drop while progressing through the questionnaire, perhaps as a consequence of survey fatigue.

The differences between Forms A and B were not significant ($U = 5265$, $p = 0.24$, $Z = 1.18$, $r = 0.06$) – nor did gender seem to make a difference ($U = 5973$, $p = 0.89$, $Z = -0.13$, $r = -0.01$).

(3) L2 Writing Self-Efficacy

The third questionnaire item concerned the extent respondents felt they could – or couldn’t – express their thoughts when writing in English. Figure 7 reveals a clear lack of confidence among most respondents.

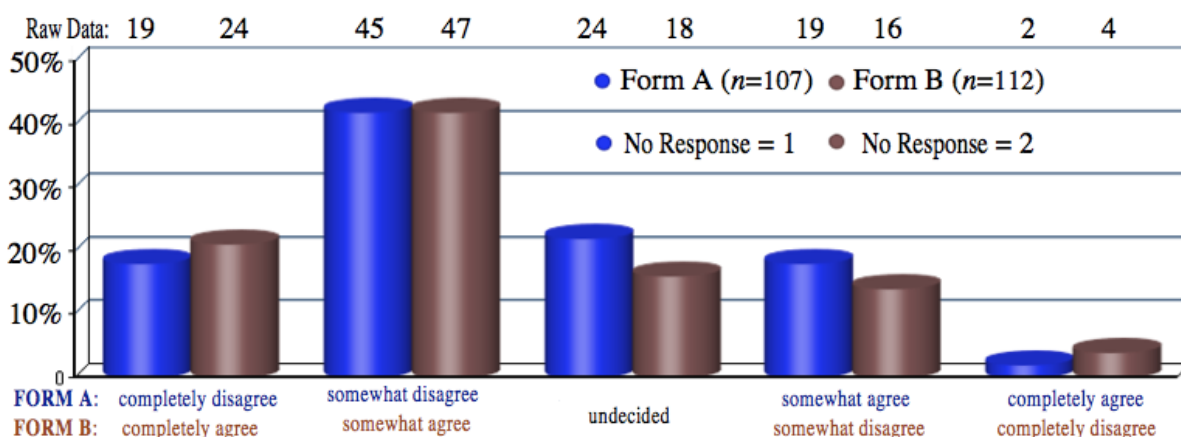


Figure 7. Responses to the statement “I can (Form A) can not (Form B) express myself in English when writing.”

62% ($n=135$) of the informants felt unable to express their thoughts in English. The 52 written comments suggest the same tendency. 69% ($n=36$) emphasized their negative L2 ability with statements such as:

単語ない。

[I have no vocabulary.] (Respondent 169)



文法がめちゃくちゃになる。

[My grammar is all screwed up.] (Respondent 200)

中学で学習するような簡単なものしかできない。[I'm only capable of simple jr. high school English.] (Respondent 155)

Another 27% ($n=14$) used conditionals to limit the scope of their abilities, as these instances attest:

難しい内容ではなければ、可能です。

[If the content is not difficult, it is possible.] (Respondent 1)

辞書があれば。

[If I have a dictionary (I can communicate).] (Respondent 140)

少しならできます。

[If it is just a little, I can do it.] (Respondent 68)

Only one person clearly affirmed his ability, asserting that English composition was a forte. In general, negative self-assessments far outweighed positive ones.

Here too, no significant differences between the survey forms were evident ($U = 5677$, $p = 0.43$, $Z = 0.79$, $r = 0.08$), nor did we detect any gender disparities of note ($U = 5169$, $p = 0.24$, $Z = 1.18$, $r = 0.07$).

(4) L2 Speaking Self-Efficacy

Next we examined whether or not the respondents felt capable of expressing themselves when speaking English. As Figure 8 demonstrates, most persons had even less confidence in their speaking ability than they did in their writing ability (which was described in Figure 7). The mean score for writing self-efficacy was 2.40, compared to a speaking mean score of 2.08. Comparing these independent means, we obtained a t-value of 3.11 and p-value of 0.000988, suggesting a significant difference at $p < 0.01$.

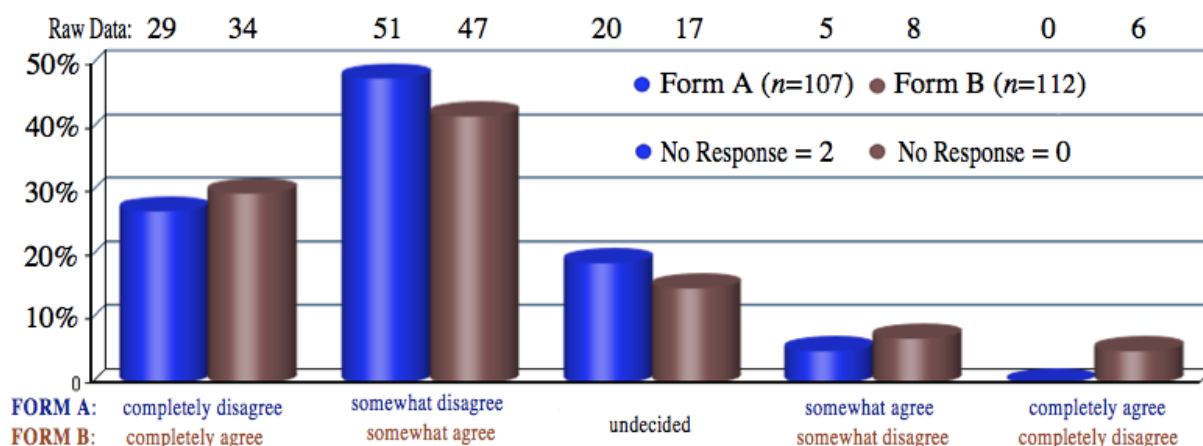


Figure 8. Responses to the statement “I can (Form A) can not (Form B) express myself in English when speaking.”

The 46 written comments echoed this pattern. 76% ($n=35$) emphasized their incapacity with statements such as:

話せなくて残念。

[Unfortunately I can't speak.] (Respondent 147)

緊張してしまう

[I get all flustered.] (Respondent 162)

単語ができません

[Words do not come out.] (Respondent 219)

The 17% ($n=8$) who expressed some confidence in their oral English ability did so only conditionally. Again, notice how provisional hedges are used to delimit and demarcate performance:

ジェスチャーとかも使い、必死で伝える。

[If I try hard and use gestures, I can.] (Respondent 200)

文法無視なら時間はかかるが伝えられるかも。

[If I ignore grammar, maybe - but it takes time.] (Respondent 144)

ジェスチャー等を使ってなる、伝えられるかもしれない。

[If I use gestures, maybe I can communicate.] (Respondent 166)

The inter-form differences were not statistically significant ($U = 5553$, $p = 0.64$, $Z = 0.47$, $r = -0.07$), nor were the gender contrasts ($U = 5657$, $p = 0.84$, $Z = -0.20$, $r = -0.01$).



(5) L2 Pragmatic Self-Efficacy

The next Likert item concerned how well respondents felt they could sustain conversations in English. Although many university level students in Japan can respond to simple questions in English, our classroom experience has been that most do not know how to engage in *sustained* dialogs. Figure 9 confirmed this observation: about two-thirds of the students indicated that they lacked the pragmatic skills to maintain L2 conversations.

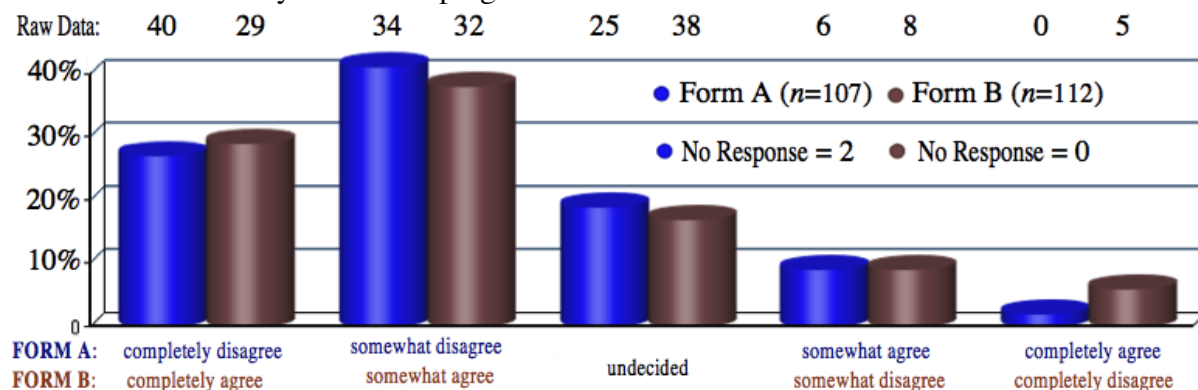


Figure 9. Responses to “I know (Form A) do not know (Form B) how to sustain a conversation in English.”

66% ($n=25$) of the 38 comments highlighted this lack of confidence. Typical responses included:

すぐに会話につまってしまいます。	[I quickly get tongue-tied.] (Respondent 111)
スムーズに単語がでない	[Words do not come out smoothly.] (Respondent 175)
日本語でも会話を続けるのは難しいです。	[Even in Japanese, sustaining conversations is difficult.] (Respondent 162)

Only three respondents indicated that they had learned this pragmatic skill; another eight conceded they could carry on extended conversations in limited circumstances:

あいさつぐらいなら。	[If it is just limited to greetings.] (Respondent 144)
わかるときもあります。	[There are times when I understand (how to do this).] (Respondent 205)
相手によります。	[It depends on whom I am talking with.] (Respondent 35)

No significant contrast between Forms A and B was noted ($U = 5805$, $p = 0.70$, $Z = 0.39$, $r = -0.04$). Although female respondents did appear to be more confident of their ability to handle extended discourse than males at a $p = 0.03572$ level ($U = 4216$, $Z = -2.100$, $r = -0.14$), this fell short of our a priori $p \leq .01$ standard and the effect size (Cohen's $d = -0.28$) was modest. In short, the data was not convincing enough to indicate a clear cut gender difference.

(6) L2 Grammar Self-Efficacy

Next we explored how confident respondents were of their English grammar. Since most Japanese secondary school EFL syllabi devote considerable attention to grammar (Takeda, Choi, Mochizuki & Watanabe, 2006, p. 73), our guess was that many students would feel competent in this field. As Figure 10 reveals, however, the majority were anxious about their command of grammar.

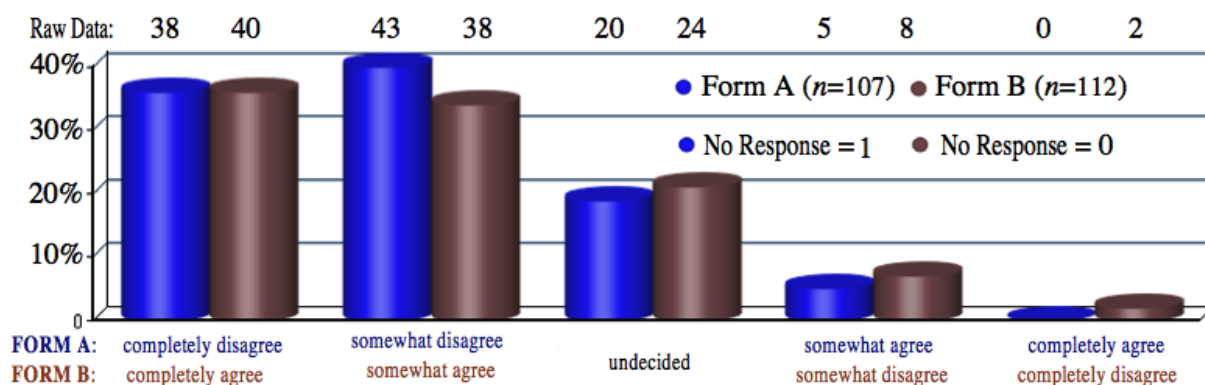


Figure 10. Responses to “My English grammar is good” (Form A) and “My English grammar is bad” (Form B).

67% ($n=24$) of the 36 written comments highlight this trend through statements such as:

文法は苦手です。	[I am bad at grammar.] (Respondent #204)
全然だめです。	[(My grammar) is completely lousy.] (Respondent #200)
会話をするときにはかなりへたになる	[When I speak, my grammar becomes bad.] (Respondent #196)

Only two persons unconditionally affirmed their competence; another five cautiously hedged their L2 abilities. For example, Respondent 168 remarked, “I’m good at *written* grammar, but bad at *spoken* grammar.”

No significant differences were found between forms ($U = 5627$, $p = 0.44$, $Z = 0.78$, $r = -0.07$) or across genders ($U = 4645$, $p = 0.88$, $Z = 0.15$, $r = 0.01$).

(7) L2 Spelling Self-Efficacy

The seventh item explored how confident students were of their English spelling. As Figure 11 suggests, most saw themselves as incompetent spellers. Another large portion had ambivalence about their spelling ability; less than 15% ($n=6$) viewed themselves as skilled in this regard.

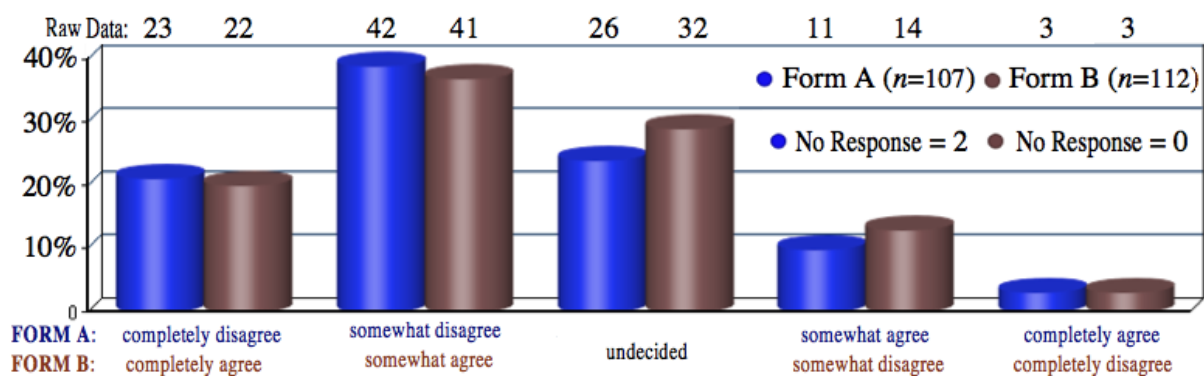


Figure 11. Responses to “I make few spelling errors” (Form A) and “I make many spelling errors” (Form B).

The 27 comments echo this trend. Whereas 56% ($n=15$) regarded themselves as “lousy spellers” only 15% ($n=4$) affirmed their ability to spell most English words. Another seven limited the scope of their ability by statements such as, “I don’t use difficult words when writing, so mistakes are rare.” (Respondent 146) or “My spelling is simply average.” (Respondent 175).

Once again, Forms A and B exhibited no significant differences ($U = 5546$, $p = 0.47$, $Z = 0.72$, $r = -0.04$). Male and female responses ($U = 5036$, $p = 0.12$, $Z = 1.56$, $r = 0.10$) were also comparable.

(8) Comparative L2 Self-Image



How do informants view themselves as English language learners? The next survey item explored this issue, asking respondents to rate their English abilities vis-à-vis their peers. Theoretically, we might expect a somewhat Gaussian distribution, but the distribution of the data in Figure 12 illustrates how low self-efficacy may impair the ability of people to accurately estimate their abilities in comparison to others. The strong skew of this data makes it clear that the majority of informants believed themselves to be worse off than their peers. Should this be interpreted as an example of socially sanctioned “Japanese humility” (Tsuda, 1992) or perhaps as a lack of self-efficacy? Both interpretations seem possible.

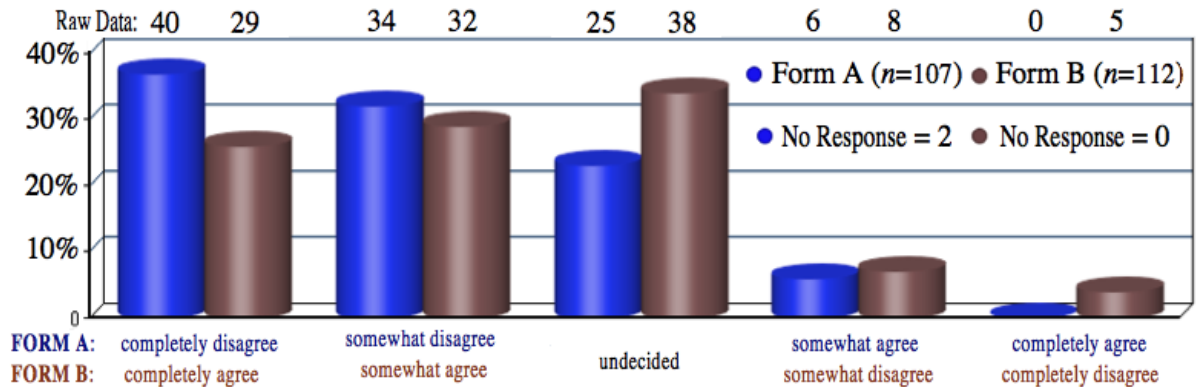


Figure 12. Responses to the statement “Compared with my peers, my English is above average (Form A) / below average (Form B).”

The 26 informant comments point toward the same conclusion: 50% ($n=13$) made statements about their lack of ability. Only one informant affirmed that her English was “better” than her peers. 19% ($n=5$) described themselves as “average” and three were uncertain about how they ranked.

Had we accepted $p \leq 0.05$ as our a priori threshold, it would be tempting to say that responses to Forms A and B differed significantly ($U = 4938$, $p = 0.03$, $Z = 2.23$, $r = -0.18$). The inter-form effect size (Cohen’s $d = -0.38$) suggests a weak correlation. However, since there are twelve test items in this study, the z-critical value needs to be less than -2.64. That value was not met and we must accept the null hypothesis that the inter-form variation is simply random. Little difference was noted between male and female responses ($U = 5627$, $p = 0.44$, $Z = 0.78$, $r = -0.10$).

(9) Study Abroad Interest

The ninth questionnaire item concerned interest in study abroad. Earlier studies by Newfields (2012b, p. 129) and Newfields and Groger (2012, p. 8) revealed a moderate interest in overseas study among this general population. However, as Figure 13 makes clear, responses from this sample were widespread, suggesting a broad range of views.

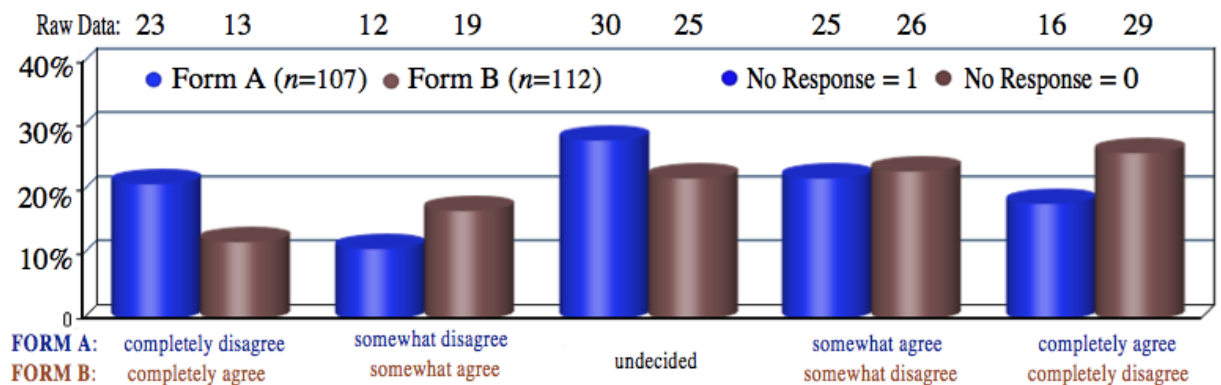


Figure 13. Responses to the statement “I do (Form A) / do not (Form B) really want to study abroad.”



The 41 written comments attest to this diversity of opinion. 32% ($n=13$) voiced a positive desire to study abroad. An equal number expressed a lack of desire. Another common response ($n=10$) was conditional affirmation. Notice how conditional qualifiers are used to avoid pragmatic entailment in these examples:

時間とお金に余裕があればしてみたい。 [If I have sufficient time and money, I'd like to try it.] (Respondent 137)
 機会があればしたい。 [If there is a chance, I want to.] (Respondent 200)
 条件があれば留学したい [If conditions are right I want to study abroad.] (Respondent 215)

Ambivalence about study abroad was expressed by three respondents through statements such as “Either way is okay.” (Respondent #65).

Comparing Forms A and B, no significant differences appeared ($U = 4963$, $p = 0.12$, $Z = 1.57$, $r = -0.11$). Gender differences were also non-significant ($U = 5627$, $p = 0.44$, $Z = 0.78$, $r = -0.18$).

(10) Interest in International Friendships

Survey item #10 explored interest in international friendships. Figure 14 shows how a majority of students wanted friends from overseas, even though some wondered whether it was feasible.

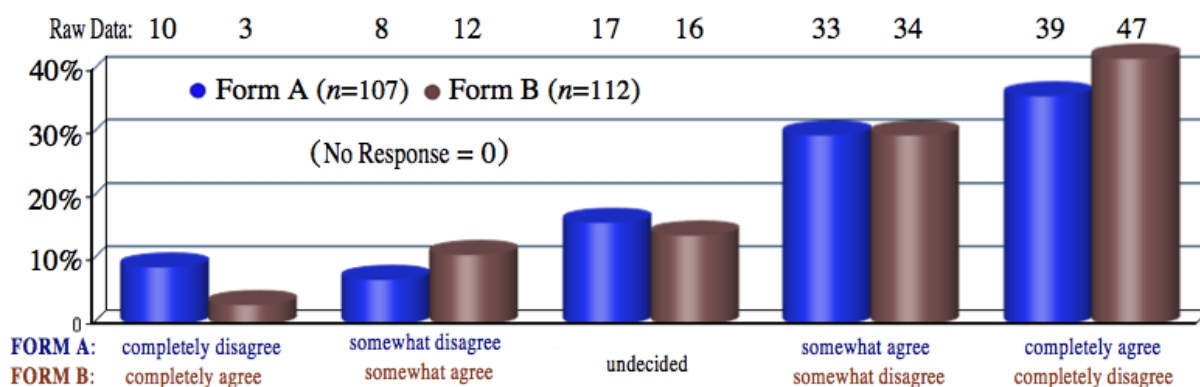


Figure 14. Responses to the statement “I am (Form A) / am not (Form B) interested in making foreign friends.”

The 47 written comments further confirm this trend. 70% ($n=33$) of the informants voiced a desire for overseas friends. Only 14% ($n=5$) expressed a lack of desire or skepticism about this possibility. Five informants mentioned that they *already* had foreign friends – a low figure since three foreigners are already in this sample. The remaining few offered hedged responses ($n=2$) or evasive answers ($n=2$).

No significant differences were discernable between across forms ($U = 5922$, $p = 0.36$, $Z = 0.92$, $r = -0.07$). We did find some indication that females might be more interested in forming international friendships than males ($U = 4561$, $p = 0.03$, $Z = -2.21$, $r = -0.15$). This merits further study, but cannot be considered significant at a $p \leq 0.01$ level, particularly since the effect size (Cohen’s $d = -0.29$) was somewhat modest.

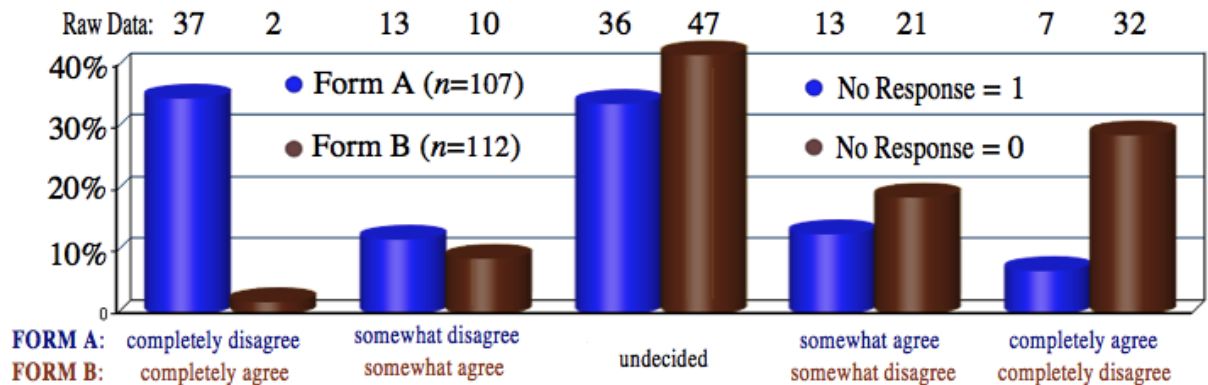
(11) Parental Attitudes towards Study Abroad

Next we investigated how parents felt about their children studying abroad, or more precisely: how the students themselves *believed* their parents felt. As Table 2 and Figure 15 make it clear, the cross-form results varied markedly. Whereas the Form A data suggests most parents were ambivalent about their children studying abroad, the Form B data would lead us to believe most parents wanted them to study overseas. This item offers the strongest evidence in this study of how questionnaire wording can sometimes significantly influence responses.



Table 2. A Comparison of the Responses to Question 11 in Forms A and B

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>VAR</i>	<i>SEM</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>Z-Score</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Form A	2.43	1.27	1.60	0.12	3088	6.19	*.001
Form B	3.63	1.04	1.10	0.10			

*Significant at $p \leq 0.01$.Figure 15. Responses to the statement “My parents do (Form A) / do not (Form B) really want me to study abroad.”

The effect size measures ($r = -0.15$, Cohen's $d = -0.30$) are not inconsequential: cross-form implicature appears to account for some of the variance.

When we examine the 30 comments, responses fall into four main patterns. In order of frequency, these were: parental discouragement, parental encouragement, non-discussion, and support for children's choices. Let us consider each pattern briefly. 31% of the Form A ($n=5$) and 40% ($n=8$) of the Form B respondents stated that their parents did not want them to study overseas. Financial worries and safety concerns were widely cited. By contrast, 19% ($n=7$) indicated that their parents did want them to study overseas. However, none of the comments specified *why* this was so. Indeed, few respondents attempted to support any of the statements they made.

22% ($n=8$) of the informants stated that they had no idea what their parents were thinking about this topic - it was never discussed. Finally, 14% ($n=5$) wrote that their parents would support whatever decision their children made: children were given the authority to make their own independent choices.

Male and female responses did not differ significantly ($U = 5325$, $p = 0.52$, $Z = -0.63$, $r = 0.03$).

(12) Job Hunting and Study Abroad

The final item was about the perceived usefulness of study abroad in the job market. Figure 16 highlights how two-thirds of the informants saw the practical value of study abroad when seeking jobs. About 16% ($n=36$) were unsure and only 6% ($n=13$) disagreed.

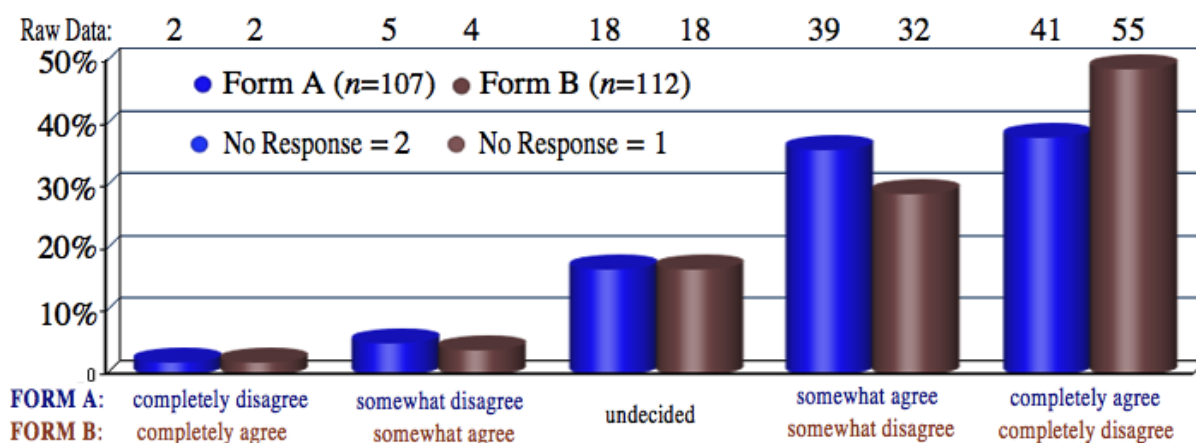


Figure 16. Responses to the statement “Study abroad is is (Form A) / is not (Form B) useful for job hunting.”

The 44 comments mirror the trends in Figure 16. Four main response patterns are evident. The most common is *agreement*: 57% ($n=25$) considered study abroad experience to be helpful when seeking a job. A second pattern was *conditional hedging*: 14% ($n=6$) were either unsure about the practical benefit of this, often pointing out how it depended on one’s career choice. A third pattern was *disagreement*: 11% ($n=5$) did not see any value of study abroad in terms of obtaining work. Finally, six respondents pointed out how study abroad might have *non-work related benefits*, making statements such as:

人間としてすごく成長できるかもしれないとは思ふ。 [I think that you may grow a lot as a human being.] (Respondent 141)
 視野が広がると思います。 [I think your perspectives will widen.] (Respondent 188)
 他にない良いけいけんになると思います。 [I think it would be an invaluable unique experience.] (Respondent 1)

For this item, no significant differences between Forms A and B was apparent ($U = 5276$, $p = 0.23$, $Z = 1.20$, $r = -0.07$). However, female respondents were significantly more likely to consider study abroad more “useful” for job-hunting than males ($U = 2764$, $p = 0.001$, $Z = 4.13$, $r = -0.32$). The effect size (Cohen’s $d = -0.68$) was somewhat substantial.

Discussion

Now let us discuss the results in terms of the three research questions.

(1) How does the wording of Likert items influence the responses?

Only one of the twelve agreement scale items from Forms A and B showed significantly different patterns at a $p \leq .01$ level. This suggests that survey questionnaire implicature occasionally can sway responses, partly refuting Stouffer and DeVinney’s (1949, cited in Chan, 1991, p. 533) *form-resistant correlation hypothesis*. However, in most cases respondents in this sample were not swayed by negatively or positively worded statements. This indicates that textual implicature does not necessarily influence how informants respond to survey items. Instead of thinking of form-independence or independence in binary terms, perhaps we should regard it as a continuum. The data from this study indicates questionnaire wording often has no impact, but even one exception is enough make us think carefully about implicature effects.

It is difficult to ascertain whether the Form A and B comments had different quantitative distributions since the response rate was only 21% ($SD = 7.1$, $VAR = 51.52$, $SEM = 1.46$), which gives us a possible sample error of 20% at a 95% confidence interval. Since coded cell sizes tended to be small ($M = 9.85$) and they were widely distributed ($SD = 12.62$, $VAR = 159.3$, $SEM = 1.71$), the data was not readily amenable to quantitative analysis. Qualitatively speaking, neither of us detected a marked difference between the comments in Forms A and B.

“...survey questionnaire implicature occasionally can sway responses...”

*(2) How did the informants tend to support their positions?*

The simplest answer is that most students did not bother to give any support for their positions. Indeed, it is tempting to consider “questionnaire-ese” as a distinct writing genre unlike the other genres described by Kruse and Chitez (2012, p. 68). Unless incentives to conscientiously respond to questionnaires are created, there is a tendency to complete survey items as quickly as possible with minimal energy. Only 10% ($n=50$) of the 524 written comments contained explicit statements in support of their opinions. For example, Respondent 158 supported her belief that her English was worse than her peers by stating, “Because I’ve had no experience studying abroad.” A wider number of Japanese respondents used implicit statements to convey causality. Notice how indirect support for a given belief is used in these examples:

TOEIC 点数とれません	[I can't get a high TOEIC score <so feel my English is sub-standard>.] (Respondent 89)
みんなできると思います。	[I think everyone else around me is competent <so I feel sub-standard>.] (Respondent 148)
英作文が苦手。	[I'm not good at English composition <so feel worse than my peers>.] (Respondent 91)

As Ido (2009, p. 75) briefly suggests, whereas English writers might be more inclined to explicitly state the material within the chevrons, Japanese writers are more likely to delete such information, inferring null objects from contextual cues.

(3) How does L2 self-efficacy and interest in study abroad tend to vary with gender?

Various facets of L2 self-efficacy were explored in six of the agreement-scale items. At a conservative $p \leq .01$ level, no gender differences were significant. Future studies should explore the possibility that female Japanese university EFL students might have pragmatic L2 self-efficacy than males.

If we examine the 524 written comments from this study, four possible trends are evident. First, response rates seemed to vary with gender ($U = 29.5$, $p = 0.01$, $Z = 2.45$, $r = -0.51$). Whereas only 16.25% of the females ($n=112$) wrote comments, 25% of the males ($n=122$) did so.

Second, although males wrote more often than females, their responses tended to be shorter. The average male character count was 12.13 characters ($SD = 6.55$, $VAR = 42.86$, $SEM = 0.36$). By contrast, a typical female comment tended to be 15.57 characters in length ($SD = 7.59$, $VAR = 57.61$, $SEM = 0.54$). This disparity was wide enough to be considered non-random ($U = 40033$, $p = 0.001$, $Z = -5.03$, $r = 0.24$).

Third, the comments suggest that *motives* for study abroad might vary by gender. Conservatively speaking, additional evidence is needed, but it seems quite possible that interest in developing “international friendships” is an example of Shields and Diccio (2011, p. 492) refer to as a *gendered behavior*.

Finally, the females who did write comments tended to feel study abroad would be more useful for job-hunting than males. However, this tendency is not supported by the Likert scale data. Since the written comment response rate was low, the results are inconclusive.

Conclusion

Perhaps four findings are noteworthy from this study. First, some evidence was offered regarding how survey implicature can *occasionally* skew how respondents react to Likert scale items. However, we should also point out that in eleven of the twelve cases explored in this study, implicature had no significant impact on survey responses. It seems likely that some types of questionnaire items are more prone to social desirability bias or expectancy effects than others. Future studies should explore this issue from a Rasch perspective, investigating the interaction of items with persons.



Second, this study also explored how L2 self-efficacy and attitudes toward study abroad varied by gender. A conservative interpretation would be that more research is needed before any statements can be made. This study suggested that pragmatic self-efficacy, reasons for studying abroad, and interest in forming “international friendships” might vary with gender, but the statistical evidence was not compelling enough to make any definitive statements. Future studies should address these issues through richer textual media such as SNS entries and/or extended journaling.

A third finding in this study concerned how the rhetorical style exhibited in the 524 short responses to this questionnaire differed from other writing styles. Evidence of how “questionnaire-ese” is distinct from careful, systematic writing was briefly provided. We should remember that most students are motivated to get through their questionnaires as

*“...it is tempting to consider
“questionnaire-ese” as a
distinct writing genre...”*

quickly as possible: it is likely that few perceived any direct benefits to writing detailed answers.

Regarding the written comments themselves, we alluded to some of the ways that Japanese and English language questionnaire responses appear to differ. Future studies should compare similar demographic samples of English and Japanese university students, contrasting how they respond to the same set of questionnaire items in their respective native languages. The fact that only one of the 219 students who completed the questionnaire in this study attempted to do so in English should be considered striking. (That student was a Japanese education major with one overseas experience and a modest TOEIC score of 400.)

Finally, the most salient finding of this study was the broad lack of self-efficacy among most of the respondents regarding their own English ability. A majority of the students in this sample exhibited a clear belief that their English was inadequate and they did not feel capable of engaging in anything beyond CEFR Level A2 interactions, despite having studied English at least six years. Most informants saw themselves as inept English language users who could not successfully complete even basic L2 communicative tasks. Future studies should employ extended think aloud protocols and precise “can do” statements to see how this endemic perception of failure develops, and contrast one group of students who consider themselves “successful” as foreign language learners with another group who regard themselves as “unsuccessful” at the same task.

What educational implications does this research have? For EFL teachers, the most obvious point is the need to increase L2 self-efficacy levels among students. Canfield and Wells (1994) have discussed a number of ways to do this. Providing achievable structured tasks that are “fun” for participants as well as positive feedback may enhance self-efficacy. However, we should candidly concede this task is daunting. At the university level is it possible to make a significant difference in most students’ L2 self-efficacy levels? That should be a theme for ongoing research. Regarding Japanese English education, the prevailing attitude towards mistakes may also merit reappraisal. Many respondents expressed a dreadful fear of mistakes. For example, Student 146 made the comment, “There are too many chances of failure even without studying abroad” in response to the first agreement scale item. This student is exhibiting *task avoidance* - a common strategy for those with low levels of self-efficacy. Teachers need to help students reframe mistakes as natural occurrences whenever working with any foreign language rather than things to be ashamed of. We also point out how meaningful communication can often occur in spite of mistakes.

A second implication of this research is for study abroad program administrators. Since this study indicates that male and female respondents may study abroad for different reasons, a natural implication concerns the marketing of such programs. If a study abroad program is being designed for mostly female participants, then the possibility of developing “friendships with persons from abroad” and its potential in terms of job hunting should be underscored. Shirley (2006) has provided some useful information about how to make study abroad more



appealing to American male university students. Many of his ideas may be applicable to Japanese males. Finally, those organizing study abroad programs need to challenge the widespread myth that the best time to study abroad is *after* a person's English is fluent. Particularly in short-term programs, L2 fluency is seldom a requirement. Indeed, in best-case scenarios study abroad might provide a valuable stimulus to work towards fluency in a target language.

This study has some practical implications for researchers. First, it points out the need to be sensitive to the implicature of questionnaire items. Particularly when teachers also take on roles as researchers and student/informants have confidentiality without actual anonymity, the temptation for students to satiate with answers that are “more or less acceptable” can be great. Also, this study provides evidence of *survey fatigue* – a tendency of many questionnaire respondents to complete the first questions conscientiously, then gradually speed through the survey. For that reason, it might be worthwhile arranging the sequence of some questions in multiple forms and/or using multiple survey administrations rather than one session. An EFL writing class might be a particularly good venue because curricular objectives of writing in a target language could easily connect with the research objectives of exploring L2 self-efficacy.

The following three limitations of this study need to be acknowledged.

First, it is based on two contrasting forms of one questionnaire that was completed in merely ten minutes at the end of a single class with little encouragement to write out detailed comments. As such, the best that it can offer is a snapshot of how informants may have felt at one time. It is quite possible that many students' attitudes towards study abroad and/or English study might change over the course of their studies. For this reason, a longitudinal design would offer a better picture of attitudinal shifts. Also, instead of conducting the survey at the end of class when students are tired and anxious to move on, it might be better to administer it at the beginning of class when respondents are fresher and there are less time constraints.

Second, this study has relied on strong assumptions about implicature scalability. In order to contrast the two differently worded forms, we accepted that agreeing with a positive statement was a scalar equivalent to disagreeing with a negative statement. Although this belief facilitates statistical comparisons, a lingering question is whether or not it is psycholinguistically viable.

Finally, the written comments in this study are problematic in two respects. First, the overall response rate was low: just 21% of the students bothered to write out comments about their responses. Second, such comments tended to be short: most were under twelve characters. Other writing genres such as homework essay reports in which students are less pressured to write quickly could offer a more comprehensive picture of how students felt about study abroad and their identities as English learners/users.

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Appendix A. Original Japanese Questionnaire

承諾同意書

私たちは、海外留学の意識調査の研究を行っており、このプロジェクトへの自主的な参加者を求めています。調査は、いくつかの日本語の質問に対し、記述形式で答えるようになっております。また、



その後、パートナーを選択し、英語のインタビューに参加していただきます。記述調査は授業中に行い、5分程かかります。また、希望者には、完成する研究論文のコピーを差し上げます。

参加者へのデメリットは、ありませんが、英語のインタビューには、難しい質問が含まれており、悔しい思いをする人がいらっしゃるかもしれません。すべての個人情報、保護されると同時に、すべての回答は、匿名で扱われます。また、あなたが望まない質問に回答する必要はありません。希望する場合は、研究への参加を中止することもできます。

この研究に関する質問は、下記のアドレスから個別に研究者と連絡を取ることができます。

ティモシー ニューフィールズ
東洋大学経済学部)

ケン グローガー
静岡大学教育学部

ご協力をいただき、ありがとうございます。

署名: _____

日付: _____

パート I: 人口学的情報

1. Your Name (in Roman letters): _____
2. 学生番号: _____
3. ご専門 専攻: ☐ 経済 ☐ 教育 ☐ その他: _____
4. 学年 (1つのボックスをチェックしてください): ☐ 1年生 ☐ 2年生 ☐ 3年生 ☐ 4年生
5. 性別 (check one): ☐ 男性 ☐ 女性
6. 年齢 (check one): ☐ 18歳 ☐ 19歳 ☐ 20歳 ☐ 21歳 ☐ 22歳 ☐ 23+歳
7. 国籍 (check one): ☐ 日本 ☐ 中国 ☐ 韓国 ☐ 北朝鮮 ☐ その他: _____
8. 回日本国外これまでのところ (1つのボックスをチェックしてください): ☐ 0回 ☐ 1回 ☐ 2回 ☐ 3回 ☐ 4回 ☐ 5+回
9. あなたの両親のうちの誰でも外国で以前に勉強したことがありますか。 (check one)
☐ いえ ☐ はい、父は。 ☐ はい、母は。 ☐ はい、両方の親はそうです。
10. あなたの両親のいずれかの外国語を流暢に話すか? (check one)
☐ いえ ☐ はい、父は。 ☐ はい、母は。 ☐ はい、両方の親はそうです。
- 11 私のもっと最近の TOEIC のスコアをされました: ____ 点 (メモ: この情報はあなたの等級に影響を与えることはありません、機密されます)。

第二部: リッカート賛成反対項目

指示: 以下の選択肢を選んで反対か賛成かを答えさせるものです。

全く反対 やや反対 どちらでもない やや同意 全く同意
☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

例: バニラアイスクリームが一番おいしいアイスクリームのフレーバーです。

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5

コメント: これはブランドによります。普通に抹茶アイスクリームを好みます。

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1. 私の英語は留学するために十分である。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 1. 私の英語は留学するのに十分ではありません。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 2. 海外留学するためにたくさんのお金が必要です。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 2. 海外留学するためにたくさんのお金が必要ではありません。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 3. 通常英語で書くとき自分自身の基本的な考えを伝えます。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 3. 通常私の基本的な考えを英語を書くときは通信できません。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 4. 英語で話す時、いつも思ったことを上手伝えることができます。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 4. 英語で話す時、いつも思ったことを上手く伝えることができない。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 5. 英語だと、どのように会話を続けたらいいのかわかる。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 5. 英語だと、どのように会話を続けたらいいのかわからない。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 6. 全体的に、私の英語の文法はかなり良いです。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 6. 全体的に、私の英語の文法はかなりお粗末です。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 7. 英語では、スペルミスが少ない。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 7. 英語では、スペルミスが多い。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 8. 同年齢のクラスメイトに比べて、自分の英語力は高い方だ。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 8. 同年齢のクラスメイトに比べて、自分の英語力は低い方だ。 | [B] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |
| 9. 私は留学を強く望んでいます。 | [A] <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |



9. 私は留学をそれほど強くは望んでいません。 [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
10. 外国人の友達を作ることに興味があります。 [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
10. 外国人の友達を作ることにあまり興味がありません。 [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
11. 私の両親は本当に私を留学させたいと考えています。 [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
11. 私の両親は本当に私を留学させたくない。 [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
12. 留学することは、おそらく私の就職活動で役に立つと思います。 [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
12. 留学することは、おそらく私の就職活動で役に立たないと思います。 [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

Appendix B. English Translation of the Questionnaire

Informed Consent Statement

We are conducting research on attitudes about study abroad and are asking for your voluntary participation in this project. You will be asked to respond to some Japanese questions in writing. After this, you will have an opportunity to participate in a paired interview with a partner of your choice in English. The written survey below takes about 5 minutes to complete and will be done in class. If you wish, you may also receive a copy of our completed research paper. Participating in this research involves no risks that we are aware of. All information will be confidential and all responses anonymous. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish. Moreover, you may also discontinue this study at any time if you wish. If you have any questions about this study, please contact either the researchers at these addresses:

Tim Newfields
Toyo University Faculty of Economics

Ken Groger
Shizouka University Faculty of Education

Thank you kindly for your assistance.

YOUR SIGNATURE: _____ DATE: _____

PART I: Demographic Information

- Your Name (in Roman letters): _____
- Student #: _____
- Your Major (check one): ☐ Economics ☐ Education ☐ Other: _____
- Academic Year (check one): ☐ 1st year ☐ 2nd year ☐ 3rd year ☐ 4th year
- Gender (check one): ☐ Male ☐ Female
- Age (check one): ☐ 18 ☐ 19 ☐ 20 ☐ 21 ☐ 22 ☐ 23+
- Nationality (check one): ☐ Japanese ☐ Chinese ☐ Korean ☐ Other: _____
- Times outside of Japan so far (check one): ☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5+
- Have any of your parents studied abroad before? (check one)
☐ No. ☐ Yes, my father has. ☐ Yes, my mother has. ☐ Yes, both parents have.
- Do either of your parents speak a foreign language fluently? (check one)
☐ No. ☐ Yes, my father does. ☐ Yes, my mother does. ☐ Yes, both parents do.
- My most recent TOEIC score was: _____

PART II: Likert Agreement Scale Items

INSTRUCTIONS: Agree or disagree with each of the following statements according to the following scale:

completely disagree somewhat disagree no opinion somewhat agree completely agree
☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

Feel free to add comments in Japanese or English after each statement.

Example: Vanilla ice cream is the most delicious ice cream flavor. ☒1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
COMMENT(S): Well, it depends on the brand. Usually I prefer green tea ice cream.

NOTE: To conserve space, the comment space has been omitted.
Also, Forms A (in blue) & B (in brown) are combined.

1. My English is good enough to study abroad. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5



1. My English is not good enough to study abroad. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
2. I do not think you need a lot of money to study abroad. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
2. I think you need a lot of money to study abroad. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
3. I can usually communicate my basic ideas in English when writing. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
3. I usually can't communicate my basic ideas in English when writing. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
4. I can usually communicate my basic ideas in English when speaking. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
4. I usually can't communicate my basic ideas in English when speaking. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
5. I know how to sustain a basic conversation in English. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
5. I don't know how to sustain a basic conversation in English. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
6. My English grammar is pretty good. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
6. My English grammar is rather lousy. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
7. I make few English spelling mistakes. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
7. I make a lot of English spelling mistakes. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
8. My English skills are better than most classmates my age. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
8. My English skills are worse than most classmates my age. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
9. I am keen about studying abroad. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
9. I am not so keen about studying abroad. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
10. I am interested in making friends from abroad. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
10. I am not so interested in making friends from abroad. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
11. My parents really want me to study abroad. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
11. My parents don't want me to study abroad so much. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
12. I think studying abroad will help me with job-hunting. [A] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5
12. I don't think studying abroad will help me with job-hunting. [B] ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5



Japan Association for Language Teaching Study Abroad SIG

全国語学教育学会研修研究会

<http://jalt-sa.org/PDF/7-1Newfields-Groger.pdf>