

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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The major purpose of this study was to explore changes in language proficiency and self-concept of Japanese college students participating in an intensive English language program at Tokyo International University of America (TIUA). Another purpose of the study was to determine if there was a relationship between change in English language proficiency as measured by the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and changes in self-concept as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

Data for this study were collected between May 1989 (pretest) and January 1990 (posttest). Of the 61 students (mostly sophomores and juniors) in the exchange program, 44 students completed the pre- and posttests of TOEFL, 52 students completed the pre-and posttests of TSCS, while 39 students completed the pre- and posttests of both the TOEFL and TSCS. The data were analyzed by methods of one-way analysis of variance, t-tests and Pearson's correlation analyses.

Results of this study show that (i) there was a statistically significant increase in the level of language proficiency of the Japanese exchange

students, (ii) there were no significant gender differences in TOEFL test scores, (iii) there were no significance changes in TSCS total or subscales scores, (iv) there were no significant gender differences in TSCS total or subscales change scores, and (iv) a significant correlation was found between TOEFL scores and changes in the TSCS social self score ($r = .306$).

The researcher recommends that more indepth study be conducted to explore the relationship that social self and behavior may have upon language development. Moreover, additional studies on intensive language programs should be undertaken using control groups to compare English language development within short-term intensive language programs. It is also recommended that further research be done to determine self-concept development among international students.

Language Proficiency and Self-Concept: A Study of Japanese
Exchange Students

by

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LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND SELF-CONCEPT: A STUDY OF JAPANESE EXCHANGE STUDENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The number of international students in the United States has been on the increase since the early 1960s. Presently over 366,300 foreign students are enrolled in universities and colleges in the United States (Open Doors, 1989). Research has pointed to the importance of language proficiency as a key factor in the adaptation of international students. Many student personnel workers have noted the strong influence that communication has on international students' adjustment in a new cultural environment. For example, Sewell and Davidsen (1956) reported that fluency in the host language was a necessary condition for satisfactory adjustment. In support of this view, Gardner (1962) suggested that effective communicators will have the least difficulty in adjusting to another country.

The growing population of foreign students has resulted in an increase in the number of students seeking language proficiency study. Organizations interested in intercultural education have responded to this increased demand by establishing short-term Intensive English Language Programs (IELPs). In 1989, 29,747 students representing 8.1 percent of all international students in the United States enrolled in 306 Intensive English Language Programs (Open Doors, 1989). A common mission of these intensive English programs is to help non-native English speakers become sufficiently proficient in English language within an American academic setting (Stroller,

1989). There is limited information on the effects of short-term IELPs upon international student language development or personal academic adjustment. Moreover, there is lack of research on the personal, demographic, and environmental factors that may influence language proficiency in short-term language programs.

Earlier researchers concerned with understanding the adjustment problems of exchange students identified and provided explanations to the sociocultural factors implicit in the adjustment process (Lysgaard, 1955; Bennett, Passin, & McKnight, 1958). The assumption of these authors was that the understanding of such adjustment variables will lead to building interdisciplinary theories and models of adjustment. But in actual fact the development of such theories of adjustment have been hindered by the frequent emphasis on adjustment problems and sojourner outcome rather than upon the process of adjustment (Church, 1982).

Moreover, there has been a growing realization that successful adjustment to a new environment may depend not strictly on possessing a certain configuration of background variables, cross-cultural skills, or even the acquisition of host language. While some people can tolerate the ambiguous and unpredictable effects of high level stress caused by change, others require an unchanging, unambiguous environment in order to feel psychologically secure (Brislin, 1981). Brislin, therefore, proposed that psychological traits rather than cross-cultural adjustment skills or cultural awareness, may be of primary importance in determining individuals' success in adaptation to a new culture. In a new environment the individual is faced with a situation in which familiar cues of interpersonal communication and social acceptance may no longer apply. The uncertainty and frustration which can develop as a result of the change in environment

can seriously weaken the individual's self-confidence and psychological frame of reference. For those who believe in this view, intercultural adjustment centers upon the maintenance of self-esteem and not just learning or applying a set of cultural adjustment strategies and competences (Smith, 1955; Grove & Torbiorn, 1985) .

Since the 1960s, self-concept has come to be viewed as a dominant influence on academic and social success (Brookover, Patterson, & Thomas, 1962; Brookover, 1964; Brookover, Erickson, & Joiner, 1967). For example, Purkey's (1970) research points to the consistent relationship that exists between self-esteem and academic achievement. Rogers (1951) has written about the importance of self-concept in the growth of the individual and stressed its interrelationship with a person's environment. Mead's (1934) theory of self suggests that a person's performance at home, school or society in general is related to the self-concept of the individual. Implicit in this theoretical stance is the fact that self-concept has an explicit relationship with behavior.

While self-concept studies are certainly not new in educational research, there is a lack of research associating the adjustment process of the international students with changes in self-concept. Only a few studies have explored the relationship between self-concept and adjustment of international students. Crano (1986) studied international high school exchange students from five South American countries and reported that students whose initial self-concept measures were high achieved higher levels of personal, social and academic adjustment. However, the literature shows conflicting reports as to the nature of self-concept development in college-age students. Some authors believe self-concept to be a stable phenomenon specially at the college level and, therefore, propose that great

changes should not be expected in this variable (Miyamoto, Crowell, & Katcher, 1956; Wylie, 1979). Contrary to this view, however, are other writers who maintain that some self-concept changes do occur in different situations (Rogers, 1951; Millikin, 1977; Newburger, 1982; Marsh, Richards, & Barnes, 1986; Crano, 1986). Such situations include participation in Outward Bound Programs and study-abroad programs. Furthermore, most of the research on self-concept has been done with respondents from North American and European cultures (Bond & Cheung, 1983). Evidently, the need exists for research to investigate the nature of self-concept change in college-age students in cultures high on collectivism where the self as a discrete entity is not regarded as a unit of the society.

Research on self-concept in non-Western cultures is remarkably limited. There have been no studies on how studying abroad affects self-concept or how self-concept affects language development. Instead, research has been concerned mostly with comparisons of how individuals from Western and non-Western cultures perceive themselves. Specifically, few studies have compared self-perception in American and Japanese culture (Mahler, 1976; Bond & Cheung, 1983). One reason for focusing on these cultures is because "America and Japan constitute a contrast culture and also there are data sets pertinent to the degree of comparability" of both cultures (Lerner, Iwawaki, Chihara, & Sorell, 1980, p. 848). Mahler (1976) compared the self-concept of American and Japanese college students and reported that the Japanese norm of self-description of self-esteem is less than that of Americans, a finding that Mahler saw as being consistent with the cultural ideals of the two groups. Mahler suggested that "what is needed now is more thorough study of the individual Japanese students who score high or low relative to Japanese norms" (p. 132). Other studies of self-concept within the

Japanese population investigated personality development by examining cohort differences. For example, Shimonaka and Nakazato (1980) reported that older Japanese people display more positive self-perceptions with respect to their present image while the younger Japanese display more positive self-perceptions with respect to their future image. This suggests that in the Japanese culture there are cohort differences in self-concept or perhaps, that positive self-perception increases with age.

Definition of the Problem

In spite of the increasing number of international students participating in short-term Intensive English Language Programs (IELPs), there is little published research on whether these short-term IELPs are effective in enhancing language development. Moreover, while psychological variables have been shown to influence language proficiency, there also have been limited studies on how short-term IELPs affect the students psychologically.

One particular area within the psychological sphere is the area of self-concept, and this has been associated with academic achievement in general but not language development in particular. Traditionally, studies of international students' self-concepts have emphasized multi-cultural comparisons rather than an investigation of how new environmental factors may affect self-concept.

Thus, as short-term IELPs become prevalent there is a need to assess their effectiveness in terms of enhancing language development. Furthermore, there needs to be more concerted efforts to study the relationship between psychological variables (such as self-concept) and

language proficiency with short-term IELPs. Such understanding may facilitate better knowledge of adjustment process and consequently language development for international students.

The Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this research study was to examine whether language proficiency and self-concept changes occur among college-age Japanese students participating in a study-abroad educational exchange program in the United States of America. The major research questions include: 1) Does increase in language proficiency of Japanese students occur during their involvement in intensive English language program? 2) Does self-concept of Japanese college students change during their participation in study abroad intensive English language program? 3) What, if any, is the relationship between changes in self-concept and language proficiency of students in an intensive English language program? 4) Are changes in language proficiency and self-concept subject to gender differences?

Limitations of the Study

This study has some limitations which may have influenced the outcome of the research. First, the construct "self-concept" will be limited to what is operationally defined by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). The instrument describes nine categories of self, five external (moral-ethical, social, physical, personal, family) aspects and three (behavior, identity, self-satisfaction) internal categories of self. This means that any variables of self-

concept which are not included in these categories mentioned above are not measured in the study.

Another limiting factor in this study is that the population sample was not randomly assigned. The sample consisted of 61 Japanese students who were registered for the exchange program at the TIUA, in Salem, Oregon, from Spring 1989 to Winter 1990. The number of students involved in testing each hypothesis ranged from 39 to 52 because all 61 students did not complete all measures at both pre- and posttest assessments. The students were undergraduates in different fields of study and were mostly in their sophomore and junior years.

A third limiting factor of the study involves the definition of English language proficiency. In this study, competence in English is defined by TOEFL scores. The TOEFL has three sections of English proficiency: listening comprehension, reading comprehension and grammatical structure. It does not test oral communication skills. Clark and Swinton (1979) conducted research on the TOEFL and reported that the connection between speaking ability and paper and pencil examinations for individual candidates may be considered questionable. Following this report, suggestions have been made to include the oral component in the TOEFL, but this has not materialized yet. Thus, TOEFL scores may not reflect the comprehensive English speaking ability of the candidates.

There was no comparison or control group. Thus, changes that occur in language proficiency or self-concept scores may be influenced by other factors other than participation in the exchange program.

Definition of Terms

Acculturation: is the acquisition of a new culture, language and behaviors and the rejection of the original language and culture by choice or by external influences (Pusch, 1981).

Adaptation: is a more superficial response to a new culture than acculturation. People adapt their behavior in order to function effectively in the new culture (Pusch, 1981).

Adjustment: is a progression of maturation that is essential for all people. It is not culturally or situationally relative, but may be culturally fostered or hindered (DeVos, 1976).

Culture: is the sum total of the way of living, including values, beliefs, aesthetic standards, linguistic expressions, patterns of thinking, behavioral norms, and communications styles that a group of people have developed to assure its survival in a particular physical and social environment.

Culture shock: is the feeling of anxiety that results when most of the familiar signs and symbols of cultural cues and social frame of reference no longer apply and are suddenly replaced by new cultural expectations.

International student: a student who is not a United States citizen or an immigrant (permanent resident) and who is enrolled in courses at institutions of higher education in the United States. International students are sometimes referred to as "foreign students."

Language: is the systematic, structured verbal and, in most cases, written code used for communication among a group of people. Language and culture are determining factors in the way people think, the way they communicate and the way they behave.

Language proficiency: is defined by a specific score on the TOEFL test, and this is determined by each institution in terms of its own requirements.

Personality: is a stable set of tendencies and characteristics that determine those commonalities and differences in people's psychological behavior (thoughts, feelings, and actions) that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the present time (Maddi, 1989).

Phenomenal field: is a unique pattern of conscious perceptions that individuals experience about themselves which is of central importance to individuals' behavior and their relationship with the environment.

Phenomenology: refers to knowledge that emphasizes direct observation. It seeks to sense reality and to describe it in words that reflect consciousness and perception.

Self-concept: is how individuals perceive themselves within certain internal (identity, satisfaction, and behavior) and external (physical, moral-ethical, family, and social) categories.

Self-esteem: is the affective aspect of the self. It refers to the extent to which people value themselves.

Self-report: is what a person is willing or able to describe, or what a person can be lured into saying about the self when asked to do so.

Self-theory: is a theory that individuals have constructed about themselves as experiencing, functioning individuals, and it is a part of a broader theory that people hold with respect to their entire range of significant experience (Epstein, 1973).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Trends and Growth of International Students

In 1985, UNESCO reported that international student enrollment in North America was the highest among all the "Host World Regions" (UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1988). The number of international students continues to increase. For instance, data based on the annual census of international students in the United States published by the International Institute of Education (IIE) showed that the total number of international students enrolled in US universities and colleges in 1988-1989 was about 366,354 (Open Doors, 1989). According to this source, international student enrollment in 1988-89 was the largest one-year increase in the international student population since the early 1980s. The gain of 10,167 international students for a 2.9% increase over one year is particularly interesting when measured against the average growth of less than 1.5% over the previous five years. It is reported that between 1980-81 and 1982-83 average growth was over 6.0%, but between 1983-84 and 1985-86 yearly percentage increases averaged less than 1.0%. This report noted that in more recent years the international student population appears to be on the rise again as evidenced by this year's (1989) increase of just under 3.0%. In spite of the varied factors influencing international students enrollment in the US, it seems that the foreign student population is growing adequately enough to balance its replacement rate.

The percentage of female international students continues to increase as it has been since 1959 (Open Doors, 1989). There were 122,729 female

students studying in the US in the 1988-89 academic year. This is over 33.5% of the total foreign student population. According to this source, women's representation in foreign students' population was smallest during the 1959-60 session (21.7%). Since then the percentage of female international students has increased steadily. Currently, students come to the United States from Europe, Latin America, North America, Africa, Asia, the Middle East and Oceania with the largest number coming from Asia (Open Doors, 1989). Recently, international student enrollment has declined among students from Africa and Latin America. Reasons for this decline are unclear, although the decrease in external sources of financial support available to foreign students might be a key factor. On the contrary, enrollment has increased among foreign students from Asia with the largest number of students coming from China (29,040), Taiwan (28,760), Japan (24,000), and Malaysia (16,170) for the 1989 academic year.

In 1989, 8.1% (29,747) of all international students in the United States enrolled in 306 Intensive English Language Programs (Open Doors, 1989). This represents a 5.1% increase in the number of programs reporting enrollment in Intensive English Language Programs (IELPs) and a 1.4% increase in foreign students enrollment over the previous year. This survey conducted by IIE showed that 52.4% of the enrolled students were from Asia. A large increase in enrollment occurred among foreign students from Japan, with 3,165 more students (50.3%) than the 1987-88 session. Most IELP students in 1988-89 were from Japan (9,454), Mexico (1,842) and China (1,695). Other places of origin of IELP students included Latin America (22%), Africa (2.8%), Oceania (0.7%), and North America (0.1%).

The most common problems experienced by international students include language difficulties, financial problems, adjustment to new

educational system, homesickness, and adaptation to new social customs and norms (Church, 1982). Smalley (1963) considered language to be the main determinant of "culture shock." The international student adjustment literature reveals that most authors agree that language proficiency is the main factor for cross-cultural adjustment, since without adequate communication skills the student cannot be reached, learning cannot be accurate, social interaction is less likely to occur and there will be little chance of success in the environment (Smith, 1955).

Brein and David (1971) observed that a neglected but promising area of research is the application of intercultural communication theory to the understanding of foreign student adjustment needs. After an intensive review of literature on foreign student adjustment, Church (1982) maintained that understanding the process of adjustment of international students will be facilitated if research on identification of problems and outcomes of adjustment is replaced by research directed towards longitudinal studies of individual patterns of adjustment and coping strategies. Presently, there has been a growing realization among cross-cultural educators that psychological factors and individual qualities of motivation, attitude to the environment, and the level of self-concept may be more important for cross-cultural adjustment than learning a set of cross-cultural adjustment strategies (Brislin, 1981; Crano, 1986).

International Students and Language Development

A number of studies have been conducted to determine what factors affect the success of students in intensive language programs. Spolsky (1969) indicated that one of the important factors in learning a language is the

attitude of the learner toward the language and its speakers. Tang (1974) found that there is a positive correlation between favorable attitude toward the second language and second language reading performance. Schumann (1976) added that social dominance-subordinance, learner social cohesiveness, cultural congruity and positive attitude between learners and speakers, and learners' plans to continue learning the target language are factors that influence language learning situations. He believed that as social distance is decreased second language learning is facilitated. Schumann, therefore, concluded that language learning is a function of the social distance between the learners and the speakers of the target language.

Other researchers have examined the effects of attitudes on motivation and proficiency. For instance, Gardner and Lambert (1972) studied English-speaking learners of French in areas of North America. These authors related their findings to two basic kinds of motivation called integrative and instrumental motivation. Learners with integrative motivation have genuine interest in the second language community. They want to learn the language in order to better communicate with the community and to gain a closer contact with its culture. Whereas, learners with instrumental motivation are more interested in how the second language can enhance the achievement of personal goals, such as obtaining necessary qualifications or improving the prospects of employment. Results from these studies show that learners with higher integrative orientation are likely to achieve greater proficiency. Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977) also obtained a similar result in their own study and maintained that learners with integrative motives for learning a second language performed better than those who were more instrumentally motivated.

St. Martin (1979) has extended the work of Oller and his associates. St. Martin's study examined the development of language proficiency of 83 foreign students of English as a second language (ESL) in a 14-week intensive formal language program. The rate of English language acquisition of homestay students was statistically higher compared to their non-homestay counterparts and the results showed that homestay students achieved significantly higher course grades and higher scores on the TOEFL. The study seemed to lend support to the assumption that the best way to acquire language competency is to live in an environment where the language of study is spoken. It is speculated that the success of homestay students may be the result of speaking the second language in a supportive atmosphere. It is also possible, however, that students who choose homestay are likely to be outgoing and highly motivated to learn the foreign language.

Stitsworth (1988) studied the language development of exchange students who traveled to Japan for a one-month homestay. One hundred and fifty-four exchange students and 112 control group students from 21 states in the US participated in the study. Stitsworth found that students who studied foreign language for three or four semesters and those with no previous foreign language study experienced significant change in their personalities. Whereas, those who studied foreign language for one or two semesters before going on the exchange program did not change as much.

Lozanov (1978) has stated that students in language class are in a situation where they have to depend on other people to communicate their basic needs and this, he believed, leads to identity change. The reason for this according to Lozanov is that students set up psychological barriers to learning and believe they have limited ability to learn the target language successfully. As a result language learners do not make full use of their mental abilities.

Lozanov then suggested that teachers should use the method of "Suggestopedia" to change negative views in students. Curran (1976) also recognized the change of identity of students in a foreign language class. He observed that students feel threatened in new learning situations and that this feeling affects their identity. Curran believed that students gradually regained their self-concept as their proficiency in the language of study increased and they became more confident in their speaking ability.

In 1983, Krashen proposed a language acquisition theory that differentiates language acquisition from language learning. Language acquisition is hypothesized to be subconscious in that while it is happening we are not usually aware of it because our focus is on the message that is being communicated. The results of acquisition is also unconscious, and we cannot always describe our acquired knowledge but rather have a feel for its correctness. Krashen maintained that we acquire only by understanding messages in the second language that utilizes structures we have not yet acquired. In other words, we acquire only by "comprehensible input," that is by listening and reading for meaning. We do not acquire language by speaking. Speaking is a result of acquisition but not the cause of acquisition. Speaking can help indirectly in that it encourages people to talk to you. Whereas, language learning is conscious learning. It is learning explicit knowledge or grammar. Acquisition is responsible for fluency while language learning serves as a monitor or editor.

However, Littlewood (1984) emphasized that to view language learning in terms of two kinds of learning (conscious learning or aptitude and subconscious learning or attitude) is "a simplification which, however useful, may also be misleading" (p. 80). Between the most conscious processes of acquisition at one extreme and the most subconscious forms of learning at the

other, it would probably be more realistic to think in terms of a continuum in which subconscious and conscious processes are combined to varying degrees.

Anderson (1982) investigated the self-esteem of adults learning English as a second language. She concluded that teachers and students do not perceive students' language abilities similarly and that this is related to motivational and cultural factors. The author suggested that self-esteem may be the factor motivating students. Anderson (1982) and Littlewood, (1984) have noted that research into second language acquisition is a comparatively new field and that there are still considerable gaps in knowledge in this area. They suggested further investigation into concepts of language acquisition.

The Self-Concept

When I talk about the self-system I want it clearly understood that I am talking about a dynamism which comes to be enormously important to understanding interpersonal relationships. This dynamism is an explanatory conception; it is not a thing, a religion or what not, such as superegos, egos, ids and so on.

(Sullivan, 1953, p. 167)

Sometimes by understanding precisely what a concept is not, a better personal conception of what it really is can be formulated. To Sullivan (1953), the self-system is not a thing, a religion nor superegos, egos, ids, and so on. Then naturally the question that follows is:

What is it that consists of concepts that are hierarchically organized and internally consistent; that assimilates knowledge, yet itself is an object of knowledge; that is dynamic, but must maintain a degree of stability; that is unified and differentiated at the same time; that is necessary for solving problems in the real world; and that is subject to sudden collapse, resulting in total disorganization when this occurs.

(Epstein, 1973, p. 407).

The answer to this string of ideas is the "self-concept."

The self-concept, a hypothetical psychological construct, has been variously defined by psychologists. A review of research on this topic will serve to demonstrate the history of humankind's quest for understanding of the internal processes. This history will be followed by a description of some of the general characteristics of the self-concept. The process of measuring the self-concept, the cross-cultural application of Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS), and methods employed in measuring the self-concept of international students will then be examined.

History of the Self-Concept

The concept of self is perhaps one of the most debated abstract concepts in the field of psychology. During the middle ages theologians developed the concept of soul, spirit, and mind which stressed the immortality and superiority of these aspects of the inner self over the physical self. In the 17th century, Rene Descartes wrote his Principles of Philosophy and reasoned that if he doubted, he was thinking and therefore must exist. He proposed that doubt was the principle tool of disciplined inquiry. Other thinkers of the period, including Spinoza and Leibnitz, projected their ideas about a being's non-physical self. However, no generally accepted theories of self existed until many centuries later.

The late 1800s saw an increased interest in the concept of self. William James (1890) was one of the few psychologists to have written extensively about the self. He perceived the self as an object of knowledge or a mental construct. James (1910) described two differing views of the self: as a knower and as the object of what is known. According to James, self as a knower is the "I", the "pure ego" of certain writers, and only a thought which at each

moment is different from that of the last moment. It is not an unchanging metaphysical entity like the "Soul" or the "transcendental ego." Thus, James saw no value for self as a knower and felt that this aspect of self should be banished to the realm of philosophy. Self as an object of knowledge is the "me" and is the empirical aggregate of what is known. It consists of the material self, the spiritual self and the social self. The constituents of the material self include the physical self, the family self and personal possessions. The social self includes the views others hold of the individuals while the spiritual self includes the individuals emotions and desires. All aspects of self are capable of gathering feelings of heightened self-esteem and well-being, or lowered self esteem and dissatisfaction. James viewed the self as being intimately associated with emotions as mediated through self-esteem.

During the same period of time, Cooley (1902) defined self as that which is designated in common speech by the pronouns of the first person singular, "I", "me", "my", "mine", and "myself". Cooley explained that what is regarded by the individual as self elicits stronger emotions than what is labeled non-self and that it is only through subjective feelings that the self can be identified. This author maintained that the feeling state is produced either by the belief that one has control over events or by cognitive discrimination, such as in recognizing that one's own physical self is different from those of other people. Cooley is the first person to describe the "looking-glass self," and this refers to individuals perceiving themselves in the way that others perceive them.

The 1920s through the 1940s was a hectic period of theory building as psychologists rallied round certain systems and organized schools of thought. Each system preached and projected its strongly held position as the only way

of exploring the internal processes. When the cloud cleared, the behavioral school had emerged with a stronger influence and had succeeded in persuading many other psychologists to believe that only a person's tangible, observable behavior was fit for scientific inquiry. With this declaration, psychology was redirected, and attention was turned to observable stimuli and responses. As a result the inner life of the individual was labeled as beyond the scope of empirical inquiry. Although self as a construct was not considered a central factor in psychological theory during this period, some psychologists continued to study self-concept.

George Mead (1934) further developed Cooley's theory of the "looking-glass self" and noted that self originates from social interactions as an outgrowth of individuals' concern about how others perceive them. Individuals learn to perceive the world as others do and behave accordingly in anticipation of other people's reactions towards them. By incorporating estimates of how the generalized other would respond to certain actions, individuals acquire a source of internal frame of reference that serves to guide and stabilize behavior in the absence of external pressures. Mead believed that there are as many selves as there are social roles. Some of the roles are broad and of considerable significance for the individual, whereas others are only specific to particular situations and of little significance as personality variables.

Prescott Lecky (1945) proposed that self-concept is the core of personality and in turn defined personality as organizations of values that are consistent with one another. Lecky believed that self-consistency is a basic motivating force in all human behavior. Self-concept as the nucleus of behavior plays a key role in determining what concepts are adopted for assimilation into the overall personality organization. Lecky stated that the

self-concept involved a dynamic process of continuous assimilation of new beliefs and the change and or rejection of old ones.

Like James, Bertocci (1945) identified two aspects of the self as subject, "I" and as object, "me". Murphy (1947) discussed the origins and modes of self-enhancement and argued that the self is related to social group. Raimy (1948) introduced the use of measures of self-concept in counseling interviews to support his belief that psychotherapy is a process of changing the self-concept. In a Presidential address to the American Psychological Association, Hilgard (1949) mentioned three types of evidence that provide support for the concept of an inferred self. These included: 1) continuity of emotional patterns, which refers to people regarding themselves as the same persons they were in the past despite superficial changes that may have taken place; 2) genotypical patterning of motives which refers to the observation that different actions can satisfy the same motives; and 3) the interpersonal nature of important human motives which essentially states that certain motives can be substituted for others. Hilgard also emphasized that the existence of defense mechanisms provides strong evidence for the existence of the self-concept. Despite these postulations, Hilgard stopped short of a direct definition of the self-concept.

The views of Snygg and Combs (1949) with regard to self are similar to those of Lecky (1945). They called attention to the importance of how people view themselves and their world. These authors proposed that the basic motivating factor in human behavior is the maintenance and enhancement of the self-concept. They defined the self-concept as those aspects of the phenomenal field that individuals have differentiated as definite and fairly stable characteristics of themselves. In short, they view the self-concept as the

nucleus of a broader organization which contains changeable as well as stable personality characteristics.

Carl Rogers (1951, 1959a, 1959b, 1965, 1969), a clinical psychologist and the founder of client-centered counseling or "non-directive" psychotherapy, developed the self-theory which is built essentially upon the importance of the self in human adjustment. Rogers saw each person as having a phenomenal field that defines events or phenomena as they appear to that person. Individual behavior and the self-concept are determined by the perceptual field. Therefore, to understand behavior, the self as the central aspect of personality needs to be understood. Rogers viewed self as an organized, consistent, conceptual Gestalt composed of characteristics of the "I" or "me" and the perception of the relationships of the "I" or "me" to others and various aspects of life, together with the value attached to these perceptions. These aspects of self are of central importance to the behavior and adjustment of individuals. Rogers, like Cooley and Mead, described self as a social product, developing out of interpersonal relationships and striving for consistency. Rogers emphasized that self-concept includes only those characteristics that individuals are aware of and over which they believe they have control. There is a basic need to maintain and enhance self, and any threat to the organization of it leads to anxiety. If the threat is too strong, catastrophic disorganization and instability will follow.

Sarbin (1952) pointed out that self-structure is both organized and dynamic; thus it is subject to change, usually in the direction from lower order to higher order of construct. The substructures of self include the empirical self which include social and somatic self. Sullivan (1953) also wrote about the self and stated like, Cooley and Mead, that the self is developed in social interaction. In 1955, Allport declared that the "proprium"

(the self) consists of those aspects of individuals which they regard as of central importance and which contribute to a sense of inward unity. These aspects of the "proprium" include: awareness of a physical self; a sense of continuity over time; ego enhancement; a need for self-esteem; ego extension (identification of the self beyond the borders of the self); the synthesis of inner self with outer needs reality; self-image or persons' perception and evaluation of themselves as object of knowledge; and the self as a knower and the motivation to increase rather than decrease tension and to expand awareness and seek out challenges. Later, Allport emphasized that self as a knower did not belong in the realm of psychology.

Diggory (1966) regarded self as a type of reflexive relation in which the individual or some aspects of the individual are both the subject and object. Diggory's research focused on self-evaluative situations, and he emphasized competence as an important aspect of self-esteem. Diggory's research on self showed that different areas of self-concept can be investigated in controlled scientific settings. Research by Brookover (1964), Combs (1962, 1965), Coopersmith (1967), Crano and Schroder (1967), and Patterson (1959, 1961) among others has shown the importance of the self in depicting behavior.

More recently, Epstein (1973) has postulated that the self-concept is a self-theory. He explained that the self-concept is a theory that individuals have unwittingly constructed about themselves as functioning individuals; thus, the self-concept is an aspect of a broader theory which people hold in their entire range of significant experience. Like other theories, the self-theory is a conceptual tool for resolving problems. The most fundamental purpose of the theory, in Epstein's view, is to optimize the pleasure-pain balance of the individual. Epstein identified two additional functions of the

self: 1) to facilitate the maintenance of self-esteem and 2) to organize the data of experience in a manner that can be coped with effectively.

Characteristics of the Self-Concept

After reviewing the literature on the definitions of the self, Purkey (1970) concluded that "self" is a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which individuals hold true about themselves. Indicated in this definition is the assumption that the self is organized and dynamic.

Purkey (1970) further described the self as many-faceted and multiple-layered constellation of ideas which unite to make up the total concept of self. Each idea represents a belief which individuals hold about themselves but not all the beliefs are equally significant. Some beliefs are very close to the essence of self and are difficult to change. In earlier research, Lowe (1961) believed some areas of the self-concept are peripheral to the core of self and are highly resistant to change.

Another organizational feature of the self according to Purkey is that each concept within the self-system has negative and positive values which assist individuals to deal with success and failure. This view is in line with the results of Diggory's (1966) research which concentrated on the ways individuals evaluated themselves. Diggory found that when an ability is highly rated by a person, failure in that ability lowers the self-evaluation of seemingly unrelated abilities. Whereas, success of an important and highly rated ability raises the self-evaluation of other abilities.

A final feature of the organized self is that it is completely unique and people never hold identical sets of beliefs (Purkey, 1970). Felker (1974) noted that the self-concept is a unique set of perceptions, ideas, and attitude

individuals have about themselves. He believed that self-perceptions are unique and vary from the views that any other person may have. Shrauger and Schoeneman (1979) reviewed studies that correlated self-reports with judgement by others and concluded that there is no consistent agreement between an individual's self-perceptions and how others perceived the individual. This view was also held by Rogers (1951, 1959) who maintained that the self-concept is a phenomenological concept of self as seen by the experiencing person. Rogers believed that there is no reality other than that given by perception. He added that the essence of phenomenology is that human beings live essentially in their own personal and subjective world.

Although self is considered to be quite organized, it has been shown to possess a dynamic quality as well (Purkey, 1970). Earlier researchers conceptualized the self-concept to be a totally stable construct. For example, Miyamoto, Crowell and Katcher (1956) maintained that self-conceptions reflect a fairly stable phenomenon and that we should not expect great changes in this variable because of any single academic course. Wylie (1979) reviewed research proposing to alter self-concept as a consequence of psychotherapy. Wylie concluded that research gives no support for the belief that therapeutic or group experiences affect the over-all level of self-regard of volunteer, "normal", young-adult participants. Scheirer and Kraut (1979) reviewed the effects of academic interventions on self-concept and academic achievement and did not identify consistent results leading to change in the self-concept.

However, more recent theoretical and empirical research (Marsh, Smith, Barnes, & Butler, 1983) has provided strong support for the dynamic and multidimensional nature of the concept of self. The above mentioned authors examined changes in the facets of self-concepts of preadolescent

children in a number of areas: physical abilities and sports, physical appearance, relationship with parents, reading mathematics, and other school subjects. Their research identified multiple facets of self-concept and showed that these facets were systematically related to self-concepts inferred by teachers and systematically related to academic achievement indicators. They also found that the facets of self-concept were relatively stable, even for young children. Furthermore, they found that the changes in self-concepts that did occur were systematic. Their concluding reports suggested that changes in self-concept were specific to particular facets or categories. Therefore, they suggested it is possible for intervention to have a moderate effect on some particular facet of self-concept, even if it has a less substantial effect on overall self-concept.

Marsh, Richards, and Barnes (1983) noted that researchers in the study of self-concept face an interesting dilemma. Theoretically and from the perspective of measurement theory, it is desirable that self-concept be relatively stable over time. Marsh *et al.*, pointed out that some researchers believe that it is important for a person's mental health that self-concept be relatively stable. But much of the interest in self-concept research or self-enhancement programs is directed toward changes in self-concept. Obviously, self-concept cannot be perfectly stable and still be responsive to dramatic life events or systematic interventions--conditions that pose dilemmas for researchers in the study of self-concept. The results of the Marsh *et al.* study have given an acceptable compromise to both sides of this dilemma: self-concept is relatively stable but the changes that do occur are reliable and specific to particular aspects of the self-concept.

An important assumption regarding self is that the maintenance and enhancement of the perceived self are the motives behind all behavior

(Raimy, 1949; Rogers, 1951; Snygg & Combs, 1949; Purkey, 1970). This means that individuals are constantly enhancing and protecting the conscious self. Snygg and Combs commented that self is a person's basic frame of reference, the central core around which the remainder of the perceptual field is organized. In this sense, the phenomenal self is both the product of individual's experience and the producer of new experience. Rogers amplified and extended the discussion on self and emphasized that perception is reality. According to Rogers self is the central concept of personality and behavior. Once self-concept has developed, experiences are perceived and evaluated in terms of their relevance and significance to self. Behavior is normally consistent with self-concept, even at the expense of the organism. For Rogers, psychological adjustment exists when the self-concept is congruent with the experiences of the organism. In the absence of threat to self, all experiences may be examined and assimilated into self-concept thus resulting in changes in self-concept.

This view is also held by Shaffer and Shoben (1956) who stated that since self-concept organizes new experiences to conform to its already established pattern, much behavior can be understood as an attempt to maintain the consistency of self-concept--a kind of homeostasis at a higher psychological level. Self-concept is like an inner filter, and every perception must enter and go through the filter (Felker, 1974). As perceptions are filtered, they are given meaning as determined by the view individuals have of themselves. Felker noted, that if it is a positive view, each new experience is accepted with approval. For Purkey (1970), these assumptions about self mean that students who consider themselves less intelligent at school will reject or distort evidence which contradicts this perceived self, no matter how flattering or helpful it may be. A number of studies (Aronson & Mills, 1959;

Aronson & Carlsmith, 1962) has shown that students who performed poorly but expected to do so were more contented with their grades than those who did well but had not expected to do so. Those students who found themselves doing well experienced discomfort and later tended to allow their performance level to be in agreement with their expectations. Thus, it has been shown that self-concept will change if the environment is supportive. In other words, a person will grow in self-esteem, academic achievement and achieve psychological adjustment if the threat in the environment is not excessive and if the experience is seen by the individual to be meaningful and self-enhancing (Brookover, 1962).

Finally, another dynamic quality of self is its role in motivation. Snygg and Combs (1949) and Rogers (1951, 1959) believed that the maintenance and enhancement of the self are the motives behind all behavior. Combs (1962) pointed out that people are always motivated; in fact, they are never unmotivated. They may not be motivated to do what we order them to do but it can never be truly said that they are unmotivated. This is because people have a continuous need for maintaining and enhancing their self-concepts. Maslow (1976) used the term self-actualization to describe this inner motivating force that leads to continuous self-improvement to satisfy the inner nature. Maddi (1989) described this inner nature as a pressure in people to become what it is in their nature to become.

The assumption then is that individuals are striving to behave in ways that are consistent with their self-interpretations. Lecky (1945) reported that individuals have a unified system with the problem of maintaining harmony between self and the environment. People are constantly trying to behave in a manner which is consistent with their views of self. Therefore, we express our self-concept with our behavior. The strong motivating force to

harmonize actions and happenings with self-views makes the self-concept powerful and important.

Some authors (Purkey, 1970; Epstein, 1973) have identified some basic functions of self-concept. These are to organize the data of experience into predictable sequences of action and reaction and to facilitate individuals' attempts to meet their needs, while avoiding or reducing anxiety. Felker (1974) reported that self-concept, in addition to maintaining the inner consistency and interpreting experience, has a third role--to determine what the individual expects to happen. The maintenance of the organization of the self-concept is necessary for a sense of adequacy. When this organization is stressed and threatened, anxiety will occur within the person. Epstein (1973) believes that self-theory is developed for the purpose of resolving difficult situations. If for any reason the theory fails to function effectively during an extremely stressful situation, it becomes disorganized with a possible chance of collapse. However, Epstein noted that drastic disorganization can serve a constructive function as it permits drastic reorganization.

Measuring Self-Concept

Research interest in self-concept has largely been based on the assumption that the improvement on self-concept may facilitate improvement in other areas. In other words, research has focused on the structure of self-concept and how this is related to academic and non-academic factors, as well as the particular measurement and methodological problems inherent in the area. Reviews of self-concept research (Shavelson, Hubner & Staton, 1976; Marsh, Smith, Barnes & Butler, 1983; Wylie, 1979,

1989) generally emphasize the lack of theoretical bases in most studies, the poor quality of measurement instruments used to assess self-concept, and a general lack of consistent findings. Marsh, Smith, Barnes and Butler (1983) noted that self-concept, like other psychological constructs, suffers in that every individual knows what it is and researchers do not feel compelled to provide adequate theoretical definition of what they are measuring.

Unfortunately, self-concept is intangible and cannot be weighed or measured in a similar manner as a tangible object. However, self-concept has been inferred by self-report techniques and behavioral observations in order to provide such measures. The most commonly employed means of measuring self-concept is through self-report techniques in which self-concept is inferred from individuals' replies (verbal and/or written to questions of an introspective nature). Observation, on the other hand, makes inferences about people's behavior to infer their self-concepts. Behavioral observations have been employed successfully in the measurement of self-concept, but they are time-consuming, costly and generally noncumulative.

There has been controversy over the validity and reliability of self-reports. Combs, Avilla, and Purkey (1971) believed that with the best of intentions a person may be unable to give comprehensive self-description because other perceptions (social expectancy and lack of language to express feelings) interfere and create a distortion. Self-concept is what persons perceive themselves to be; it is what they believe about themselves, whereas, self-report is what individuals say about themselves (Combs, Avilla & Purkey, 1971). Purinton (1965) believed that changes in self-reports with repeated usage could be related to the student's familiarity with the items and would not necessarily reflect a change in self-concept.

Contrary to the view maintained by the opponents of self-reports, numerous studies have been based on self-reports, which attested to their usefulness. Rogers (1951) and Allport (1955, 1961) have pointed out that self-reports are valuable sources of information about the individual. These authors believe that if we want to know more about a person the best way is to ask the person directly. Sarbin and Rosenberg (1955) concluded from their research that self-report was useful in getting at meaningful self-attributes quickly, and this further confirms the assumption that evaluative statements made by individuals about themselves are valid and reliable data.

Some researchers have observed that the confounding factors present in self-reports are the same factors that critics have seen in attitude research. Often these same factors have been shown to be inaccurate (Sivacek & Crano, 1982). Obviously, in spite of the limitations, self-reports have been shown to reveal important characteristics of the self.

In addition to self-reports, behavioral observations have been employed to assess self-concept. Validity and reliability of observations have been of interest to researchers and observations have been structured to improve such areas (Crano & Brewer, 1973). Often, it is possible for observation to be structured by having the subject respond to stimuli like those presented in structured interviews or simple quasi-projective techniques (Purkey, 1970). Open-ended questions are carefully organized and structured in the interview, and they invariably deal with the subject's hopes, likes, dislikes, school activities and are posed in an atmosphere of acceptance and permissiveness. The quasi-projective techniques allow the observer to draw inferences from an individual's creations. Many techniques have been used to assess self-concept such as the drawings of young children and sentence completion tests (Purkey, 1970). A variety of projective techniques

and indirect self-report measures have been used but have not withstood critical study of their reliability and validity (Kidder & Campbell, 1970). After a recent review of literature on measures of self-concept, Wylie (1989) noted that:

There is a somewhat greater recognition today (than 1974) of the need for appropriate instrument development and there is more widespread attempt to increase and evaluate the validity of self-concept indices by more sophisticated applications of item analyses, factor analyses, multitrait-multimethod matrices, and various techniques for evaluating and minimizing the many possibly irrelevant response-score determiners that can decrease construct validity (p. 119).

Wylie (1989) maintained that although there is much more essential and sophisticated information about the instruments reviewed than there was for those reviewed by Wylie (1974), none of these instruments has been evaluated in all the desirable ways. This, Wylie believes, should induce caution among potential users of these instruments and inspire researchers to employ further exploration of the meaning and appropriate applicability of the scores obtained from them.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS)

The TSCS was originally published in 1965 by Fitts. It consist of 100 self-descriptive items. Ninety of the items were included only if seven clinical psychologist could agree perfectly on their location in one of the three rows (identify, satisfaction and behavior) and also in one of the five columns (physical-self, moral-ethical-self, personal-self, family-self, and social-self). The other 10 items were taken from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) L-Scale to provide a measure of the person's defensiveness

in responding to the TSCS. The scale is intended to assess people's feelings of self-worth and the overall self-concept from both external and internal aspects of self-perception. A "Total P" score which reflects the overall self-esteem of the respondent is obtained in addition to eight sub-scores from the rows and columns. The manual reports the following test-retest reliability coefficients for 60 college students: total positive score = .92; rows = .88 to .91; and columns = .85 to .90.

Some reviewers of the TSCS have questioned the representativeness of the sample on which the scale was normed. The scale was normed on a sample of 626 persons of varying age, sex, race, and socioeconomic status. The manual of TSCS reports that the norms are overrepresented in the numbers of college students, white respondents, and persons in the 12-30 year age bracket. Bentler (1972) reviewed the TSCS and pointed out that the sample does not represent an even distribution of these variables in the population but added that the distribution is sufficient for many practical purposes. Walsh (1984) believed that the test-retest reliability on a sample of 60 college students generally in the range from .60 to .90 to be inappropriate, maintaining that this sample size will not provide an adequate picture of the population of college students. Contrary to this view, Bentler (1972) stated that the test-retest reliability of the TSCS is usually in the high .80s, and this is sufficiently high enough to warrant confidence in the individual difference measurement.

However, there is general agreement among reviewers (Bentler, 1972; Wylie, 1989; Walsh, 1984) that the TSCS is among the most frequently used self-concept instruments. It is comprehensively constructed, very well organized, and has many psychometric qualities of accepted test construction standards. Several measures of the scale correlate highly with other measures

of personality functioning. For example, TSCS correlations with various MMPI scales are frequently in the .50s and .60s and with the Taylor Anxiety scale $-.70$ (Bentler, 1972). Bentler suggested that potential users of the scale should compare the drawbacks and benefits of the scale with those obtained from competing measures such as the Taylor Anxiety scale and the MMPI.

The cross-cultural utility of the TSCS has been a question of interest to both researchers and reviewers. Based on the scores for the normative sample of TSCS, Fitts (1965) concluded that race had negligible effects on the scores. But after reviewing the TSCS, Bentler (1972) reported that some studies have demonstrated that TSCS scores for Black students appeared to be different from those of Caucasians. Since the review, a few cross-cultural studies using the TSCS have been reported in the literature. Mahler (1976) compared the self-concept of Japanese students who completed the translated version of the TSCS with their American college students and found significant differences on 9 of the 16 subscales. Sharpley and Hattie (1983) reported finding important differences in the total-score and subcategories of undergraduate university students in Brisbane, Australia, and the Fitts (1965) normative group. But Ezeilo (1982) found that literate Nigerians had total scores within the range of TSCS normative sample. Again Christopherson-Choudhry (1982) used the TSCS to assess the self-concept of American Caucasian students and Asian-born students and found no difference in self-concept of students from both cultures.

However, other authors (Bond & Cheung, 1983; Cousins, 1989) interested in cross-cultural study of self-concept have used the free response format of the Twenty Tests (TST) developed by Kuhn and McPartland (1954) to measure self-perception. In this approach, participants were simply asked to write twenty answers to the question, "Who am I?" Bond and Cheung

(1983) argued that there may be obvious problems in using imported, structured measures since these measures may not provide the respondents with categories which are relevant or meaningful with respect to their particular perceptions. However, Cousins (1989) maintained that social context is important to the Japanese self. By requesting participants to respond many times to the single question "Who am I?" the TST isolates self from social nexus and may discourage descriptions of personality among the Japanese. Therefore, Cousins suggested the use of contextualized response in the exploration of the self. The sub-categories of the TSCS provides such social and family contexts.

Self-Concept of International Students

Some cross-cultural researchers have studied self-concept by comparing self-concepts of individuals in different cultures. For instance, Crano (1986) investigated the relationship between self-concept and the personal, social, and academic adjustment of high school-aged international exchange students in the United States. These students came from five countries (Brazil, Venezuela, Ecuador, Paraguay, and Uruguay) for a year homestay in the United States. The findings of this study confirmed that a relationship exists between self-concept and subsequent personal, social, and academic adjustment. Crano stated that those students whose initial self-concept measures were high expressed less severe adjustment difficulties than those whose initial self-concepts were not so high. Reinicke (1986) reevaluated international students' adjustment to the United States using "Reformulated Learned Helplessness" (RLH) and concluded that the personal quality of self-concept has a clear relationship with the attributional category of internal-

external helplessness but that the qualities of flexibility and empathy required further research to determine their relationship to cultural adjustment.

Christopherson-Choudhry (1982) investigated the relationship and the differences between the self-concept and the coping behavior of foreign-born Asians and American Caucasians who were enrolled in graduate school. The author found no significant differences in self-concept of people in both cultures and no differences in their abilities to cope or in their adjustment to the environment. In conclusion the author stated that all humans have similar abilities to cope and to anticipate the future. In another study of comparison of college students' self-concept, Bond and Cheung (1983) examined the effect of culture among respondents from Hong Kong, Japan, and the United States. The results of the study indicated that the Chinese self-esteem is higher than that of the Japanese students and lower than that of American students. Mahler (1976) also reported that Japanese respondents saw themselves as less adequate than the American respondents. However, Mahler stressed that it is difficult to conclude that the average Japanese student did not have adequate self-esteem but that "What can be stated with any certainty is that the Japanese norm of self-description of self-esteem is lower than that of Americans, and this is consistent with the cultural ideals" (p. 132). This view has been confirmed by another study (Lerner, Iwawaki, Chihara, & Sorell, 1980).

A number of authors have investigated personality developments of Japanese adults by examining cohort differences. Shimonaka and Nakazato (1980) compared the personality characteristics of older and younger adults from four dimensions of relationships, namely: with family, with friends, with self (self-perception) and with values. The results of this study suggested that cohort effects were more prominent than gender effects in each

dimension. Older adults displayed more positive perceptions of themselves with respect to their present self. The young were more negative with respect to their past self-images and more positive with respect to their future self-images. With respect to present self, women displayed more positive self-perceptions while men displayed more negative self-perceptions. The findings from the comparison between the old and young adults at two polarities suggested that these four personality dimensions develop during the adult life span Shimonaka and Nakazato (1985) have extended their earlier study by investigating the personality characteristics of young-adult, middle-aged and old-aged Japanese people and concluded that positive self-perception increases with age.

Gender and Self-Concept

A large number of studies exist that have explored the sex-role stereotypes. Miller (1979) reviewed this literature and noted that, despite the methodological shortcomings of many studies, the findings have consistently identified similar sets of beliefs about the attitudes that differentiate the sexes. Studies have shown that both women and men ascribe certain characteristics to the typical female and male. The evidence from research is that characteristically women are portrayed as gentle and sympathetic and men as assertive and competitive.

One of the most extensive research on sex-role stereotypes was done by Inge and Donald Broverman and their associates (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1972). They asked their respondents to go through a list of traits such as independent, talkative, optimistic, and grumpy, each of which was a label for a scale that extended from high to low.

For each trait the respondents placed "typical male" or "typical female" somewhere on the scale. The researchers found that for some traits there was a consistent difference in the placement of males and females on the scale. Moreover, they found that if they asked other subjects to go through the same list and identify the "good" or "desirable" traits, many more of the masculine qualities were listed as "good" or "desirable". Aggressiveness, independence, competition, objectivity, dominance, ability to be leaders, adventurousness and ability to separate feeling from ideas were some of the traits identified as highly valued masculine qualities. Some of the highly valued feminine qualities were talkativeness, tactfulness, gentleness, awareness of others' feelings, and the ability to express feelings.

However, research evidence has shown that these stereotypes are not either/or statements, but that there is a reasonable amount of overlap. For example, Deaux (1984) asked subjects to state the probability that men and women could have certain qualities, certain roles, and certain physical characteristics. He found a good deal of overlap in their responses. The content of male stereotype centers around qualities of competence and instrumentality, while those of female stereotype center around qualities of affiliation and expressiveness, but these qualities have been observed to overlap.

One school of thought emphasizes that sex-role stereotypes have biological origin (Goldberg, 1973, Wilson, 1978), basing their arguments on theories that focus on biological determinants of personality. Whereas, other theorists believe that sex-typed personality are acquired through socialization. Hoffman (1972) stated that social roles are first communicated through parent-child relations and events in early childhood may have an impact that cannot be accurately duplicated later in the experience of the individual.

Hoffman believed that boys are socialized differently from girls. Hence the author maintains that parents treat boys differently even from birth. This view is supported by the work of Garai and Scheinfeld (1968). These authors suggested that parents think of girls as more fragile than boys and therefore are more protective of girls. This pattern of parental overprotectiveness leads to insufficient independence training for girls. According to Hoffman (1972) parents clearly communicate to the boy their expectation for his achievement and competence, and, as a result, a male child receives more effective independent training and encouragement.

There are many studies that have empirically associated socialization experiences to sex differences in achievement orientations. Even at preschool age girls have been found to have different orientations towards intellectual tasks than boys (Hoffman, 1972). According to this source, girls consider social approval important, and they usually underestimate their competence. Whereas boys show more task involvement and more self-confidence. Furthermore, Hoffman pointed out that "there are also differences in the specific skills of each sex: males excel in spatial perceptions, arithmetic reasoning, general information and show less set-dependency; girls excel in quick-perception of details, verbal fluency, rote memory, and clerical abilities" (p. 130).

Some aspects of Hoffman's views have been supported in a recent study by Lunneborg (1984). In this study, students (358 females and 203 males) completed a survey as part of an introductory psychology class taken autumn of 1982. The results showed that for 8 of the 10 spatial ability activities men significantly rated themselves higher than the women. The author emphasized that differences that occurred were not based on women's underestimation but on men's overestimation of their spatial ability. The

sexes did not differ in the amount of time spent practicing these items, but men indicated they spent more time playing visual games, working with machines, engaging in sports and driving a car. In summary, Lunneborg (1984) noted that male estimates of spatial performance were higher than that of female, except in arranging objects in space and assembling displays. The author, however, warned that this is only self-report on spatial performance and not the actual measures of everyday spatial ability.

Spatial-visualization is the category of spatial skill where gender differences are consistently observed and has been associated with mathematics achievement (Connor & Serbin, 1985). Differences in the visual-spatial performance of the males and females have been reported consistently in the research literature (Johnson & Mead, 1987; Linn & Peterson, 1985). Linn and Peterson believed that the gender differences in this area are limited to certain categories. Kail, Stevenson, and Black (1984) compared different kinds of visual-spatial tasks and found that, while males perform faster than females, females obtained correct answers to problems as frequently as males. In a recent study, Gallagher (1989) hypothesized that visual-spatial ability is equally important to males and females for mathematics achievement and conducted research to determine the relative importance of a series of variables in the prediction of SAT-Mathematics (SAT-M) scores of gifted males and females. In this study, the cube visual-spatial test was given to 152 males and 143 females high school students, and it was explained to them that even though part of the test was timed they would be able to use more time to complete the test after the 2-minute timed segment was over. The timed segment represented traditional test conditions. A composite score was calculated using both the timed test score and the items completed after the timed segment. The result showed that

there was a significant difference between males and females on the SAT-M, but this difference was shown to be more attributable to speed of response than ability. This study suggests that actual performance of males and females on visual-spatial tasks may be masked by time limit. In general, socialization, spatial ability, general reasoning ability, cognitive style and achievement motives are among the commonly researched characteristics that have been suggested to account for the gender gap in the performance of males and females (Gallagher, 1989; Yount, 1986; Lunneborg, 1984; Hoffman, 1972).

Gender, Self-Concept and Culture

One area of research on gender that has generated substantial interest is the relationship between gender and self-concept. Males are generally considered to be more active, strong and achievement orientated. Whereas, females are usually considered to be more passive, weak and nurturing. Yount (1986) compared the self-ascribed differences of women and men and concluded that women do indeed tend to describe themselves in terms of nurturing qualities, i.e., gentle and soothing, kind and considerate, sympathetic, and devoted to others, while men tend to describe themselves with references to power oriented descriptors like dominant, forceful, aggressive. More men than women say they are competitive and independent.

Research evidence shows a persistent and significant relationship between academic achievement and self-concept. Purkey (1970) commenting on this research stated that this relationship appears quite clear for boys and less so for girls. Campbell (1965) and Bledsoe (1967) using self-report

inventories, found a stronger relationship between self-concept and achievement in boys than in girls. For example, Singer and Stake (1986) examined the relationship of mathematics participation and success to self-esteem and career goals in a sample of 64 women and 52 men college students. The students were given questionnaires consisting of the following sections: Perception of Mathematics as a Male Domain, Perceived Usefulness of Mathematics, Math Anxiety, Self-Assessment of Math Ability, and Performance Self-Esteem. The respondents were also interviewed to collect additional information and to clarify their career goals. The result showed that among the male students, math participation and self-assessments of math ability were positively related to more general self-estimates of competence, whereas, among women these variables were not significantly related.

A principal aspect of self-concept, according to Burns (1979), is whether people perceive themselves to be male or female. Sex-role identity literature suggests that the degree to which persons regard themselves as "masculine" or "feminine" is culturally learned. Helmreich and Spence (1978) found that in the U.S., sex-typing effects were strong and that androgynous (androgyny: the extent to which masculine and feminine traits are equally endorsed as self-descriptive) and masculine students scored highest on self-esteem, mastery, work orientation, and competitiveness.

Basow (1986) has replicated the work of Spence and Helmreich (1978) in Fiji because "the number of cross-cultural replications has been small and none has related sex-typing to achievement orientation" (p. 430). Basow surveyed 308 males and 292 female high school students and 133 male and 107 female college students. The researcher used Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire developed by Helmreich and Spence (1978). The

questionnaire consists of four subscales to assess mastery, work orientation, competitiveness and personal unconcern. It also has personal questions pertaining to educational aspirations, number of children desired, and attitude towards job advancement for self and spouse. Results of the study showed that among high school students there were significant gender differences on mastery scores with males scoring higher than females. Among college students androgynous and masculine individuals had higher self-esteem scores than feminine and undifferentiated individuals. Basow concluded that despite national and cultural differences the effects of sex-typing on self-esteem, achievement orientation and attitude toward women are similar to patterns found in the U.S. Basow, however, noted that this result may be due to the increasing westernization of Fijian society in the past decade and recommended further cross-cultural research to clearly determine whether or not the effects of sex-typing is generalizable across cultures.

In 1980, Lerner, Iwawaki, Chihara, and Sorell conducted a cross-sectional study of male and female Japanese students ranging in educational level from seventh grade to college senior. One of the objectives was to assess the gender differences in self-concept between Japanese and American students. A total of 769 Japanese (50.4% female) students responded to a 16-item questionnaire which included bipolar items identified in the literature as being stereotypically associated with either males or females. Item alternatives such as independent-dependent, individualistic-conforming and passive-active were included. The result showed that Japanese males and females tended to rate themselves similarly on those items stereotypically held in the literature to differentiate the sexes. However, the males rated themselves more favorably than did the females. The cohort effect was more significant in the Japanese sample than the American sample.

Gender, Self-Concept and TOEFL

Hosley (1978) assessed the performance differences of international students on the TOEFL and reported that the differences between males and females on the TOEFL was not significant and this result has been supported by some researchers. For example, St. Martin (1979) investigated the language development proficiency and course grades of 83 students from Spain, Persia, Arabia, Japan, China, Thailand, Russia, Turkey, Vietnam, Greece, and France. Some of the students elected to live with English-speaking American families for the duration of their stay. St. Martin reported that significant differences for the total TOEFL score and the TOEFL Part 3 were more of a function of native language than either the location of residence or the gender of the students.

In a similar study, Odunze (1982) investigated the TOEFL scores and the grade point averages (GPAs) of Nigerian students who took the TOEFL test from 1975 to 1980. A total of 118 students were in the study and represented three major ethnic groups in Nigeria: Ibo, Yoruba, and Efik. Some of the findings of the study revealed no significant differences in the TOEFL scores among the ethnic groups, between males and females, and between students from government and private schools.

Contrary to the findings above, the TOEFL literature shows that a number of studies have found differences in performance that are related to gender and self-concept of the students. Blanchard and Reedy (1970) investigated the relationship of the TOEFL to measures of achievement and self-concept of high school juniors and seniors. The sample consisted of 32 male and 37 female students between the ages of 16 to 22. The students completed the Iowa Test of Educational Development (ITED), the Tennessee

Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). All tests were administered in near class room conditions and with the aid of school officials who, in recognition of the language deficiencies of the students, made every effort to provide detailed explanations of words and concepts to assure accurate response from the students. Analysis of variance on TOEFL scores indicated gender differences in favor of the females on English structure, vocabulary, writing, and total score. There were no gender differences in the self-concept of the students. In conclusion, the researchers noted that language, culture and the self-concept are closely related and that this relationship must be recognized if English as a second language and academic abilities are to be effectively taught.

Poloai (1980) investigated the relationship between self-concept and the academic achievement of American Samoan students. Academic achievement of the students were assessed by their GPA, TOEFL and Science Research Associates and Achievement Test (SRA) scores. The self-concept of ability was measured by the Self-Concept as a Learner Scale and the Brookover Self Concept of Ability Scale. The results of the study showed that academic achievement was significantly related to the perceived evaluation of parents, friends and teachers. The study also found that the linear combination of self-concept variables from the two self-concept scales used in the study were correlated significantly with academic achievement as measured by GPA, TOEFL and SRA.

Wilson (1982) using data from TOEFL program files compiled a report of the characteristics and the TOEFL performance of foreign nationals from more than 100 countries who took the TOEFL from September 1977 to August 1979. Some of the conclusions from this study were that: 1) women tended to do better than men on TOEFL total scores, 2) the population of degree

planning TOEFL candidates was predominantly male (72 %), 3) sex distribution of candidates who took the TOEFL differed by region among the 25 leading countries and these reflected differences in custom and tradition affecting the role of women, 4) repeaters tended to attain a lower mean score, and 5) examinees tested in foreign centers did better than those tested domestically. Wilson (1987) measured the patterns of test taking and score changes of examinees who repeat the TOEFL and found that repeaters registered substantial average net gains in performance. In conclusion, Wilson emphasized the importance of specifying the test-repetition status of examinees.

Some of the studies reviewed indicate that TOEFL scores showed no gender differences while other studies reported significant differences in the TOEFL scores of male and female students. Only few studies have linked self-concept change to TOEFL change scores. But none of the studies reviewed has associated self-concept change and change in language development of male and female Japanese exchange students.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The strategy utilized in gathering data for this study is discussed in this section under the following categories: the sample population, the procedure for the study, the dependent variables, the instruments, and the method of data analysis.

The Sample Population

The respondents in this study were 30 male and 31 female Japanese exchange students from Tokyo International University (TIU), Kawagoe City, Japan, who participated in a nine-month study abroad program at Tokyo International University of America (TIUA). The TIUA is located adjacent to the Willamette University (WU) campus in Salem, Oregon. The students were mostly sophomores and juniors in such fields of study as commerce, international relations, business management, economics, and psychology. All the students were between 19 and 23 years of age. During their stay at TIUA, the students completed the following course credits: English I through VI (12 credits); natural science (4 credits); social science (4 credits); humanities (4 credits); a course (commerce, economics or psychology) taught in Japanese (4 credits); and a seminar for juniors taught in Japanese (2 credits). These courses were taught by Willamette University and TIUA professors during the 1989-90 academic year.

The academic calendar was from May 1989 to January 1990. The curriculum was implemented during the spring-summer, fall, and winter

semesters. An intensive English language program was offered during the spring-summer semester and consisted of English studies in composition, reading, and oral communication. The English language program was designed to maximize students' acquisition of social and academic English. Students were placed according to their proficiency levels in two levels of English classes. For each class, the students completed thirty hours of intensive English study per week for four weeks. Then for the following ten weeks they completed twenty hours a week of either English III, IV or V. The English language studies were taught by trained language experts. Teaching aids used for the classes included advanced language laboratory equipment, audio-systems, and computer software. In addition to English courses, students enrolled in elective classes for four hours a week for ten weeks. These courses included calculus and statistics and were taught by Willamette University professors.

Fall semester enrollment in courses in liberal arts in both English and Japanese was optional. Industrial psychology, commerce and economics were taught in Japanese language by Japanese visiting professors. Willamette University (WU) professors taught the WU classes of American history, literature, and American society and politics. Students enrolled in social science and literature classes were also encouraged to enroll in four hours per week of applied English class (English VI). Content of the applied English class was primarily based on the social science and literature classes and also included practice in discussion skills, academic reading strategies, and development of academic writing skills for assignments and examinations. Because enrollment in all classes was optional, not all the students in English VI class took the same electives, and not all the students in every elective section took English VI. Students could enroll for seven weeks of society

and politics and seven weeks of history and literature. Other courses offered for one hour per week within the 14 week semester included physical education (music, art, and dance), Japanese language, and a WU class. Students could take one or two elective classes depending on their interest and the acceptance of the professor. While some students (three) were exempted from taking WU classes, others took up to four WU classes based on their interests.

During the winter session, a course in Oregon's economic, political, and social system was taught by a WU professor. Included in this course were visits to the neighboring State Capitol building, state and local government offices, and prominent Oregon businesses. To meet the requirement of this course students went on field trips, conducted interviews, did independent studies, and wrote reports summarizing their recently acquired American studies knowledge.

Out of the original number of 61 students in the study, 44 completed the TOEFL pre- and posttests, 52 students completed the TSCS pre- and posttests, and only 39 students completed pre- and posttests in both TOEFL and TSCS (Appendix A). Of these 39 students, only 36 completed and returned the demographic survey questionnaires (Appendix B). Thirty-five of these students had Willamette University roommates. No data were available on the number of these students who lived on TIUA or WU campus during the course of the study.

The Procedure

Administrators and professors at TIUA were contacted, and a meeting was scheduled to discuss the study. During the meeting an explanation of the

research was presented for the approval of TIUA officials, and a request for their assistance with the administration of the questionnaire was granted. A total of 61 TIUA students completed the Japanese version of the TSCS counseling and research form in the spring of 1989. The TSCS forms were administered with the assistance of TIUA staff in a group setting four weeks after the arrival of the students. The posttest consisted of a Japanese version of the TSCS and a demographic questionnaire (Appendix C and D). These forms were completed by the students about three weeks before their departure in January, 1990. The students took the TOEFL test three times: February, 1989, prior to their arrival in the US; August, 1989; and January, 1990. For the purpose of this study the TOEFL tests of February, 1989, and January, 1990, were used as the pre- and posttest measures.

All returned questionnaires were checked to screen out incomplete forms. Answer sheets of the TSCS and the questionnaire were coded, and scored manually. The Oregon State University statistics department and the computer center assisted with the analysis.

The Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this study were the self-concept as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) and language proficiency as measured by Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The self-concept was measured by the participants' responses to a series of questions concerned with perceptions held about themselves in eight (8) different categories of self within the TSCS (Fitts, 1965). This scale also provided a composite score (Total Positive score) that reflects the overall self-worth of the respondents (see Appendix A for participants' resulted on TSCS).

Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score was also a dependent variable. The TOEFL is a standardized test that is often used to determine whether the level of English proficiency will enable international students to study successfully in an English speaking country. The TOEFL is regarded as a major requirement for admission into universities and colleges in most English speaking and third world countries (see Appendix A for participants' results on TOEFL).

The Instruments

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS)

Research literature shows that the TSCS developed by Fitts (1965) and Twenty Statements Test (TST) developed by Kuhn and McPartland (1954) had been used in other cultures to assess the self-concept. The TSCS was chosen for use in this study for three reasons: 1) the TSCS, though not normed for cross-cultural populations, has been used by researchers to measure self-concept among Mexican-Americans, Nigerians, Black Africans and Black Americans, Asians, Japanese, and Australians (Maciel, 1986; Ezeilo, 1982; Clawson, 1983; Christopherson-Choudhry; 1982; Mahler, 1976; Sharpley & Hattie, 1983); 2) it has been translated into the Japanese language and used to measure self-concept for this population; and 3) it is structured to fit some specific personal and social contexts appropriate for exploring the self-concept among the Japanese (Cousins, 1989).

Fitts began his developmental work on the TSCS in 1955 for the purpose of developing a research instrument in the field of mental health. Fitts felt that there was a need for an instrument that measured the self-

concept and that such an instrument should be widely applicable, well standardized, and multidimensional in its structure. The first step in the development of the scale was to compile a large pool of self-descriptive items. The original pool of items was derived from a number of other self-concept measures, including those developed by Balester (1956), Engel (1956), and Taylor (1953). After considerable study, a phenomenological system was developed for classifying items on the basis of what they were saying. This system evolved into two dimensional (3 x 5) framework of rows and columns now used on the score sheet of the scoring form.

The items were then edited, and seven clinical psychologists classified them according to the (3 x 5) framework and judged each item as to whether it was positive or negative. The final 90 items used in this section of the TSCS were those on which the judges reached perfect agreement. The 3 x 5 groupings were used to construct the row and column scores of the scale. Because each of the 90 TSCS items taps both internal and external aspects, the items overlap in a completely balanced way. The other 10 items were taken from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) L-scale and provided a measure of the subject's defensiveness in responding to the TSCS.

The TSCS, therefore, consists of 100 self-descriptive items which are intended to measure the feelings of self-worth in people and the degree to which the self-image is realistic. The TSCS measures five external aspects of self-concept (physical, moral-ethical, personal, family, and social) and three internal aspects of the self-concept (identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior). Individuals respond to each item on a five point scale ranging from "completely true" to "completely false" as shown below:

5	4	3	2	1
Completely true	mostly true	partly false and partly true	mostly false	completely false

The TSCS is published in two versions: the Clinical and Research form (Form C and R) and the Counseling form. These forms contain the same items but the C and R form includes additional items that are not derived from the counseling form. The C and R form was used for this study. The scale is self-administering and requires no instructions beyond those that are attached to the instrument. It takes about 15 to 20 minutes to fill out the form, and the results can be manually scored or computer scored. The major scores of the scale are as follows:

Positive Score: The overall self-concept of the individual is reflected in what is called the Total Positive Score "P-score" that is derived from the sum of row and column scores.

Basic Identity: This score represents the person's basic identity. That is, how individuals perceive themselves at the most basic level.

Self Satisfaction: This is a measure of the person's self satisfaction or self-acceptance.

Behavior: This score indicates the respondents' perception of their own behavior.

Physical Self: The score reflects how persons describe their physical self.

Moral - Ethical Self: This score is a measure of a person's moral worth.

Personal Self: This score indicates the individual's sense of self-worth, psychological traits and characteristics.

Family Self: The score represents the participants' perception of self in relation to the primary social group, family, and close friends.

Social Self: This score reflects the person's acceptance of self and sense of adequacy in interacting with the secondary social group or people in the society.

Reliability

The manual (Fitts, 1965) reports test-retest reliability for a two-week interval based on data from 60 college students. The reliability coefficients range from .88 to .91 (rows), .80 to .90 (columns), and a Total Positive Score (T-Score) of .92. The reversed version of the manual (Fitts, 1989) reports a comprehensive study of internal consistency of TSCS profile scales from data obtained from a sample of 472 respondents. The participants were 26.95 years on the average and included single, college-educated students and people from different ethnic groups (White, Asians, Blacks, Hispanics, and other). The majority of the coefficients were found to be in the range of .70 to .87, with the Total Score having the highest values: .91, .94, and .94 for the adolescent, adult, and total samples, respectively.

Validity

Several scores from the scale are very highly correlated with other measures of personality functioning (Bentler, 1972). Bentler noted that the Taylor Anxiety Scale correlates -.70 with TSCS Total Positive score. Millikin (1977) commenting on the nature of this correlation stated that since the TSCS measure reflects a positive self-concept and the Taylor Scale a high level of anxiety, this negative correlation would indicate a high degree of validity. Bentler (1972) also reported correlations of .50 to .70 with the Cornell Medical Index and .50 to .60 with the MMPI. In Bentler's view, the scale overlaps

sufficiently with other known measures to consider it a possible alternative for these measures in various applied situations.

Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)

Test of English as a Foreign Language was developed in 1963 through the cooperative effort of over thirty organizations. The TOEFL program is jointly operated by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), the College Board and the Graduate Record Examinations (GRE) although the ETS has the responsibility for administering the test.

The TOEFL test originally contained five sections, but, as a result of extensive research studies, a separately timed three-section test was developed. The questions in each section are in multiple-choice format with four possible answers or options for each question. All responses are placed on answer sheets that are computer-scored. The total test time is about two hours though three hours are needed for a test administration. The three sections of the test include:

Listening Comprehension: measures the ability to understand English as it is spoken in North America and to make accurate inferences about the speaker's intent and attitude.

Structure and Written Expression: measures mastery of important structural and grammatical points in standard written English.

Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension: tests the ability to understand the meanings and uses of words written in English as well as the ability to understand a variety of written materials.

Reliability

Correlation coefficient of scores from the three sections range from .68 to .79 thus indicating a fairly strong relationship among the skills tested (TOEFL Manual, 1987-88).

However, data obtained from San Francisco State University showed that TOEFL score gains decrease as a function of proficiency level at the time of initial testing (Swinton, 1983). Student scores were obtained at the start of an intensive English language program and at its completion 13 weeks later. Result of data analysis indicated that students with initial scores in the 353-400 range showed a real gain in TOEFL of 41 points during 13 weeks of instruction. Whereas, students in the 453-500 score range showed a 25 point gain in real language proficiency after the effects of practice and regression of scores had been adjusted.

Validity

Content validity: Material for the TOEFL test is written by English as a foreign language specialists. Additional material is prepared by members of the TOEFL Committee of Examiners and by Educational Testing Service (ETS) test experts. All items specifications, questions, and test forms are reviewed internally at ETS for cultural and racial bias and content appropriateness, following established ETS procedures.

The TOEFL correlates adequately with other measures of language proficiency. For example, TOEFL-TWE (Test of Written English) total score correlation was .65 and .69 for the July and November 1986 administration of the instrument. Studies by Upshur (1966) and American Language Institute (1966) have shown that TOEFL has a correlation of .89 with Michigan Test of English Proficiency and .79 with American Language Institute Test. TOEFL manual reports a high correlation of GRE verbal scores with the Vocabulary

and Reading Comprehension of TOEFL (.623) and a correlation of .681 with SAT verbal scores.

Method of Data Analysis

Pre- and posttest scores of TSCS and TOEFL were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance and one sample t-tests. Relationships between TOEFL scores and TSCS scores were assessed by Pearson correlational analysis. A .05 level of significance was set for all tests. The following hypotheses were investigated:

Hypotheses

1. There will be no significant change by time (pre- and posttest) in TOEFL scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at Tokyo International University of America (TIUA), Salem, Oregon.
2. There will be no significant difference by gender in TOEFL change scores among Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.
3. There will be no significant change by time (pre- and posttest) in the total TSCS scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.
4. There will be no significant difference by gender in the total TSCS change scores among Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

5. There will be no significant changes by time (pre- and posttest) in the TSCS subscales scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.
6. There will be no significant difference by time in the TSCS subscales change scores among Japanese students participating in an English language program at TIUA.
7. There is no significant relationship between change in TOEFL scores and change in the total TSCS scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.
8. There are no significant relationships between change in TOEFL scores and change in TSCS subscales scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The results of this study are presented in this chapter. The purpose of this study was to investigate language development, self-concept change, and the relationship between these variables among Japanese exchange students. Eight hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance. These hypotheses attempted to answer the following research questions: 1) Does Japanese student language proficiency increase during participation in a short-term intensive language program? 2) Does self-concept of Japanese college students change during participation in a short-term intensive language program? 3) What relationship, if any, is there between self-concept change and language proficiency? 4) Are changes in self-concept and language proficiency subject to gender differences? The pre- and posttest scores from the dependent variables of self-concept and language proficiency were analyzed by method of one-way ANOVA, t-test and correlation analysis. Tables to illustrate the results of analysis are presented with each hypothesis tested. Of the 61 Japanese exchange students in the study, 44 students completed the pre- and posttests in TOEFL, 52 students completed pre- and posttests for the TSCS, and 39 students completed pre- and posttests in both TSCS and TOEFL. The number of students comprising the study sample ranged from 39 to 52 depending on the research question being studied (see Appendix C for the demographic analysis of student groups investigated in this study).

Language Proficiency

1. Ho: There will be no significant change by time (pre- and posttest) in TOEFL scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at Tokyo International University of America (TIUA), Salem, Oregon.

One factor analysis of variance, repeated measures, was used to investigate if TOEFL scores of Japanese exchange students ($n = 44$) increased during their participation in an intensive English language program. The result showed that the students' level of proficiency increased significantly ($p < .0001$) at the completion of the program. The students' TOEFL scores increased from a range of 307-529 at pretest to a range of 363-591 at posttest (Fig. 4.1). The group mean for the TOEFL score increased from 407.6 at pretest to 453.1 at posttest, resulting in a gain of 45.5 points (Appendix A). A significant F value (123.3) was observed for the mean of the two TOEFL scores. Therefore, hypothesis one was rejected (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. One Factor Repeated Measures ANOVA: Comparing the Pre- and Posttest TOEFL Scores of Japanese Exchange Students in an Intensive English Language Program.

Source of variation	df	SS	MS	F	P value	H ₀ Decision
Students	43	206704.4	4807.1	3.437	0.0001	
Error	44	61546.0	1398.8			
TOEFL	1	45636.5	45636.5	123.346*	0.0001	Reject
Error	43	15909.5	370.0			
Total	87	268250.4				

Tabular F (1, 43) = 4.07, *Significant at $P < 0.05$ level

A significant F value ($F = 3.437$) was also found for the between subjects' test ($p < .0001$) indicating that a substantial level of variability exists among the students in the way they responded to the language development program.

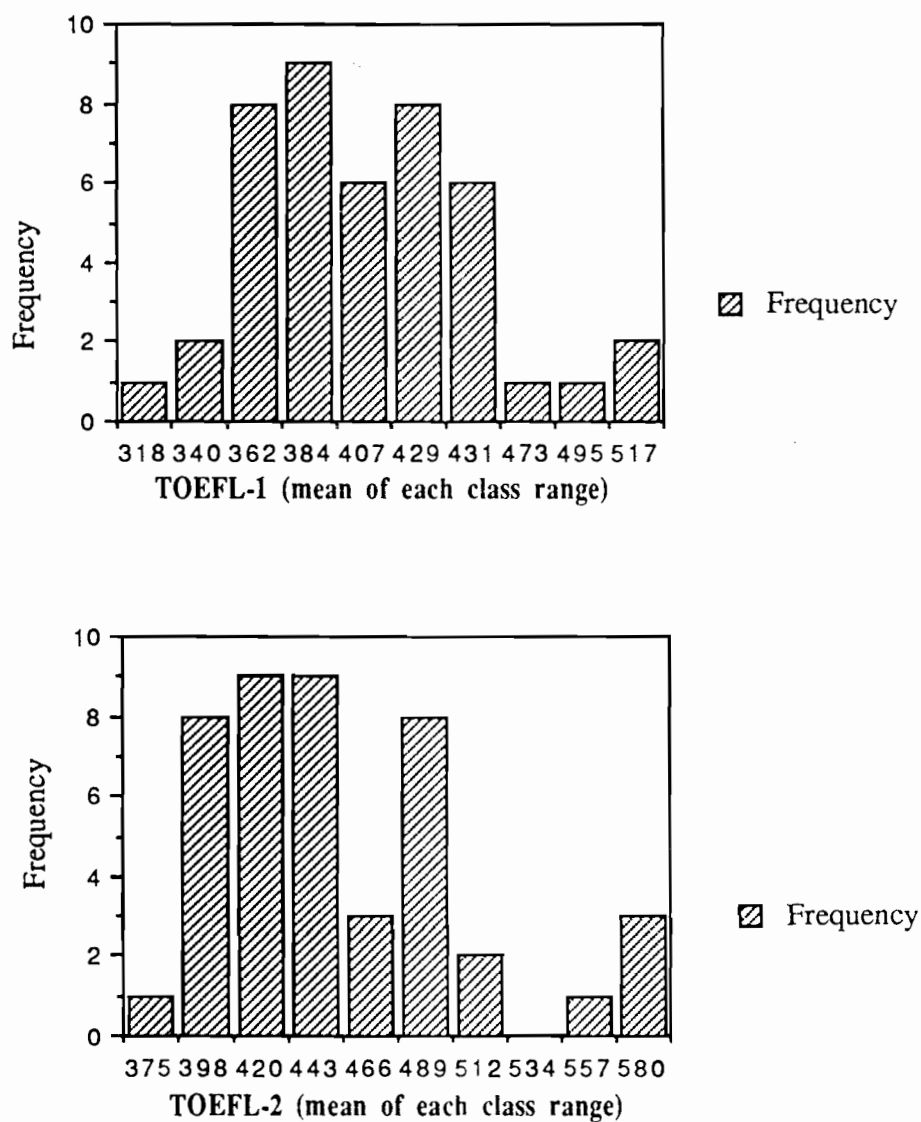


Fig. 4.1 Frequency Distribution of TOEFL Scores of TIUA Japanese Exchange Students

2. Ho: There will be no significant difference by gender in TOEFL change scores among Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

The mean of the pretest TOEFL score for female students (413) was higher than the mean of the pretest TOEFL score for male students (401). The same was true of the posttest TOEFL scores for females (455) and males (451). The mean difference for the male students (50) is higher than the mean difference for the female students (42). However, the results of an analysis of variance ($p < .5105$) of the TOEFL change score data showed that there was no significant difference between mean of the male and female students (Table 4.2). Therefore, the hypothesis was retained. Analysis of the survey given at posttest indicate that 62% of the female students and 67% of the male student had had formal English classes prior to their participation in the exchange program (Table 4.3).

Table 4.2 One Factor ANOVA: A Comparison of Gender and TOEFL Scores Change of Japanese Exchange Students.

Source of variation	df	SS	MS	F	P value	H ₀ Decision
Gender	1	294.796	294.796	0.441	0.5105	Retain
Within	42	28105.636	669.182			
Total	43	28400.432				

Tabular F (1, 42) = 4.07, $P < 0.05$

Table 4.3 A Comparison of Previous English Language Study of Japanese Exchange Students by Gender.

Gender of students	Had formal English class	English proficiency (fair - good)	Importance attached to English (important - very imp.)
21 female	3 (62%)	6 (29%)	18 (86%)
15 male	10 (67%)	3 (20%)	14 (93%)

Data from demographic survey of Japanese exchange students at TIUA.

Self-Concept Change

- 3 Ho: There will be no significant change by time (pre- and posttest) in the total TSCS scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

The pretest mean of 300 was higher than the posttest mean of 294 (Appendix A). The analysis presented in Table 4.4 showed that no significant changes ($p < .022$) occurred in the total self-concept of the students during their participation in the intensive language program. Thus, this hypothesis was retained. However, it should be noted that the between group analysis of variance showed a high level of significance ($p < .0001$), indicating a substantial difference in self-concept among the students.

4. Ho: There will be no significant difference by gender in the total TSCS change scores among Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

Table 4.4 One Factor Repeated Measures ANOVA: TSCS Change Scores of Japanese Exchange Students in an Intensive Language Program.

Source of variation	df	SS	MS	F	P value	H ₀ Decision
Students	51	110865.8	2173.8	4.429	0.0001	
Error	52	25520	490.8			
TSCS	1	808.7	808.7	1.669	0.2022	Retain
Error	51	24711.3	484.5			
Total	103	136385.8				

Tabular $F(1, 51) = 4.03, P < 0.05$

One factor analysis of variance was utilized to compare the TSCS change scores by gender of the students. A non-significant F value (0.482, $p < .4907$) was found (Table 4.5) indicating that the students (male = 22, female = 30) rated themselves similarly. This hypothesis was retained.

Table 4.5 One Factor ANOVA: Comparing the TSCS Change Scores for Male and Female Japanese Exchange Students.

Source of variation	df	SS	MS	F	P value	H ₀ Decision
Gender	1	470.406	470.406	0.482	0.4907	Retain
Error	50	48780.421	975.608			
Total	51	49250.827				

Tabular $F(1, 50) = 4.03, P < 0.05$

5. Ho: There will be no significant changes by time (pre- and posttest) in the TSCS subscales scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

A paired t-test analysis was used to examine if observable changes occurred in the TSCS subcategories scores of the students within the duration of the intensive language program. No significant changes were found either within the external (physical, moral-ethical, personal, family, and social) or the internal (identity, satisfaction and behavior) subscales of the TSCS (Table 4.6). The hypothesis was therefore retained.

Table 4.6. Mean of Change Scores in TSCS Subscales of Japanese Exchange Students.

Subscales	Paired <i>t</i> -test	Probability (2-tailed)
Physical Self	-1.007	0.3185
Moral-Ethical Self	-0.853	0.3974
Personal Self	-0.836	0.4072
Family Self	0.592	0.5564
Social Self	-1.311	0.1958
Identity	-1.179	0.244
Self Satisfaction	0.356	0.7231
Behavior	-0.608	0.5457

6. Ho: There will be no significant difference by gender in the TSCS subscales change scores among Japanese students participating in an English language program at TIUA.

The students scored similarly on all the subscales of the TSCS. The pre- and posttest mean differences for all the subscales were very small. A one

factor ANOVA was used to investigate gender difference and change in the TSCS subscales scores. As the data on Table 4.7 indicate, no significant gender effect was found in any of the TSCS subscales. The hypothesis was retained. Further observation disclosed that posttest standard deviations were generally larger than pretest deviations for students in all the subscales tested (Table 4.8).

Table 4.7 One Factor ANOVA: Comparing the Change in TSCS Subscales Scores for Male and Female Japanese Exchange Students.

Source of Subtest	variation	df	SS	MS	F	P value	H ₀ Decision
Physical Self	Gender	1	3.9	3.9	0.063	0.8029	Retain
	Error	50	3065.2	61.3			
Moral-Ethical Self	Gender	1	39.8	39.8	0.707	0.4043	Retain
	Error	50	2809.6	56.2			
Personal Self	Gender	1	14.1	14.1	0.146	0.7035	Retain
	Error	50	4817.7	96.4			
Family Self	Gender	1	5.1	5.1	0.138	0.7123	Retain
	Error	50	1868.0	38.4			
Social Self	Gender	1	38.5	38.5	0.471	0.4958	Retain
	Error	50	4092.0	81.8			
Identity	Gender	1	14.9	14.9	0.102	0.7508	Retain
	Error	50	7323.1	146.5			
Self Satisfaction	Gender	1	155.2	155.2	0.884	0.3515	Retain
	Error	50	8774.6	175.5			
Behavior	Gender	1	25.4	25.4	0.216	0.6435	Retain
	Error	50	5872.6	117.5			

P = 0.05

Table 4.8 Comparison of Pre- and Posttest Means and Standard Deviations of TSCS Scores for Male and Female Exchange Japanese Students.

		Male		Female	
TSCS Score		M	SD	M	SD
Total Score:	Pre	292.5	30.979	305.067	26.706
	Post	290.955	43.133	296.533	42.86
Identity:	Pre	105.955	17.006	114.5	10.523
	Post	105.318	13.225	111.433	12.561
Satisfaction:	Pre	91.409	15.013	91.567	11.467
	Post	90.045	17.431	93.7	15.873
Behavior:	Pre	95.409	12.827	98.5	10.295
	Post	95.591	15.218	96.767	11.732
Physical:	Pre	60.318	6.945	60.7	5.67
	Post	59.6	8.787	59.6	8.787
Moral-Ethical:	Pre	57.091	6.9	59.067	7.254
	Post	57.227	9.606	57.433	9.317
Personal:	Pre	57.955	9.393	58.26	7.388
	Post	56.818	11.73	57.133	9.104
Family:	Pre	61.955	7.047	65.433	7.573
	Post	62.545	10.299	65.867	8.228
Social:	Pre	55.636	9.328	62.133	10.013
	Post	55.045	11.133	59.733	11.42

Correlation Between Change in Language Proficiency and Change in Self-Concept

7. Ho: There is no significant relationship between change in TOEFL scores and change in the total TSCS scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

This hypothesis was tested by use of Pearson's correlation analysis. No significant correlation ($r = .151, p < .05$), was found between change in TOEFL scores and change in TSCS total self-concept scores of the students (Table 4.9). The hypothesis of non-significant relationship was retained.

8. Ho: There are no significant relationships between change in TOEFL scores and change in the total TSCS scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program at TIUA.

The correlation matrix (Table 4.9) indicates various levels of correlation between change in TOEFL scores and change in TSCS scores. The strongest relationship, and also the only statistically significant correlation found, was between change in TOEFL scores and change in the TSCS subscale of social-self ($r = .306, p < .05$). The positive nature of this correlation suggests that as the students gain higher proficiency and can express themselves better in English language, their social self-concept is positively enhanced. This null hypothesis was retained because although change in social self was found to be significantly correlated with change in TOEFL scores, the other

subscales scores of the TSCS did not show a significant relationship with TOEFL change scores.

Table 4.9. Correlation Matrix of Change in TOEFL and Change in TSCS.

	TOEFL	ΔTSCS	ΔPhy	ΔMoral-	ΔPers.	ΔFam.Soc.	ΔIden	ΔSat.	ΔBeh.	
ΔTOEFL	1									
ΔTSCS	0.151	1								
ΔPhysical	0.13	.316	1							
ΔMoral-E	0.091	.569	.388	1						
ΔPersonal	0.003	.277	.292	.388	1					
ΔFamily	0.117	.55	.264	.516	.491	1				
ΔSocial	0.306	.48	.433	.29	.241	.303	1			
ΔIdentity	0.086	.428	.354	.554	.591	.633	.346	1		
ΔSatisfa...	0.012	.428	.422	.498	.753	.722	.378	.667	1	
ΔBehavior	0.248	.597	.527	.629	.326	.444	.523	.211	.334	1

* Significant at $P < 0.05$ based on critical values of the Pearson's correlation coefficient.

Fitts (1965) normative sample (Appendix D) had higher mean scores than the exchange students in the present study for the overall self-concept (Total-score) and for all the subscales tested. These results are consistent with Mahler's (1976) findings when he compared the self-concept of Japanese college students and American college students. However, the exchange students in the present study appeared to have higher pre- and posttest mean scores in all the aspects of self measured within the TSCS than respondents in Mahler's study. Furthermore, the standard deviations of the TIUA exchange students at pretest do not appear to differ significantly from those of Fitts normative sample and this is similar to the results obtained by Mahler (1976).

But at posttest, the exchange students in this study did have generally larger standard deviations than did Fitts normative sample.

Norms for the TSCS were not separated into male and female categories, due to Fitts' (1965) belief that the effects of such demographic variables as sex, age, race, education and intelligence are quite negligible. This study found no differences attributable to gender in the TSCS scores of the exchange students.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The literature reviewed indicates that self-concept research has been a central focus within the areas of education and social psychology. Research within these fields of study has generally been geared toward the characteristics of self-concept, its development, change, measurement, correlates, and the demographic and environmental factors that influence the concept of self. However, only a little of this research has been done on self-concept in non-western cultures where self is usually not regarded as a discrete unit of society (Bond & Cheung, 1983). The few research studies done to discover how self is construed in non-western cultures have centered upon cross-cultural comparisons of self-concept. After such a comparative study with American and Japanese college students, Mahler (1976) recommended further studies to explore the concept of self in the Japanese culture. Shimonaka and Nakazato (1980) compared the self-perceptions of older Japanese adults and Japanese college students and concluded that older adults were more positive with regard to their present self while the younger adults were more positive with regard to future self. These authors also reported that cohort effects were more prominent than gender effects in all aspects of relationships measured.

The overall purpose of this study was to investigate if changes in language proficiency and self-concept occurred among Japanese college students during their participation in a language program at Tokyo International University of America (TIUA). Another major purpose of the

study was to determine if there was a relationship between English language proficiency and change in self-concept.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) developed by Fitts (1965) was selected for soliciting students' responses because it has been translated into Japanese language and it has been used in assessing the self-concept in this population. The TOEFL administered by Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey, measured the language proficiency level of the students, and a demographic survey was also used to collect additional information from the students.

Data for this study were collected within the school calendar year of the exchange program, specifically from May 1989 (pretest) to January 1990 (posttest). All 61 students, mostly sophomores and juniors, in the exchange program were encouraged to complete the questionnaires. However, 44 students completed the pre- and posttests of TOEFL, 52 students completed the pre-and posttests of TSCS, and 39 students completed the pre- and posttests of both TOEFL and TSCS. The data were processed, and eight null hypotheses were tested by method of one-way analysis of variance (F Statistic), t-tests and correlation analyses.

The findings of the study revealed that there was a statistically significant increase in the level of language proficiency of the Japanese students over the course of the exchange program. Furthermore, the TOEFL test score gains showed no significant gender differences. The male and female students in the study tended to rate themselves similarly and therefore, did not differ significantly in their TSCS total or subscale change scores. Also, a significant correlation was found between change in TOEFL scores and change in the TSCS social self subscale score ($r = .306$). The highest correlation in the matrix occurred between change in personal self and

change in self-satisfaction ($r = .753$), while the correlation between change in behavior and change in identity ($r = .211$) is the least. It is perhaps of interest to note that change in TOEFL scores is strongly but negatively correlated ($r = -.525$) with initial behavior of the students.

Conclusions

1. The level of English language proficiency of Japanese college students increased significantly during their participation in an intensive language program at TIUA. A demographic survey conducted at posttest revealed that over 72% of the students in this study rated learning English language as very important (Appendix C). Perhaps this is an indication that students in this study have positive attitudes toward learning the language. It is speculated that this must have contributed towards the gain in language proficiency reflected in the TOEFL scores of the students. Research has noted that learner positive attitude is an important factor in language learning (Spolsky, 1969). The demographic survey also indicated that students who demonstrated high level language proficiency at pre- (≥ 450) and posttest (≥ 500) had had 6 to 8 years of formal English classes prior to participation in the language program, while a majority of those students with low level proficiency at pre- (≤ 370) and posttest (≤ 410) indicated that they had no formal classes in English prior to the exchange program. It seems then that the language preparation they received before participation in this language program may have contributed to their language development during the course of the program.
2. The TOEFL change scores showed no gender differences. Male and female students in this study changed similarly in their TOEFL scores, supporting the view that TOEFL scores are not influenced by gender

differences. Hosley (1978), St. Martin (1979) and Odunze (1982) also reported no significant gender differences in their comparative analysis of international students' TOEFL scores. Contrary to these results, Blanchard and Reedy (1970), and Poloai (1980) found gender differences in the TOEFL test scores of students from difference cultures and suggested that culture might be a factor determining what influence gender can have on TOEFL scores. The results of a demographic survey of students in the study showed that about the same percentage of male and female students believed their English speaking ability to be fairly good. Perhaps the lack of gender effect in the students' TOEFL scores is related to the students' perceived ability to communicate in the language of study. TOEFL scores do not include speaking ability of examinees, and this could be an area for further research.

3. Japanese college students' overall self-concept did not change during participation in intensive exchange language program. The results of the present study confirmed the view held by Miyamoto, Crowell and Katcher (1956) that the self-concept reflects a fairly stable phenomenon. Similarly, Wylie (1979) reviewed research proposing to alter self-concept as a result of academic or group interventions and found no evidence of a consistent pattern of results that caused any change in self-concept.

Although the TSCS used in this study provides for some contextual assessment of self, it is possible that not all the parameters of self-description in the Japanese culture were included in the instrument. For example, the literature on self-concept in non-western culture revealed that self in relation to authority, social roles, and close interpersonal relationships are more important variables of self-description in the Japanese culture than the assessment of the independent ego (Cousins, 1989). The development of an instrument that includes components of self-assessment that are known to

encourage more detailed self-description that is normed to the Japanese culture may increase the sensitivity of self evaluation in this type of study.

4. There were no gender differences in self-concept of Japanese college students. The results of this study suggest that gender may not be a factor in self-concept of Japanese college students. This is consistent with the results obtained by Mahler (1976) and Hamilton, Blumenfeld, Akoh and Miura (1989) who found no gender effects in their study of the self-concept in the Japanese culture. It should be noted here that these authors studied college students in Japan who did not have to go through the process of acculturation in a new environment. Basow (1986) found no gender differences in the self-esteem of Fijian college students and suggested that increased westernization of the Fijian society may have influenced the response of the students. The hypothesis of sociocultural effects on gender differences suggested by Basow seemed not to apply to the Japanese exchange students in this study since some studies conducted in Japan have also shown no gender differences. However, Lerner, Iwawaki, Chihara and Sorell (1980) in their study of self-perception among Japanese students contended that no overall self-concept differences existing in this population does not exclude the possibility that the genders may define themselves quite differently and still obtain comparable self-concept scores.

On the contrary, some authors believed that gender differences exist in the self-concept of Japanese respondents. Shimonaka and Nakazato (1980) and Bond and Cheung (1983) studied self-concept among Japanese college students in Japan and found gender differences in self-concept. It is possible that methodological approaches used in these studies of self-concept influenced the results obtained. It is also possible that not all the study groups

demonstrated gender differences. Clearly, further studies are needed in this area.

5. No significant changes occurred in the TSCS subscales scores of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program. No statistically significant changes were observed on either the external (physical, moral-ethical, personal, family, and social self) or the internal (identity, satisfaction and behavior) aspects of self-concept of the students. It is speculated that these aspects of self are highly correlated with the overall self-concept and may reflect general situation of the overall self. It is recognized that small sample population used in this study (n=52) may have reduced the sensitivity of this test. Future research should assess these aspects of self with larger size.

6. There was no significant relationship between change in TOEFL scores and change in the overall self-concept of Japanese students participating in an intensive English language exchange program. It had been expected that a positive and high correlation between the self-concept change and TOEFL scores change would be observed. But in contrast to this expectation, the correlation coefficient obtained was not significant. The pretest was given four weeks after the arrival of the exchange students. It is possible that a pretest given at the time of arrival would have showed a different result.

7. Change in TOEFL score was positively correlated with change in social self of Japanese exchange students. The significant positive correlation found between the TOEFL change score and the subscale score of social self indicates that language development is more strongly associated with social self than with overall self-concept. Perhaps one explanation for this strong relationship could be associated with the important role of language competency in socialization. Without the language capability, interaction

with people will be reduced to minimum. But as the students' language proficiency levels increased, they became more confident in communicating in the new language and thus became more sociable.

Another reason for this strong correlation may be related to the objective of the exchange program. Marsh, Richards and Barnes (1986) had suggested that during an academic or group intervention, only those areas of the self-concept that are most logically associated with the goals of the intervention program should be mostly affected, whereas less relevant categories should be less affected and should serve as a control for potential response bias. It appears then that the program goal corresponded adequately with the students' need to gain language competency.

Also, a negative correlation was found between initial behavior of the students and increase in TOEFL scores. It is possible that those students whose behavior reflect very strong cultural ties have the most difficulty in acquiring a new language. Further research in this area is obviously needed to determine the influence of initial behavior and language development of international students.

Limitations

One major limitation of the one-group pretest-posttest design used in this study was that there was no control group. Without a control group it was not possible to determine if part or all the changes between pre- and posttest was brought about by the experiment or some extraneous variables. Some of the extraneous variables that can cause change between the pre- and posttest scores are history, maturation and test-retest effect.

Historical occurrences like contact with a new culture, social and economic changes at home, and some unexpected changes in the immediate

environment may have influenced the experimental results. Maturation effects related to changes and growth in personal characteristics of the respondents were not measured by the TSCS and could have influenced the results obtained. It is, however, assumed that the interval allowed between pre- and posttest may have reduced rather than increased threat to the internal validity of the study from this source.

Recommendations

1. Future studies should be conducted to explore the personal, social and academic characteristics of those students who achieved high level of language proficiency in the exchange program.
2. It is possible that the TSCS does not include all the parameters of self-description in the Japanese culture. Therefore, future research should employ self-concept measures normed for use in the Japanese culture.
3. Longitudinal research should be conducted to replicate this study with a larger population of exchange students and with a control group.
4. Further research should be conducted to explore the criteria for self-description among male and female Japanese college students.
5. Research should investigate self-concept characteristics of Japanese non-college students.
6. Research should compare language development of residence hall and homestay students.
7. Research should be conducted to examine the correlation between fluency in English language and TOEFL scores of Japanese students.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Pre- and Posttest TOEFL scores of Japanese Exchange Students.

Students code #.	Gender	TSCS		TOEFL	
		Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
1	F	277	260	380	453
2	M	311	292	387	393
3	F	310	286	427	480
4	M	336	392	410	453
5	F	301	345	360	453
6	F	318	296	413	437
7	F	255	255	447	500
8	M	241	257	483	587
9	M	325	279	353	420
10	F	357	384	373	400
11	F	271	272	527	590
12	F	330	329	400	403
13	M	317	306	420	457
14	F	332	342	360	410
15	F	303	242	400	403
16	F	283	276	450	413
17	M	279	299	367	413
18	M	301	295	357	407
19	F	320	307	353	397
20	M	288	288	457	497
21	F	279	298	403	443
22	M	281	286	493	560
23	M	273	277	307	393
24	F	347	283	430	490
25	F	289	301	430	443
26	F	292	302	433	513
27	M	247	235	377	457
28	F	284	229	370	427
29	M	275	305	350	363
30	F	319	317	423	433
31	F	336	340	433	493
32	M	322	292	390	460
33	F	269	247	447	477
34	F	289	270	450	493
35	M	263	265	343	410

Appendix A. (Cont.)

Students code #.	Gender	TSCS		TOEFL	
		Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
36	F	277	268	443	490
37	F	300	291	377	427
38	M	334	343	410	443
39	M	281	283	527	590
40	M	303	297	-	-
41	M	298	307	-	-
42	F	322	344	-	-
43	F	311	359	-	-
44	F	329	198	-	-
45	M	324	347	-	-
46	M	245	178	-	-
47	M	254	244	-	-
48	F	354	363	-	-
49	F	279	288	-	-
50	F	295	276	-	-
51	F	324	320	-	-
52	M	337	334	-	-
53	M			437	477
54	M			383	410
55	F			387	450
56	M			387	407
57	M			380	423
Mean score		299.8	294.2	407.6	453.1

Appendix B. DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

1. Did you have any formal; English class prior to coming to Willamette University? (Circle one number).

1. NO, DID NOT
 -----2. YES, DID

-----> 1a. If yes, how many years altogether have you studied English?

_____ YEARS STUDIED

2. How would you rate the English classes you have had before coming to Willamette University? (Circle one number).

1. EXCELLENT
 2. GOOD
 3. FAIR
 4. POOR
 5. I DON'T KNOW

3. Were the English classes you took in Japan taught by (Circle one number)

1. JAPANESE TEACHERS ONLY
 2. FOREIGN TEACHERS ONLY
 3. MOSTLY JAPANESE TEACHERS
 4. MOSTLY FOREIGN TEACHERS

4. How frequently did you speak English in Japan? (Circle one)

1. VERY FREQUENTLY
 2. FREQUENTLY
 3. SOMETIMES
 4. INFREQUENTLY
 5. NEVER

5. Do you speak any other foreign language other than English?

1. NO
 -----2. YES

----->5a. If yes, list all the other foreign languages you speak

6. How important is it for you to learn to speak English? (Circle one)

1. VERY IMPORTANT
2. IMPORTANT
3. SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT
4. UNIMPORTANT
5. VERY UNIMPORTANT

FAMILY TRAVEL HISTORY

7. Has any member of your family (father, mother, brother, sister) ever traveled out of Japan? (Circle one).

1. YES, FAMILY MEMBER HAS TRAVELED
2. NO, HAVE NOT

8. Prior to this exchange program, have you ever traveled out of Japan? (Circle one number)

1. NO, HAVE NOT TRAVELED
- 2. YES, HAVE TRAVELED

----->8a. If yes, please estimate how many days or months you lived or traveled out of Japan,

_____ MONTHS, _____ DAYS.

EDUCATION AND LIVING ARRANGEMENT AT WILLAMATTE UNIVERSITY

9. Did you enroll in any Willamette University classes this fall? (Circle one).

1. NO
- 2. YES, ENROLLED

----->9a. If yes, how many classes did you take at Willamette University this fall?

_____ NUMBER OF CLASSES.

9b. Did you complete all the classes?

1. YES, COMPLETED ALL
2. NO, DID NOT

10. Would you be willing to continue your education at Willamette University? (Circle one number)

1. NO
2. YES
3. NOT SURE

11. Did you have a Willamette University roommate during your stay? (Circle one number)

1. NO, DID NOT
- 2. YES, HAD A ROOMMATE

----->11a. If yes, how satisfied or dissatisfied were you with this living arrangement?

1. VERY SATISFIED
2. SATISFIED
3. DISSATISFIED
4. VERY DISSATISFIED

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

12. You are: (Circle one)

1. MALE
2. FEMALE

13. What is your age?

_____ YEARS

14. What is your present university classification? (Circle one number)

1. FRESHMAN
2. SOPHOMORE
3. JUNIOR
4. SENIOR
5. OTHER (Specify) _____

15. What is your major area of study? _____

16. Is there anything else you would like to say about your stay at Willamette University or about this questionnaire?

(THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION)

Appendix C. An Analysis of Selected Demographic Characteristics of
Exchange Students in TOEFL and TSCS Tests.

Demographic characteristics	Gender	TOEFL (n = 44)	TSCS (n = 52)	TOEFL & TSCS (n = 39)
Gender	M	20 (45) ¹	22 (42)	16 (41)
	F	23 (55)	30 (58)	23 (59)
Completed survey	M	16 (36)	19 (36)	14 (36)
	F	21 (28)	28 (54)	21 (54)
Speaks foreign language	M	3 (7)	3 (6)	3 (8)
	F	6 (14)	6 (12)	6 (15)
Has travelled outside Japan	M	8 (18)	9 (17)	8 (21)
	F	11 (25)	16 (31)	11 (28)
Rated spoken English as important to very important	M	14 (32)	15 (31)	13 (33)
	F	18 (41)	25 (48)	18 (46)
Enrolled in Willamette Univ.	M	11 (25)	13 (25)	10 (25)
	F	19 (43)	26 (50)	19 (49)

¹Numbers in parenthesis are % values.

Appendix D. Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations for TSCS
Normative Sample and Pretest and Posttest Means and Standard
Deviation of Exchange Japanese Students.

TSCS Score	Normative Sample*		Japanese Exchange Students		
	n = 626		n = 52		
	M	SD		M	SD
Total Score	345.57	30.70	Pre	299.75	28.983
			Post	294.173	42.642
Identity	127.10	9.96	Pre	110.885	14.15
			Post	108.846	13.078
Satisfaction	103.67	13.79	Pre	91.5	12.946
			Post	92.154	16.483
Behavior	115.01	11.22	Pre	97.192	11.419
			Post	96.269	13.19
Physical	71.78	7.67	Pre	60.538	6.179
			Post	59.404	8.472
Moral-Ethical	70.33	8.70	Pre	58.231	7.106
			Post	57.346	9.347
Personal	64.55	7.41	Pre	58.096	8.209
			Post	57.000	10.188
Family	70.83	8.43	Pre	63.962	7.488
			Post	64.462	9.215
Social	68.14	7.86	Pre	59.385	10.166
			Post	57.75	11.431

*Normative Sample from Fitts (1965).